Optimization Objective

The **Support Vector Machine** (SVM) is yet another type of *supervised* machine learning algorithm. It is sometimes cleaner and more powerful.

Recall that in logistic regression, we use the following rules:

if y=1, then
$$h_{\theta}(x) \approx 1$$
 and $\Theta^T x \gg 0$

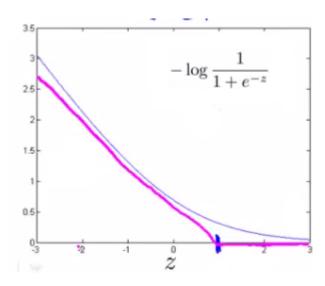
if y=0, then
$$h_{\theta}(x) \approx 0$$
 and $\Theta^T x \ll 0$

Recall the cost function for (unregularized) logistic regression:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} -y^{(i)} \log(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) - (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))$$

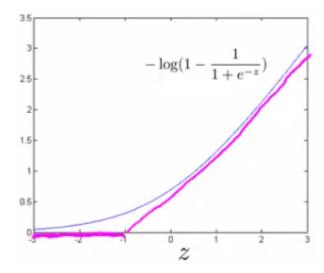
$$= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} -y^{(i)} \log(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^{T} x^{(i)}}}) - (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^{T} x^{(i)}}})$$

To make a support vector machine, we will modify the first term of the cost function $-\log(h_{\theta}(x)) = -\log\left(\frac{1}{1+e^{-\theta^T x}}\right)$ so that when $\theta^T x$ (from now on, we shall refer to this as z) is **greater than** 1, it outputs 0. Furthermore, for values of z less than 1, we shall use a straight decreasing line instead of the sigmoid curve.(In the literature, this is called a hinge loss (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hinge_loss) function.)



Similarly, we modify the second term of the cost function $-\log(1-h_{\theta(x)}) = -\log(1-\frac{1}{1+e^{-\theta^T x}})$ so that when z is **less than** -1, it outputs 0. We also modify it so that for values of z greater than -1, we use a straight increasing line

instead of the sigmoid curve.



We shall denote these as $cost_1(z)$ and $cost_0(z)$ (respectively, note that $cost_1(z)$ is the cost for classifying when y=1, and $cost_0(z)$ is the cost for classifying when y=0), and we may define them as follows (where k is an arbitrary constant defining the magnitude of the slope of the line):

$$z = \theta^T x$$

$$cost_0(z) = max(0, k(1+z))$$

$$cost_1(z) = max(0, k(1-z))$$

Recall the full cost function from (regularized) logistic regression:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} (-\log(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))) + (1 - y^{(i)}) (-\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))) + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_{j}^{2}$$

Note that the negative sign has been distributed into the sum in the above equation.

We may transform this into the cost function for support vector machines by substituting $cost_0(z)$ and $cost_1(z)$:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \cot_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \cot_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_j^2$$

We can optimize this a bit by multiplying this by m (thus removing the m factor in the denominators). Note that this does not affect our optimization, since we're simply multiplying our cost function by a positive constant (for example, minimizing $(u-5)^2+1$ gives us 5; multiplying it by 10 to make it $10(u-5)^2+10$ still gives us 5 when minimized).

$$J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \cot_{1}(\theta^{T} x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \cot_{0}(\theta^{T} x^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_{j}^{2}$$

Furthermore, convention dictates that we regularize using a factor C, instead of λ , like so:

$$J(\theta) = C \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \cot_{1}(\theta^{T} x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \cot_{0}(\theta^{T} x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_{j}^{2}$$

This is equivalent to multiplying the equation by $C=\frac{1}{\lambda}$, and thus results in the same values when optimized. Now, when we wish to regularize more (that is, reduce overfitting), we *decrease* C, and when we wish to regularize less (that is, reduce underfitting), we *increase* C.

Finally, note that the hypothesis of the Support Vector Machine is *not*interpreted as the probability of y being 1 or 0 (as it is for the hypothesis of logistic regression). Instead, it outputs either 1 or 0. (In technical terms, it is a discriminant function.)

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \Theta^T x \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Large Margin Intuition

A useful way to think about Support Vector Machines is to think of them as Large Margin Classifiers.

If y=1, we want $\Theta^T x \ge 1$ (not just ≥ 0)

If y=0, we want $\Theta^T x \le -1$ (not just <0)

Now when we set our constant C to a very **large** value (e.g. 100,000), our optimizing function will constrain Θ such that the equation A (the summation of the cost of each example) equals 0. We impose the following constraints on Θ :

$$\Theta^T x \ge 1$$
 if y=1 and $\Theta^T x \le -1$ if y=0.

If C is very large, we must choose Θ parameters such that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \cos t_1(\Theta^T x) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \cos t_0(\Theta^T x) = 0$$

This reduces our cost function to:

$$J(\theta) = C \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_j^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_j^2$$

Recall the decision boundary from logistic regression (the line separating the positive and negative examples). In SVMs, the decision boundary has the special property that it is **as far away as possible** from both the positive and the negative examples.

The distance of the decision boundary to the nearest example is called the **margin**. Since SVMs maximize this margin, it is often called a *Large Margin Classifier*.

The SVM will separate the negative and positive examples by a large margin.

This large margin is only achieved when **C** is very large.

Data is linearly separable when a straight line can separate the positive and negative examples.

If we have **outlier** examples that we don't want to affect the decision boundary, then we can **reduce** C.

Increasing and decreasing C is similar to respectively decreasing and increasing λ , and can simplify our decision boundary.

Mathematics Behind Large Margin Classification (Optional)

Vector Inner Product

Say we have two vectors, u and v:

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The **length of vector v** is denoted ||v||, and it describes the line on a graph from origin (0,0) to (v_1,v_2) .

The length of vector v can be calculated with $\sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$ by the Pythagorean theorem.

The **projection** of vector v onto vector u is found by taking a right angle from u to the end of v, creating a right triangle.

- p= length of projection of v onto the vector u.
- $u^T v = p \cdot ||u||$

Note that $u^T v = ||u|| \cdot ||v|| \cos \theta$ where θ is the angle between u and v. Also, $p = ||v|| \cos \theta$. If you substitute p for $||v|| \cos \theta$, you get $u^T v = p \cdot ||u||$.

So the product $u^T v$ is equal to the length of the projection times the length of vector u.

In our example, since u and v are vectors of the same length, $u^T v = v^T u$.

$$u^{T}v = v^{T}u = p \cdot ||u|| = u_{1}v_{1} + u_{2}v_{2}$$

If the angle between the lines for v and u is greater than 90 degrees, then the projection p will be negative.

$$\min_{\Theta} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Theta_{j}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\Theta_{1}^{2} + \Theta_{2}^{2} + \dots + \Theta_{n}^{2})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{\Theta_{1}^{2} + \Theta_{2}^{2} + \dots + \Theta_{n}^{2}})^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} ||\Theta||^{2}$$

We can use the same rules to rewrite $\Theta^T x^{(i)}$:

$$\Theta^T x^{(i)} = p^{(i)} \cdot ||\Theta|| = \Theta_1 x_1^{(i)} + \Theta_2 x_2^{(i)} + \dots + \Theta_n x_n^{(i)}$$

So we now have a new **optimization objective** by substituting $p^{(i)} \cdot ||\Theta||$ in for $\Theta^T x^{(i)}$:

If y=1, we want $p^{(i)} \cdot ||\Theta|| \ge 1$

If y=0, we want $p^{(i)} \cdot ||\Theta|| \le -1$

The reason this causes a "large margin" is because: the vector for Θ is perpendicular to the decision boundary. In order for our optimization objective (above) to hold true, we need the absolute value of our projections $p^{(i)}$ to be as large as possible.

If $\Theta_0 = 0$, then all our decision boundaries will intersect (0,0). If $\Theta_0 \neq 0$, the support vector machine will still find a large margin for the decision boundary.