# Linear Classification and Support Vector Machine and Stochastic Gradient Descent and Multi-class Classification

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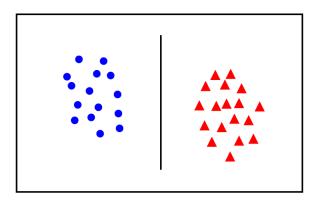
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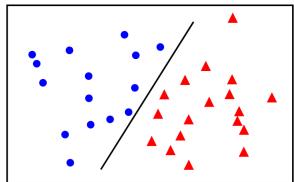
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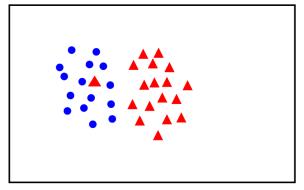
# Linear Separability

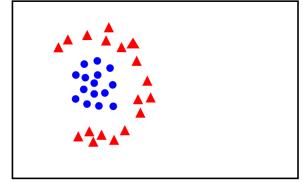
Linearly separable





Not linearly separable



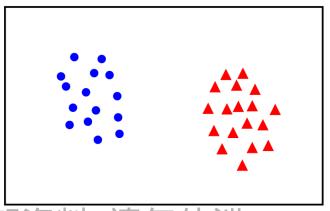


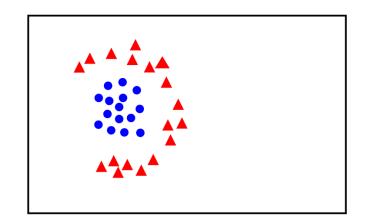
# **Binary Classification**

Given training data  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  for  $i = 1 \dots n$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ , learn a classifier f(x) such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) \begin{cases} \geq 0 & y_i = +1 \\ < 0 & y_i = -1 \end{cases}$$

i.e.  $y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i) > 0$  for a correct classification

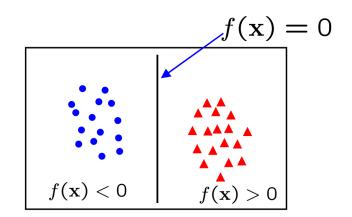




# Linear Classifiers: 2D Example

#### A linear classifier has the form:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + b$$

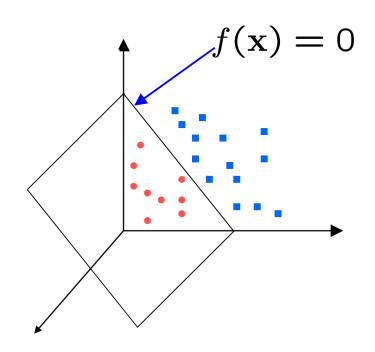


- In 2-D, the discriminant is a line
- $\blacksquare$  w is the normal to the line, and b is the bias
- w is known as the weight vector

# Linear Classifiers: 3D Example

#### A linear classifier has the form:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + b$$

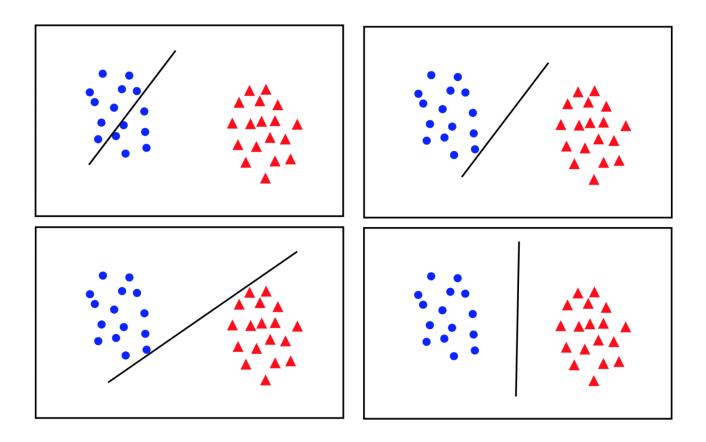


■ In 3-D the discriminant is a plane, and in m-D it is a hyperplane

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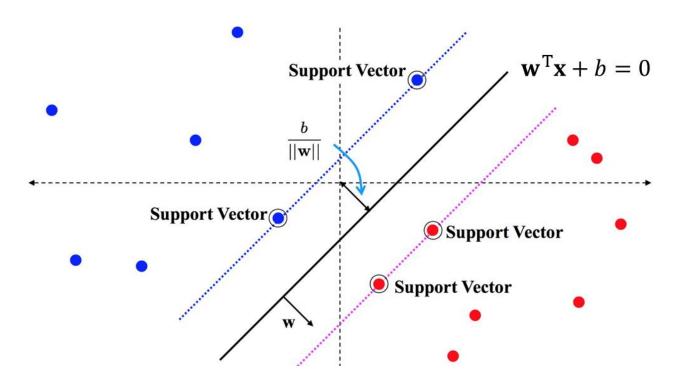
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### What's a Good Decision Boundary?



■ Maximum margin solution: most stable under perturbations of the inputs

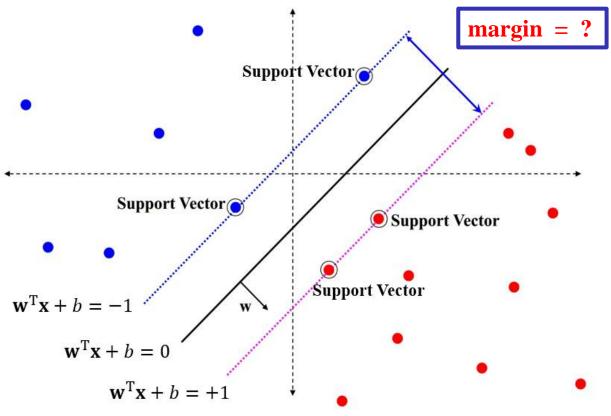
# Max-margin Methods



- Select two parallel hyperplanes that separate the two classes of data and let the distance between them as large as possible
- The region bounded by these two hyperplanes is called the "margin"

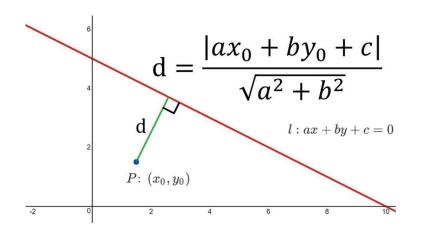
### **SVM-sketch** Derivation

- Choose normalization such that  $\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_{+} + b = +1$  and  $\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_{-} + b = -1$  for the positive and negative support vectors respectively
- Then how to calculate the margin?

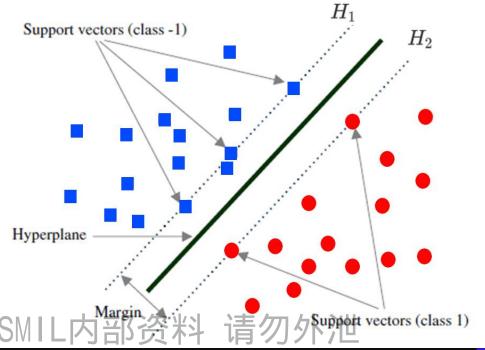


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# Geometric Margin



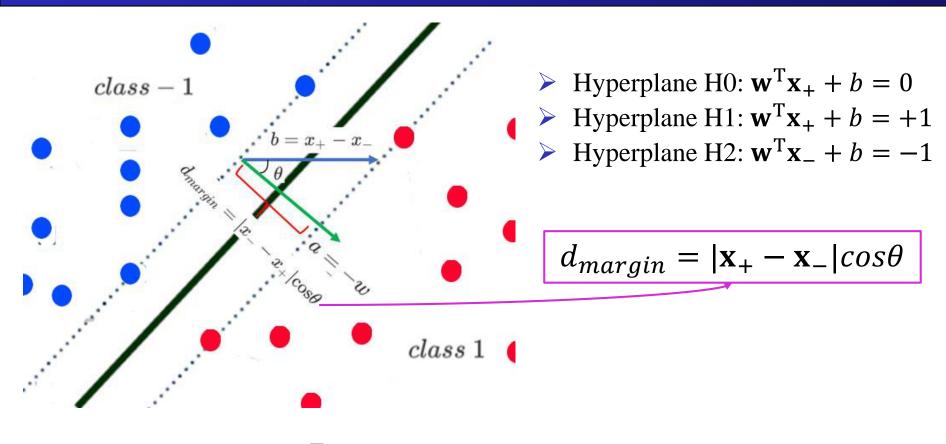
Distance from point to line in two-dimensional plane



Distance from point to line in high-dimensional space

$$\frac{|\textbf{w}^{T}\textbf{x}+\textbf{b}|}{||\textbf{w}||},$$
 where  $||\textbf{w}||=\sqrt{w_{1}^{2}+\cdots+w_{n}^{2}}$ 

### Functional Margin



$$\mathbf{H1} - \mathbf{H2} = 1 - (-1) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{x}_{+} - \mathbf{x}_{-}) = |\mathbf{w}| |\mathbf{x}_{+} - \mathbf{x}_{-}| \cos \theta = ||\mathbf{w}|| d_{margin}$$

$$d_{margin} = \frac{2}{||w||}$$

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# **Basic Support Vector Machine**

SVM can be considered as an optimization problem to maximize margin.

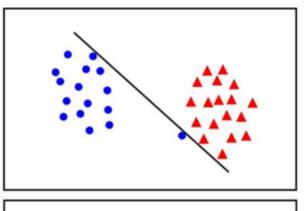
So the problem can be formulated as an optimization:

$$\max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{2}{||\mathbf{w}||} \quad s.t. \quad \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b \begin{cases} \geq 1 & y_i = +1 \\ \leq -1 & y_i = -1 \end{cases}$$

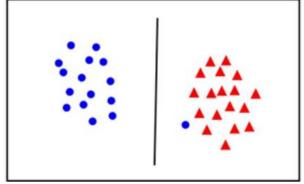
Or equivalently:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^2}{2}$$
s.t.  $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1$ ,  $i = 1,2,3,...,n$ 

### Linear Separability Again: What is the Outlier?



The point can be linearly separated but the margin is very narrow

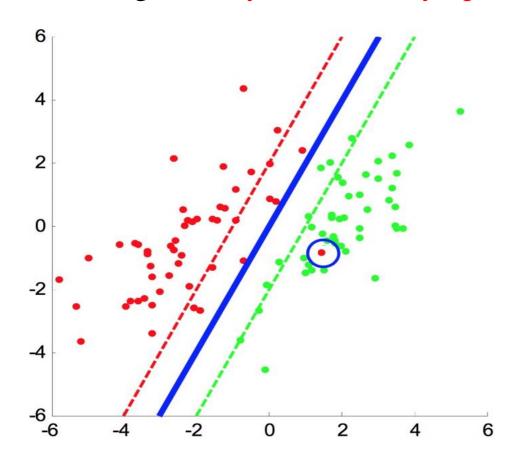


The large margin solution is better, even though one sample point cannot satisfy the constraint

In general, there exists a trade-off between the margin and the number of mistakes on the training data

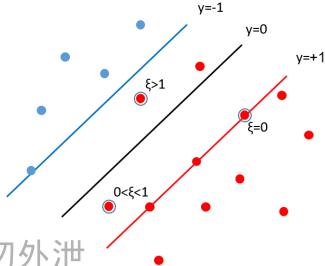
# Linear Separability Again: What is the Outlier?

Moreover, training data may not be linearly separable!



### Relaxed Formulation

- Introduce slack variable  $\xi_i \ge 0$  for each i, which represents how much example i is on the wrong side of margin boundary
  - $\xi_i = 0$  means the basic formulation of SVM works well
  - $0 < \xi_i < 1$  means it is correctly classified, but with a smaller margin than  $\frac{2}{||\mathbf{w}||}$
  - $\xi_i \ge 1$  means it is incorrectly classified



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### Soft Margin Formulation

The previous optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^2}{2}$$
s.t.  $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1$ ,  $i = 1,2,3,...,n$ 

Now, the optimization problem becomes:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b,\xi_{i}} \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^{2}}{2} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i}$$
s.t.  $y_{i}(\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{x}_{i} + b) \ge 1 - \xi_{i}, \ \forall \xi_{i} \ge 0, \ i = 1,2,...,n$ 

where C is a hyperparameter:

-small C makes constraints easy to be ignored

-large C makes constraints hard to be ignored

# Soft Margin Formulation

As can be seen from above:

$$\xi_i \ge 1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b), \ \forall \xi_i \ge 0, \ i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

• What does  $\xi_i$  value?

if 
$$1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0$$
, then  $\xi_i = 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b)$   
if  $1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) < 0$ , then  $\xi_i = 0$ 

Rewrite  $\xi_i$  as:

$$\xi_i = \max(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b))$$

### Hinge Loss

Hinge loss:

$$\xi_i = \max(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b))$$

The optimization problem becomes:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^2}{2} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0,1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b))$$

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### Gradient Descent

Gradient descent minimum optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} L(\mathbf{w},b) = \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^2}{2} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max\left(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b)\right)$$

To minimize a loss function  $L(\mathbf{w}, b)$ , use the iterative update:

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b)$$
$$b = b - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{b}} L(\mathbf{w}, b)$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate

### Gradient Descent

Let 
$$g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\partial \xi_i}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$
,  $g_b(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\partial \xi_i}{\partial b}$ 

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \mathbf{w} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\nabla_b L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_b(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

#### Algorithm 1: GD

1 Initialize parameter **w** and learning rate  $\eta$  2 **while** stopping condition is not achieved **do** 

```
3 \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
4 b = b - \eta \nabla_{b} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
5 end
```

# **Gradient Computation**

Gradient descent minimum optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} L(\mathbf{w},b) = \frac{||\mathbf{W}||^2}{2} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b))$$

Gradient computation :

$$\nabla L = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) \\ \nabla_{b} L(\mathbf{w}, b) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Gradient Computation

- The hinge loss is  $\xi_i = \max\left(0, 1 y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b)\right)$ Let  $g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\partial \xi_i}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$
- If  $1 y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0$ :

$$g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\partial (-y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b))}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$
$$= -\frac{\partial (y_i\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i)}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$
$$= -y_i\mathbf{x}_i$$

If  $1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) < 0$ :

$$g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = 0$$

### **Gradient Computation**

So we have:

$$g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \begin{cases} -y_i \mathbf{x}_i & 1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0 \\ 0 & 1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) < 0 \end{cases}$$

Let 
$$g_b(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\partial \xi_i}{\partial b}$$

$$g_b(\mathbf{x}_i) = \begin{cases} -y_i & 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0 \\ 0 & 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) < 0 \end{cases}$$

### Gradient Descent

Gradient descent is a batch algorithm that uses all examples

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \mathbf{w} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\nabla_b L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_b(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

#### Algorithm 1: GD

```
1 Initialize parameter \mathbf{w} and learning rate \eta
2 while stopping condition is not achieved do
3 \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
4 b = b - \eta \nabla_{b} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
5 end
```

### Gradient Descent

The algorithm for calculating the subgradient is as follows:

$$g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \begin{cases} -y_i \mathbf{x}_i & 1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0 \\ 0 & 1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$g_b(\mathbf{x}_i) = \begin{cases} -y_i & 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0 \\ 0 & 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b) < 0 \end{cases}$$

#### Algorithm 2: Subgradient

```
Initialize g_{\mathbf{w}}=0, g_b=0
Initialize g_{\mathbf{w}}=0
Initi
```

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# Stochastic Optimization Motivation

- Information is redundant amongst samples
- Sufficient samples mean we can afford noisy updates
- Never-ending stream means we should not wait for all data
- Tracking non-stationary data means the target is changing

### Stochastic Gradient Descent

■ Stochastic Gradient Descent works similar as GD that uses the loss of a single training sample to approximate the average loss

#### Algorithm 1: GD

1 Initialize parameter  ${\bf w}$  and learning rate  $\eta$  2 while stopping condition is not achieved do 3  ${\bf w}={\bf w}-\eta\nabla_{\!{\bf w}}L({\bf w},b)$ 

 $\begin{array}{c|c}
\mathbf{a} & \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \eta V_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) \\
b & = b - \eta \nabla_{b} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
\end{array}$ 

5 end

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \mathbf{w} + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\nabla_b L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_b(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

#### Algorithm 3: SGD

1 Initialize parameter  ${\bf w}$  and learning rate  $\eta$ 

2 while stopping condition is not achieved do

Randomly select an example i in the training set

4

5

6 end

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b)$$
  
$$b = b - \eta \nabla_{b} L(\mathbf{w}, b)$$

n —> 1

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \mathbf{w} + C g_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\nabla_b L(\mathbf{w}, b) = C g_b(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

### Benefits of SGD

- Gradient is easy to calculate (instantaneous)
- Less prone to local minima
- Small memory to use
- Get to a reasonable solution quickly
- Can be used for more complex models

### Limitation of SGD

■ The variance of the stochastic gradient is large



Hard to reach high accuracy

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### Minibatch Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Like the single random sample, the full gradient is approximated via an unbiased noisy estimate
- Rather than use a single point, randomly choose a subset  $S_k$ , and optimization problem is as follows:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} L \coloneqq \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^2}{2} + \frac{C}{|S_k|} \sum_{i \in S_k} \max(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b))$$

The size of  $S_k$ , denoted by  $|S_k|$ , is much smaller than the original data size n, and  $|S_k|$  can be  $2^3$ ,  $2^4$  ...

### Minibatch Stochastic Gradient Descent

■ MSGD works identically to SGD, except that we use more than one training example to make each estimate of the gradient

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \mathbf{w} + \frac{C}{|S_k|} \sum_{i \in S_k} g_{\mathbf{w}}(X_i)$$

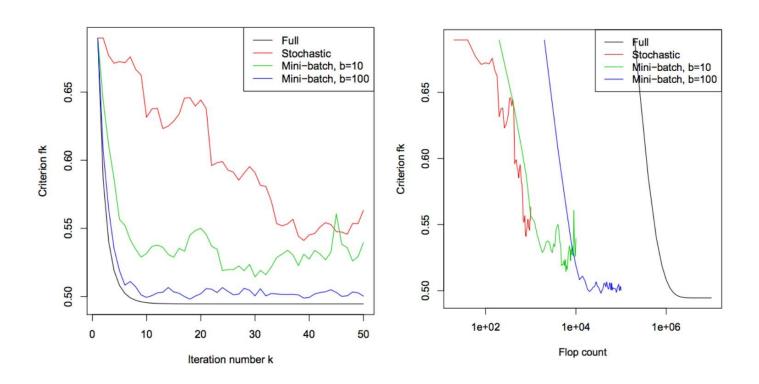
$$\nabla_b L(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{c}{|S_k|} \sum_{i \in S_k} g_b(X_i)$$

#### Algorithm 4: MSGD

```
Initialize parameter \mathbf{w} and learning rate \eta
while stopping condition is not achieved do
Randomly select |S_k| examples in the training set
\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
\mathbf{b} = b - \eta \nabla_{b} L(\mathbf{w}, b)
end
```

# Example

■ Larger mini-batch size takes more computation time but less iterations



# Importance of Learning Rate

- Learning rate has a large impact on convergence
   Too small → too slow
   Too large → oscillate and may even diverge
- Should learning rate be fixed or adaptive?
- Is convergence necessary?

Non-stationary: convergence may not be required Stationary: learning rate should decrease with time

# SGD Recommendations

#### Randomly shuffle training examples

- Although theory says you should randomly pick examples, it is easier to pass through your training set sequentially
- Shuffling before each iteration eliminates the effect of order

#### Monitor both training cost and validation errors

- Set aside samples for validation set
- Compute the objective on the training set and validation set
   (expensive but better than overfitting or wasting computation)

# SGD Recommendations

#### Check gradient using finite differences

- Incorrect computation can yield erratic and slow algorithm
- Verify your code by slightly perturbing the parameter and inspecting differences between the two gradients

#### Leverage sparsity of the training examples

For very high-dimensional vectors with few non-zero coefficients, you only need to update the weight corresponding to non-zero pattern in **x** 

# SGD Recommendations

#### Experiment with the learning rates using small sample of training set

- SGD convergence learning rates are independent from sample size
- Use traditional optimization algorithms as a reference point

# Use learning rates of the form $\eta_t = \eta_{t-1} (1 + \eta_{t-1} \lambda t)^{-1}$

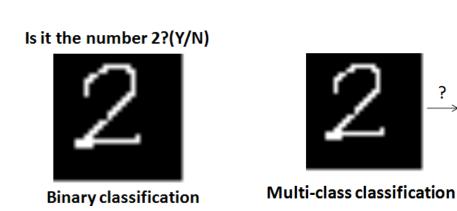
- Allow you to start from reasonable learning rates determined by testing on a small sample
- Work well in most situations if the initial point is slightly smaller than best value observed in training sample

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# Three Common Classification Problems

- Binary classification
- Multi-class classification
- Multi-label classification





Multi-label classification

# Multi-class Classification

Multi-class classification is the common classification problem, which classifies instances into one of the more than two classes.

#### Dataset

- MNIST
- Cifar-10 and Cifar-100
- ImageNet
- **.**.

# Multi-class Classification

### Three general strategies:

- Convert to binary classification
- Extend from binary classification
- Hierarchical classification

# Convert to Binary Classification

The strategies reduce the problem of multi-class classification to multiple binary classification problems.

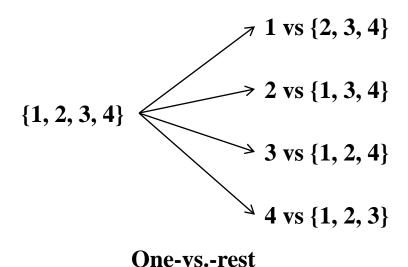
- One-vs.-rest
- One-vs.-one
- Decision Directed Acyclic Graph, DDAG

# One-vs.-rest Method

# Training:

For each class

Train a binary classifier with the samples of that class as positive samples and others as negatives



# One-vs.-rest Method

#### Prediction:

- For each binary classifier
  - Produce a real-valued confidence score
- Predict the label with the highest confidence score

$$\widehat{y} = \arg\max_{k \in \{1...k\}} f_k(x)$$

### One-vs.-rest Method

#### Advantage vs Disadvantages

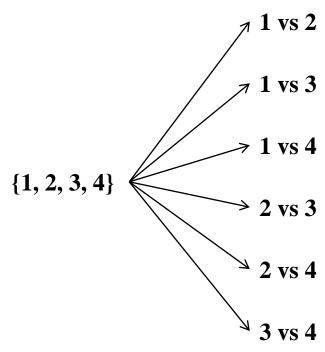
- Advantage
  - Train K binary classifiers for a K-way multi-class problem
- Disadvantages
  - The distributions of the binary classifications are unbalanced (The set of negatives is much larger than the set of positives)
  - The scale of the confidence values may differ between the binary classifiers

# One-vs.-one Method

# Training:

For each pair of classes

Train a binary classifier to discriminate between them.



# One-vs.-one Method

#### Prediction:

- For each binary classifier
  - Contrast the two categories and do a voting

$$A=B=C=D=0$$

A vs B-classifier: if A win, A=A+1; otherwise, B=B+1;

A vs C-classifier: if A win, A=A+1; otherwise, C=C+1;

. . .

C vs D-classifier: if C win, C=C+1; otherwise, D=D+1;

Predict the label with the maximum number of votes wins

$$\hat{y} = \max(A, B, C, D)$$

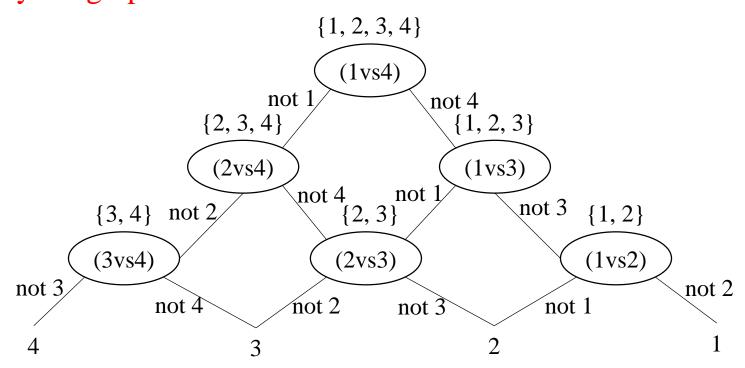
# One-vs.-one Method

### Advantage vs Disadvantages

- Advantage
  - The distributions of the binary classification are balanced
- Disadvantages
  - Train K(K−1)/2 binary classifiers for a K−way multi-class problem, which has high computed complexity
  - Suffer from ambiguities when receive the same number of votes

# Decision Directed Acyclic Graph

Compared to One-vs.-one method, it uses a rooted binary directed acyclic graph which has internal nodes and leaves



Decision Directed Acyclic Graph

# Decision Directed Acyclic Graph

#### Predict:

- Start at the root node
- Before reaching a leaf node:
  - Evaluate the binary decision function
  - Move to either left or right depending on the output value

#### Compared to One-vs.-one method

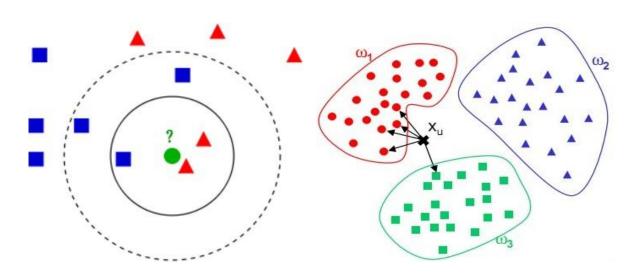
■ The correlation between each of the binary classifications brings the cost of the prediction down

# Extend from Binary Classification

- The strategy extends the existing binary classifiers to solve multi-class classification problems
  - K-nearest neighbors

# K-nearest Neighbors

- Calculate the distances
   Calculate the distances between the test object and each object in the training set
- Find the neighborsGet the K-nearest training objects as neighbors
- Vote on labels
   Classify the test object based on the most frequent class of the neighbors



# K-nearest Neighbors

### Advantages vs Disadvantages

- Advantages
  - The method is a non-parametric classification algorithm
  - The algorithm can naturally handle binary and multi-class classification
- Disadvantages
  - The computational and memory requirements are high
  - Finding good representations and distance measures between objects is hard

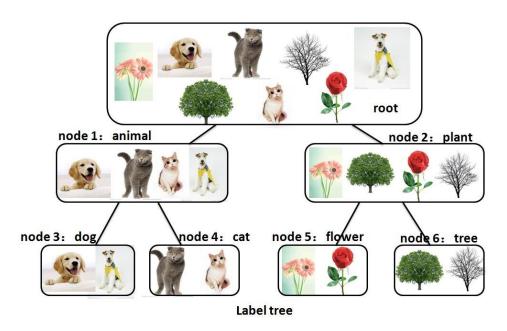
# Hierarchical Classification

- The strategy tackles the multi-class classification problem by dividing the output space into a tree
  - Label tree

# Label Tree

#### Train:

- Before the leaf nodes contain only a single class
  - Each parent node is divided into a number of clusters, one for each child node
- At each node, a simple classifier is trained to discriminate between the different child class clusters



# Label Tree

#### Predict:

- Start from the root node
  - Travel to a leaf node which is associated with a label

### Advantage vs Disadvantage

- Advantage
  - The tree method brings the cost of the prediction down
- Disadvantage
  - Depended on a good clustering method.

Q & A?

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- An optimization problem can be considered in two ways, primal problem and dual problem
  - for primal problem of basic SVM:

$$\min_{w,b} \frac{||\mathbf{w}||^2}{2}$$

s.t. 
$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1$$
,  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ 

its Lagrange function is:

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

its Lagrange "dual function" is:

$$D(\alpha) = infL(w, b, \alpha)$$

Dual function gives the lower bound of the optimal value of primal problem

dual problem: the best lower bound dual function can get

$$\max_{\alpha} D(\alpha)$$

setting partial derivative of D with respect to w equal to 0:

$$\nabla_{w}D = \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i = 0 \tag{2}$$

setting partial derivative of  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to b equal to 0:

$$\nabla_b D = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \tag{3}$$

Put (2), (3) into (1), we can get:

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{w}^T \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} - 0$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \right]^T \left[ \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T X_j$$

Last, we can get the dual problem:

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$s.t. \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0,$$

$$\alpha_i \ge 0, \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

# Thank You