

IFT6390

Fondements de l'apprentissage machine

**Linear classifiers  
(and linear discriminant functions)**

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# What is a linear classifier?

- A learning algorithm for classification that makes it possible to learn a decision function  $f(x)$  for a classification problem
- If its decision function **can be expressed** in one of the following simple forms:

## Binary classification (2 classes):

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(g(\mathbf{x})) \quad \text{where } g(\mathbf{x}) \text{ is a linear discriminant function:}$$

response: class -1 or +1

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$$

**Parameters:**  $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}, b\}$ ,  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$

weights vector bias

## Multiclass classification ( $m$ classes):

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{argmax}(g(\mathbf{x}))$$

response: class between 1 and  $m$

$b$  is not a scalar. it has separate  $b$  for every class

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$$
$$g(\mathbf{x}) = (g_1(\mathbf{x}), g_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, g_m(\mathbf{x}))$$

**Parameters:**  $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{b}\}$ ,  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

matrix of weights vector of biases

# Relationship of binary and multiclass with $m=2$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}) &= \arg \max [\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}] \\ &= \arg \max [(\mathbf{W}_{:1}^T \mathbf{x} + b_1, \quad \mathbf{W}_{:2}^T \mathbf{x} + b_2)] && \text{o.w. = otherwise} \\ &= 2 \quad \text{if} \quad \mathbf{W}_{:2}^T \mathbf{x} + b_2 > \mathbf{W}_{:1}^T \mathbf{x} + b_1 \quad (\text{and } 1 \text{ o.w.}) \\ &= 2 \quad \text{if} \quad (\mathbf{W}_{:2} - \mathbf{W}_{:1})^T \mathbf{x} + (b_2 - b_1) > 0 \quad (\text{and } 1 \text{ o.w.}) \\ &= 2 \quad \text{if} \quad \underbrace{\text{sign}((\mathbf{W}_{:2} - \mathbf{W}_{:1})^T \mathbf{x} + (b_2 - b_1))}_{\mathbf{w}} = +1 \quad (\text{and } 1 \text{ o.w.}) \\ &= 1.5 + \frac{1}{2} \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b) \end{aligned}$$

# Geometry of a linear discriminant function

- Decision regions:

$$R_+ = \{x \mid g(x) > 0\} \quad \text{and} \quad R_- = \{x \mid g(x) < 0\}$$

- Decision boundary/surface  $H = \{x \mid g(x) = 0\}$

- Linear discriminant:  $g(x) = \mathbf{w}^T x + b$

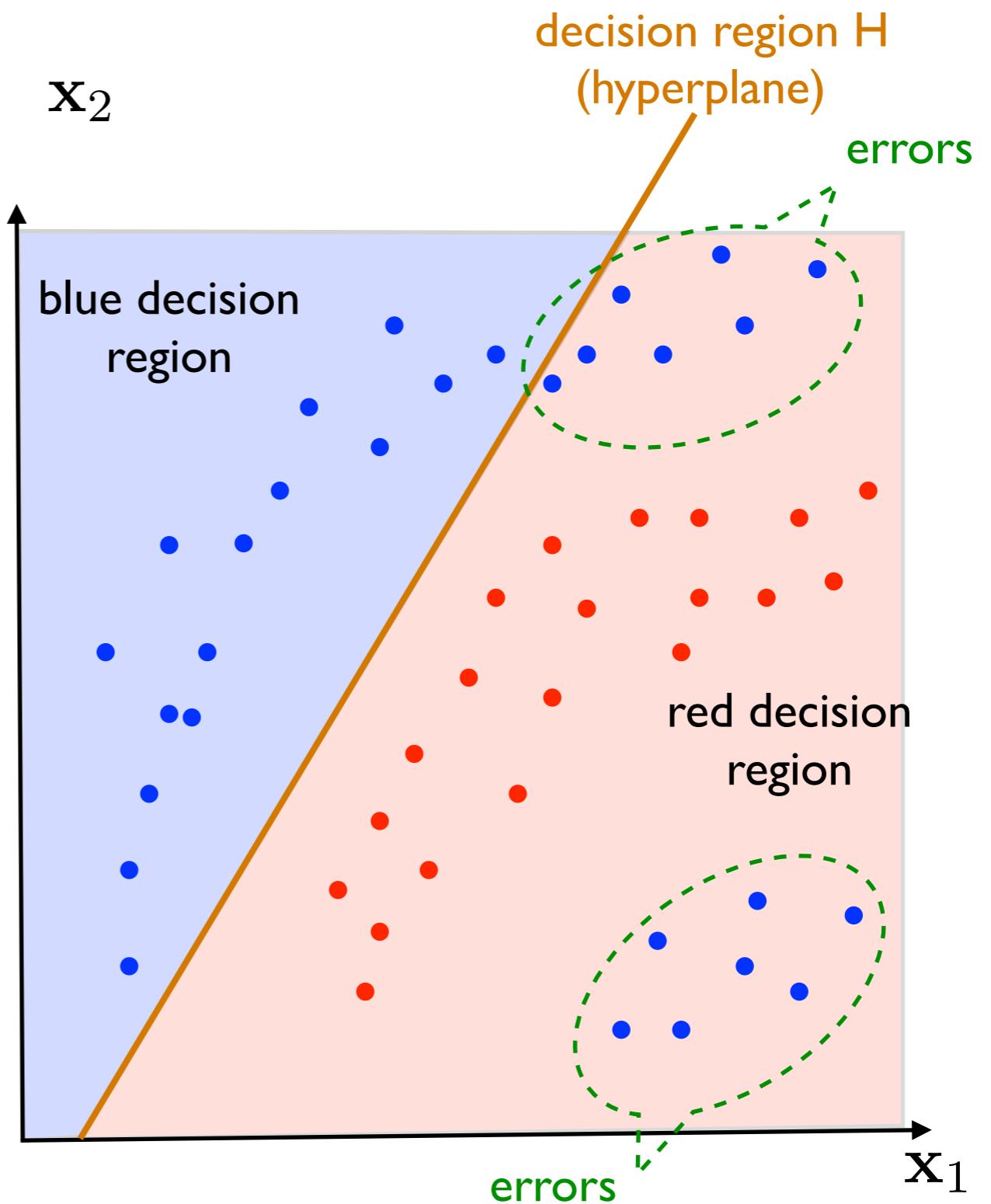
➡ Decision boundary:  $H = \{x \mid \mathbf{w}^T x + b = 0\}$

A hyperplane.

➡ Decision regions: the two **half-spaces** defined by the hyperplane.

# Geometry of a linear discriminant function

The decision boundary is a hyperplane.



# Cost of misclassification

- Decision function associated with a linear discriminant function:

$$y = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b)$$

- Cost (loss) of misclassification:

$$t^{(i)} \stackrel{\text{targets}}{\in} \{-1, +1\}$$

$$L(y, t) = I_{\{y \neq t\}} = I_{\{(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b)t < 0\}}$$

- Rate of misclassification (error rate) of such a function on a set:

$$D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\}$$

$$\hat{R}_{\text{classif}}(f_{\theta}, D_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(f_{\theta}(x^{(i)}), t^{(i)})$$

# Linear separability

of Data

- We say that a dataset  $D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\}$  is linearly separable if (and only if) there exists a linear discriminant function that makes 0 errors on this set.
- Geometrically: if there is a hyper-plane that perfectly separates the examples of  $D_n$  (so that all of those in one class are in a half-space and those in the other half in the other half-space)
- Formally. If  $t^{(i)} \in \{-1, +1\}$   $D_n$  is linearly separable if and only if

$$\exists \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R} \quad | \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \quad \underbrace{\text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)}_{f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})} = t^{(i)}$$

# Many algorithms to learn a "linear classifier"

- Linear regression (regularized or not) with targets +1, -1.  
(But not very appropriate for classification).
- Nearest centroid classifier (or average, center of gravity)
- Bayes classifier with Gaussian densities (if forced to have the same covariance).
- Logistic regression
- Perceptron Algorithm
- Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
- (linear) Support vector machines...

# Many algorithms to learn a "linear classifier"

## How are they similar?

- They all generate a decision function **expressible** in the parameterized form previously defined.
- For the binary classification (2 classes), their decision boundary is always a **hyperplane**

## How are they different?

- For the same training set  $D_n$  they will typically learn **different** parameter values.  
=> giving rise to a different hyperplane.  
=> Some will generalize better to new examples

# Ex I: nearest centroid (centroid/barycenter)

- Parameters:  $\theta = \{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m\}$  all vectors of dimension d.

- Training:

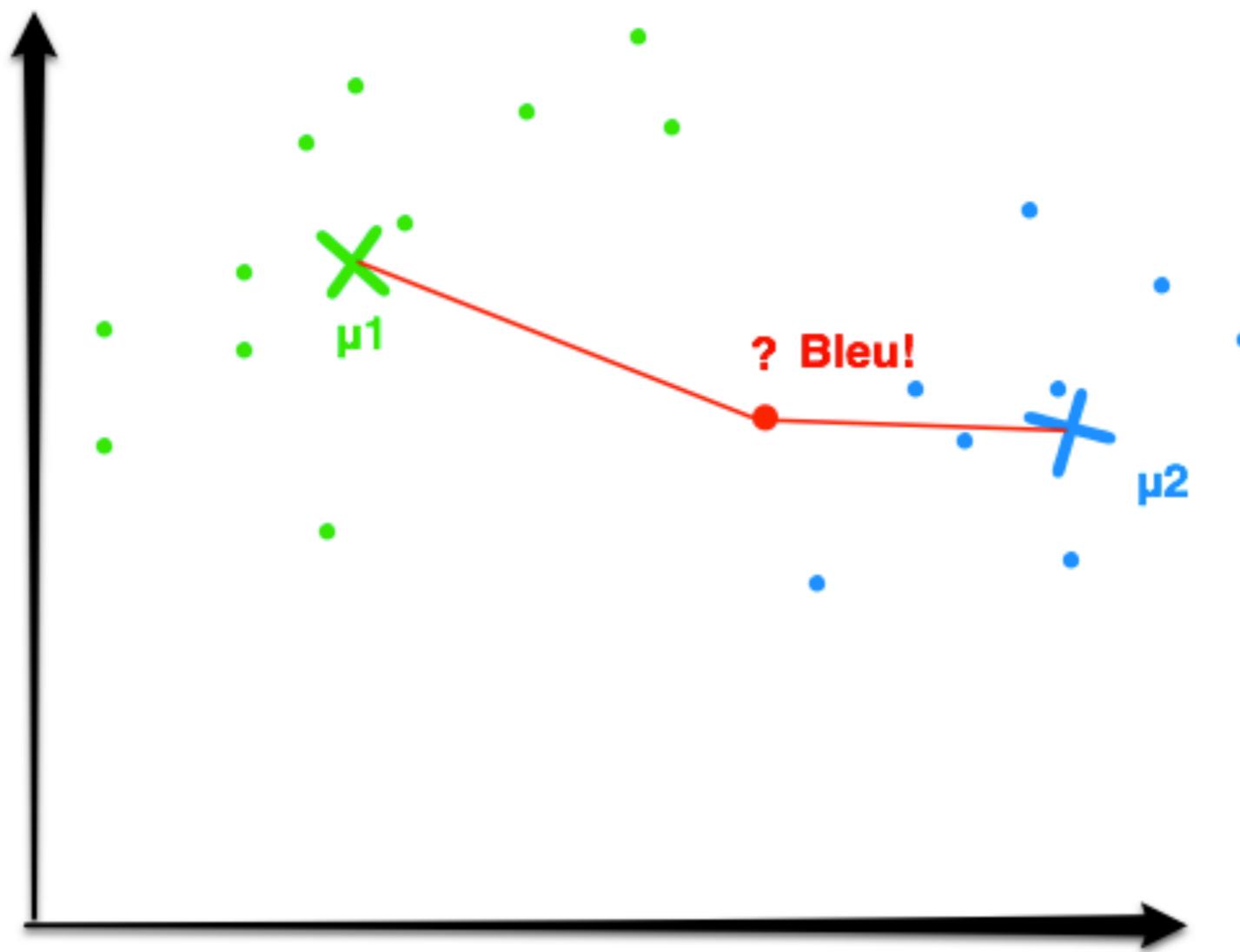
$\mu_m$  = average of all examples in class  $m$

- Decision:

$$f(x) = \arg \min[(d_{L_2}(\mathbf{x}, \mu_1), \dots, d_{L_2}(\mathbf{x}, \mu_m))]$$

where  $d_{L_2}$  is the Euclidean distance

# Ex 1: nearest centroid (centroid/barycenter)



# The nearest centroid classifier is a linear classifier

Multiclass:

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= \arg \min [(d_{L_2}(\mathbf{x}, \mu_1), \dots, d_{L_2}(\mathbf{x}, \mu_m))] \\&= \arg \min [(\|\mathbf{x} - \mu_1\|^2, \dots, \|\mathbf{x} - \mu_m\|^2)] \\&= \arg \min [(\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 - 2\mu_1^T \mathbf{x} + \|\mu_1\|^2, \dots, \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 - 2\mu_m^T \mathbf{x} + \|\mu_m\|^2)] \\&= \arg \min [(-2\mu_1^T \mathbf{x} + \|\mu_1\|^2, \dots, -2\mu_m^T \mathbf{x} + \|\mu_m\|^2)] \\&= \arg \max [(2\mu_1^T \mathbf{x} - \|\mu_1\|^2, \dots, 2\mu_m^T \mathbf{x} - \|\mu_m\|^2)] \\&= \arg \max [\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}]\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{avec } \mathbf{W}_{:k} = 2v\mu_k \quad \text{et} \quad b_k = -\|\mu_k\|^2$$

Binary:

$$\begin{aligned}f(\mathbf{x}) &= \text{sign}(\|\mathbf{x} - \mu_-\|^2 - \|\mathbf{x} - \mu_+\|^2) \\&= \text{sign}(\underbrace{2(\mu_+ - \mu_-)^T \mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{w}} + \underbrace{(\|\mu_-\|^2 - \|\mu_+\|^2)}_{b})\end{aligned}$$

# Ex 2: Bayes classifier with Gaussian priors

- If the covariance matrices are constrained to be identical  $\Sigma_i = \Sigma$  this gives rise to a linear classifier.
- If also the classes are equiprobable,  $P(Y = C_i) = P(Y = C_j)$  this is equivalent to a nearest centroid classifier (based on the Euclidean distance if the Gaussians are spherical/isotropic, and on the Mahalanobis distance in the more general case)
- If the covariance matrices are different, we obtain (non-linear) quadratic discriminant functions=> it no longer gives a linear classifier.

# Ex 3: linear regression

not a good idea, to use linear regression for classification,  
however it will yield a hyper plane

$$D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\} \quad t^{(i)} \in \{-1, +1\}$$

- Nothing prevents us from applying linear regression (or ridge) with +1 and -1 targets
- But regression minimizes a quadratic error  
 $L(y, t) = (y - t)^2$   
rather than the rate of misclassification...
- => very sensitive to «outliers» (extreme values)  
The decision boundary will be greatly influenced "pulled" by the points farthest from it.
- => will not generalize well for a classification problem.

# Linear regression for multi-class classification

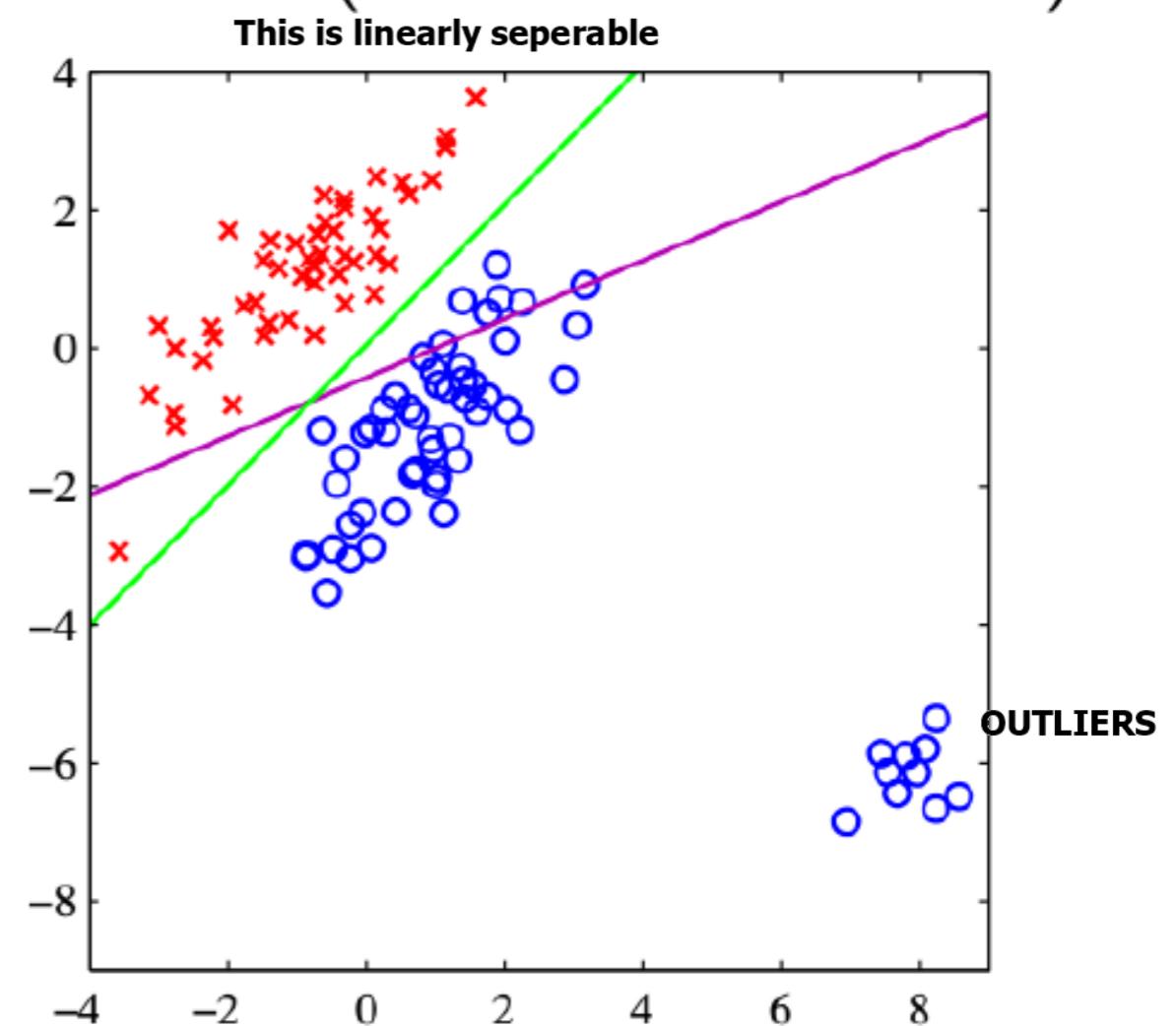
- Least-squares for classification:

$$\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, k\} \quad \text{and} \quad h_{\mathbf{W}}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{i=1, \dots, k} (\mathbf{W}^\top \mathbf{x})_i$$

where  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{w}_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ .

– Learning: encode each output sample  $y_i$  to a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  using one-hot encoding and minimize the squared error (closed form solution).

- Very sensitive to outliers:



# Linear regression for multi-class classification

- Least-squares for classification:

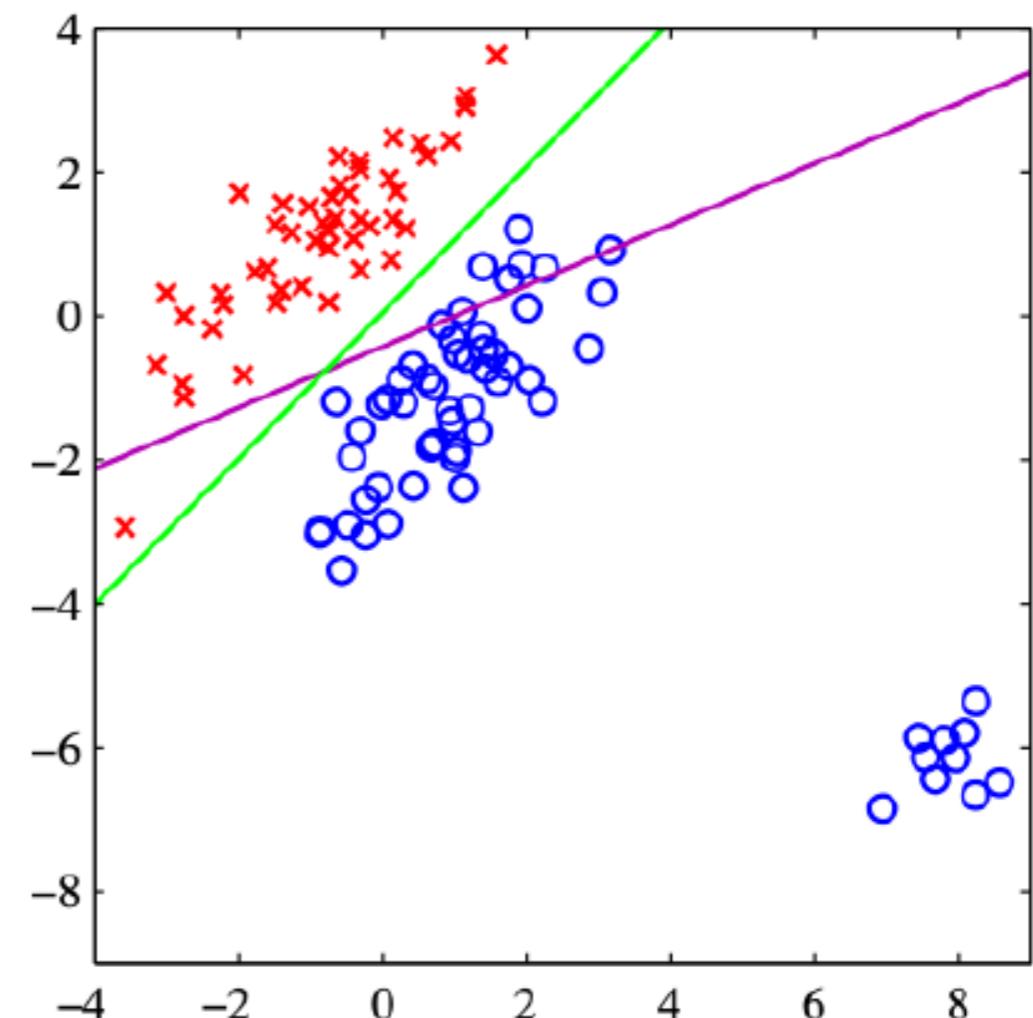
$$\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, k\} \quad \text{and} \quad h_{\mathbf{W}}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{i=1, \dots, k} (\mathbf{W}^\top \mathbf{x})_i$$

where  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{w}_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ .

- Learning: encode each output sample  $y_i$  to a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  using one-hot encoding and minimize the squared error (closed form solution).

- Very sensitive to outliers:

*minimizing the squared  
error corresponds to maximizing the  
likelihood under the assumption of a  
Gaussian conditional distribution.*



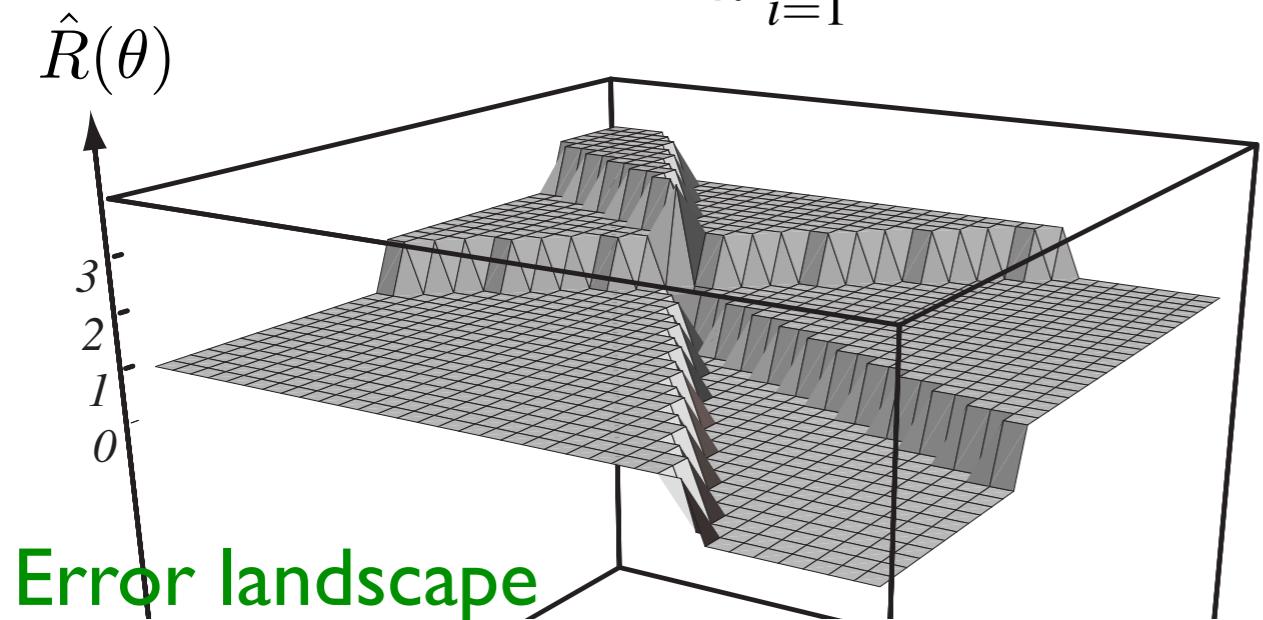
# And if we directly minimized the classification error?

$$D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\} \quad t^{(i)} \in \{-1, +1\}$$

$$y = f_\theta(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b)$$

$$L(y, t) = I_{\{y \neq t\}} = I_{\{(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b)t < 0\}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} J(\theta) = \hat{R}(f_\theta, D_n) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b, t^{(i)}) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I_{\{(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)t^{(i)} < 0\}} \end{aligned}$$



With gradient descent?

Problem: zero gradient  
everywhere!

(because the derivative of the indicator function with respect to the parameters is zero)

=> You can not use gradient descent.

# Ex 4: the perceptron algorithm (simple description, online/stochastic version)

$$D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\} \quad t^{(i)} \in \{-1, +1\}$$

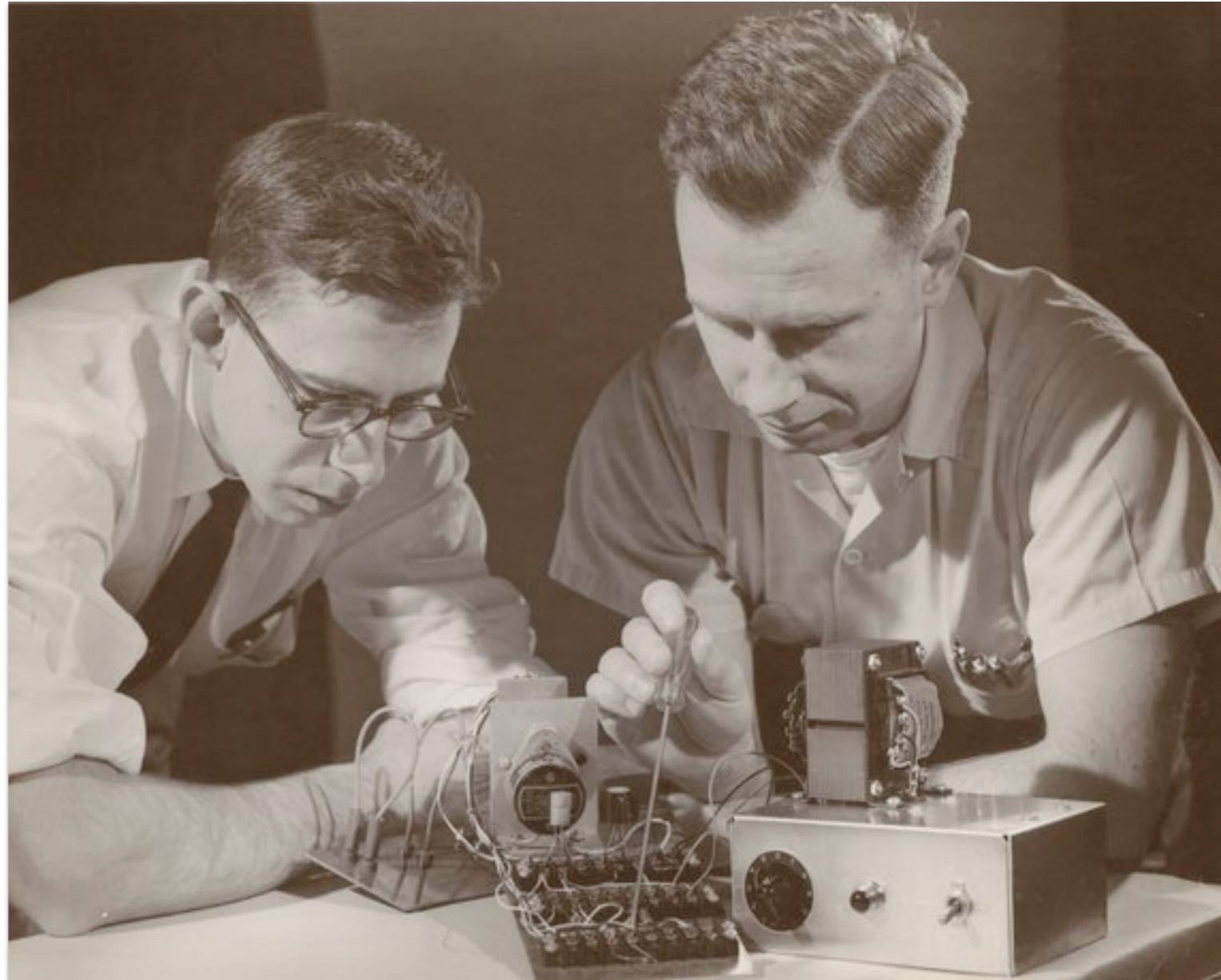
- Initialize the parameters  $w$  and  $b$  with 0
- ▶ Repeat as long as misclassified points remain:
- ▶ Choose the next example  $(x, t)$  randomly from the dataset  $D_n$ .
- ▶ If (with the current parameter values)  $x$  is classified correctly i.e. if  $(w^T x + b)t > 0$  we do not change the parameters.
- ▶ Otherwise ( $x$  is classified incorrectly) we modify:

$$w \leftarrow w + t x$$

$$b \leftarrow b + t$$

# Facts about the perceptron

- Invented in 1957 by Frank Rosenblatt.
- Inspired by the cognitive theories of Friedrich Hayek and Donald Hebb.
- One of the first attempts for an "artificial neuron"



The Mark I Perceptron

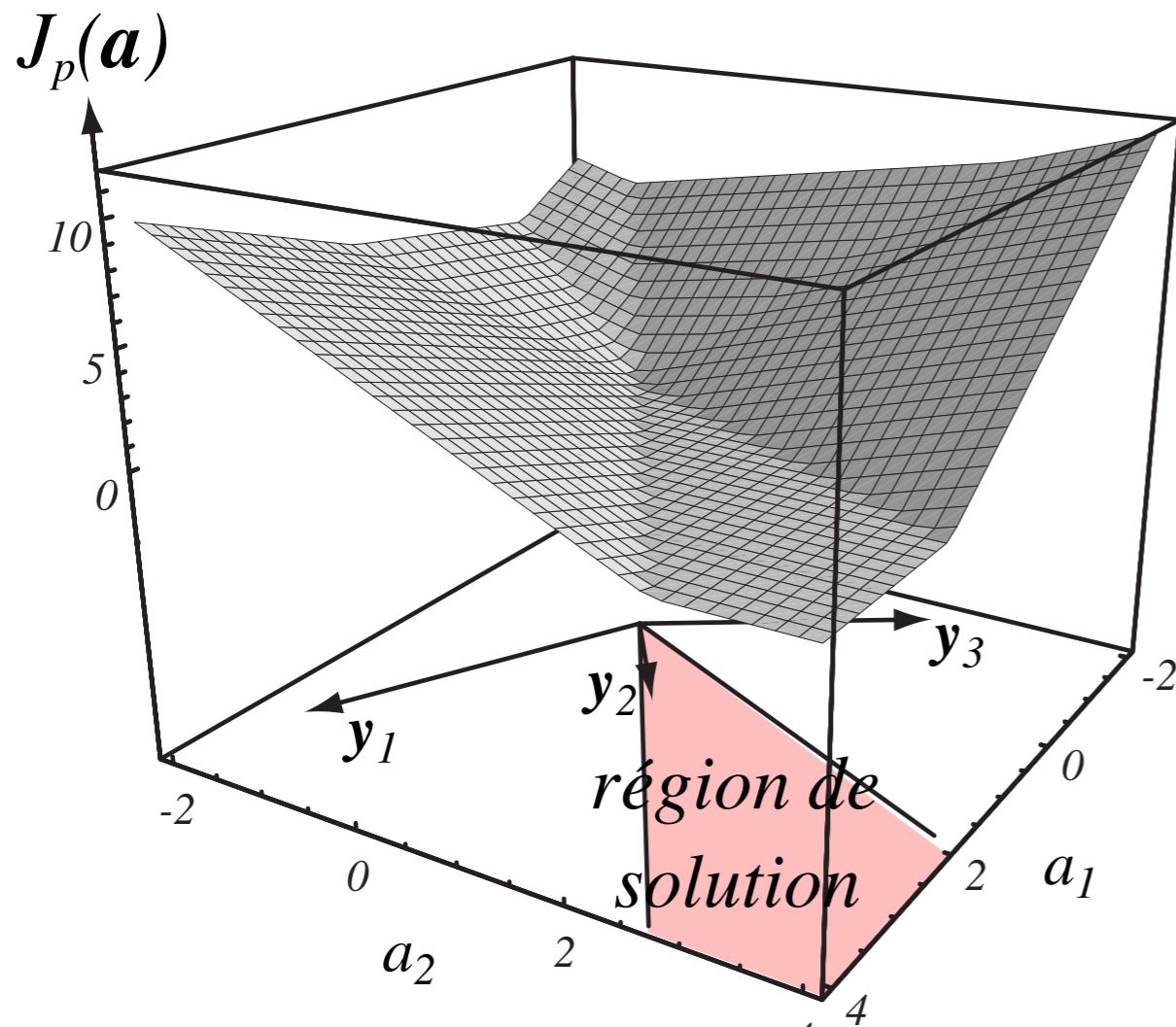
- If the data is linearly separable, the stochastic version (with random selection of the example) is guaranteed to find a hyper-plane separator (giving 0 training errors) in a finite number of iterations.
- If not linearly separable: the method does not terminate.  
=> we need another stopping criterion.

# Perceptron and gradient descent

$$D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\} \quad t^{(i)} \in \{-1, +1\}$$

- The perceptron corresponds to a gradient descent on the following objective:

$$J_{\text{perceptron}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I_{\{(\mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)} + b)t^{(i)} \leq 0\}} (-(\mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)} + b)t^{(i)})$$



- We can derive optimizations by stochastic gradient descent (gives the previously detailed algo), batch, or mini-batch.

# Ex 5: logistic regression

(case of two classes) [ David Cox 1958 ]

**Attention: despite the name it is a classification algorithm**

For a **binary classification** task:

$$t \in \{0, 1\}$$

We want to estimate the conditional **probability**:

$$y \simeq P(t = 1 | \mathbf{x})$$

**We choose**

$$y \in [0, 1]$$

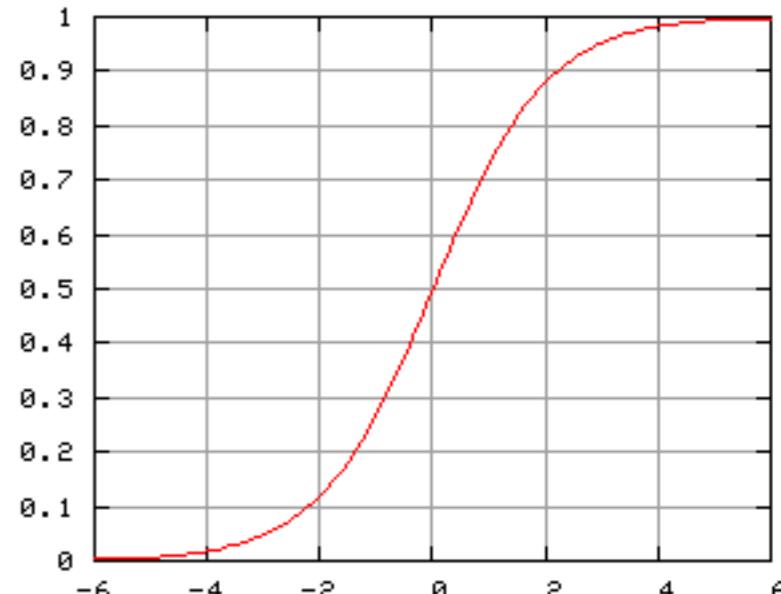
A non-linear prediction function giving a probability

$$y = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = f_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}) = \underbrace{\text{sigmoid}(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b)}$$

non-linearity, transfer or activation function

$$\text{logistic sigmoid}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

The logistic sigmoid is the inverse of the logit link function in the terminology of Generalized Linear Models (GLMs).



**Cross-entropy loss**

$$L(y, t) = -(t \ln(y) + (1 - t) \ln(1 - y))$$

Here, no analytical solution  
but the optimization is convex

# Optimization by gradient descent

$$D_n = \{(x^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\} \quad t^{(i)} \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$\hat{R}_\lambda(f_\theta, D_n) = \underbrace{\left( \sum_{i=1}^n L(f_\theta(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), t^{(i)}) \right)}_{\text{empirical risk}} + \underbrace{\lambda \Omega(\theta)}_{\text{regularization term}}$$

- we initialize the parameters randomly
- we update them iteratively following the gradient

Either **batch gradient descent** (whole dataset):

Loop:  $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \frac{\partial \hat{R}_\lambda}{\partial \theta}$

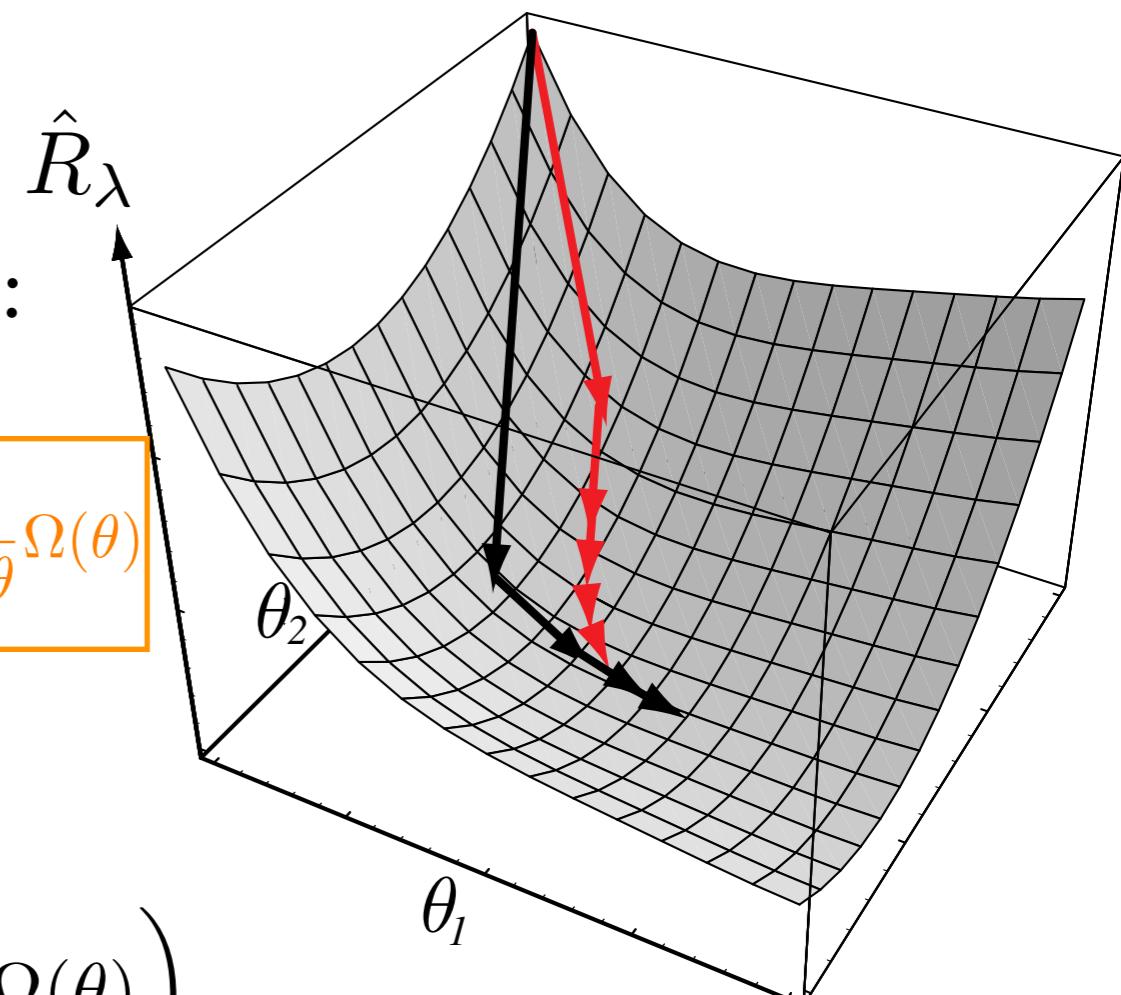
$$= \boxed{\left( \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(f_\theta(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), t^{(i)}) \right) + \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \Omega(\theta)}$$

Or **stochastic gradient descent**:

Loop:

For i in 1...n

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( L(f_\theta(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), t^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{n} \Omega(\theta) \right)$$



Or **other variants of the gradient descent idea**  
(conjugate gradient, Newton's method, natural gradient, ...)

# Limitation of logistic regression: it remains a linear classifier!

We decide class 1 if  $P(t=1|x) > 0.5$  (class 0 otherwise).

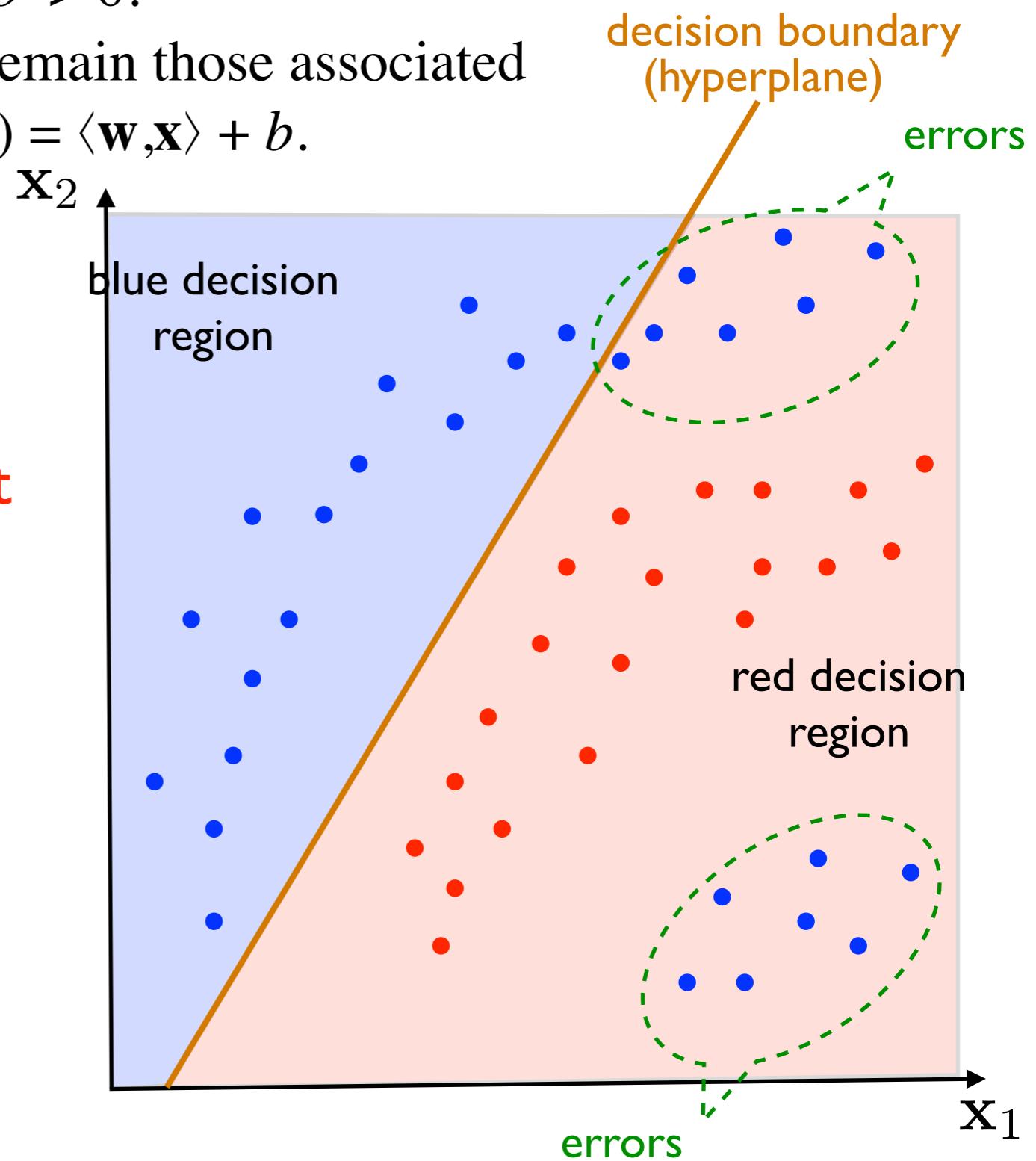
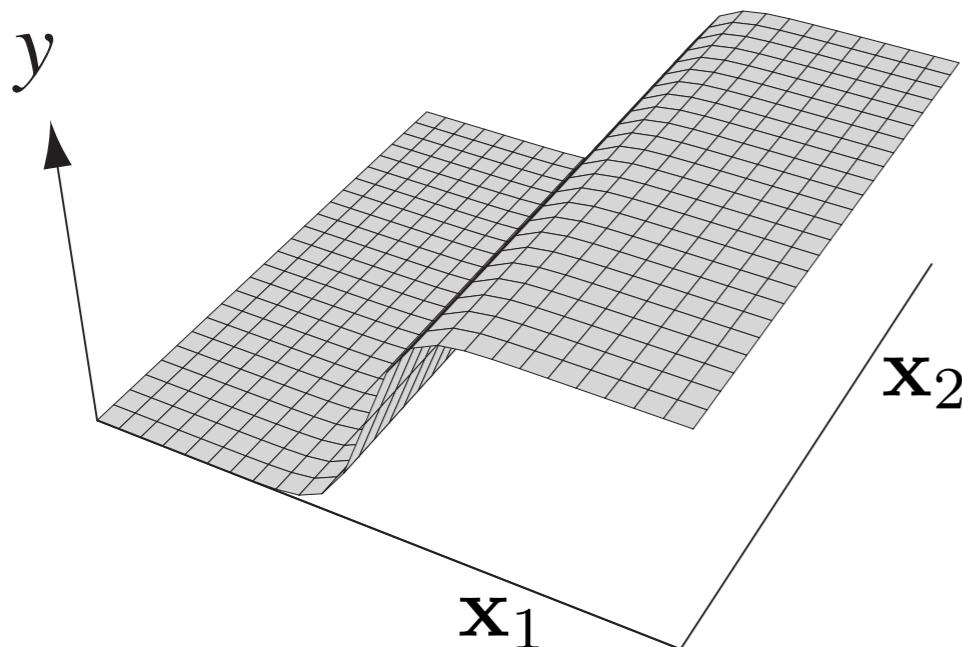
Or  $\text{sigmoid}(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b) > 0.5 \equiv \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b > 0$ .

So the regions and decision boundaries remain those associated with the linear discriminant function  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b$ .

The decision boundary  
(surface) is a hyperplane

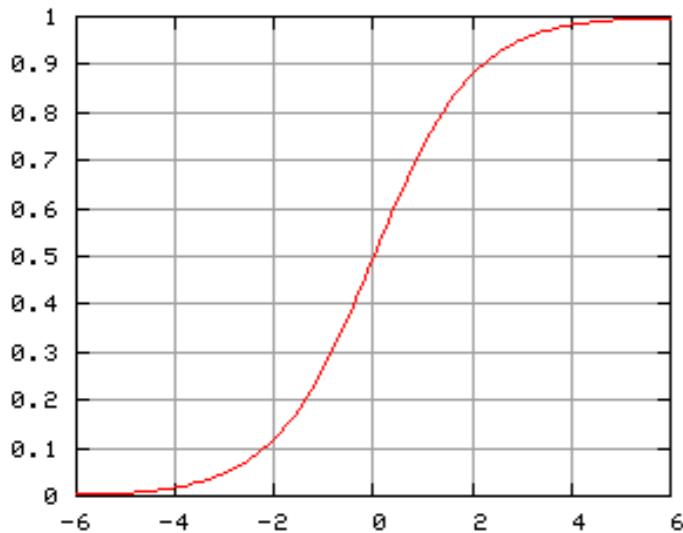
→ inappropriate if the classes are not  
linearly separable

(eg: figure)



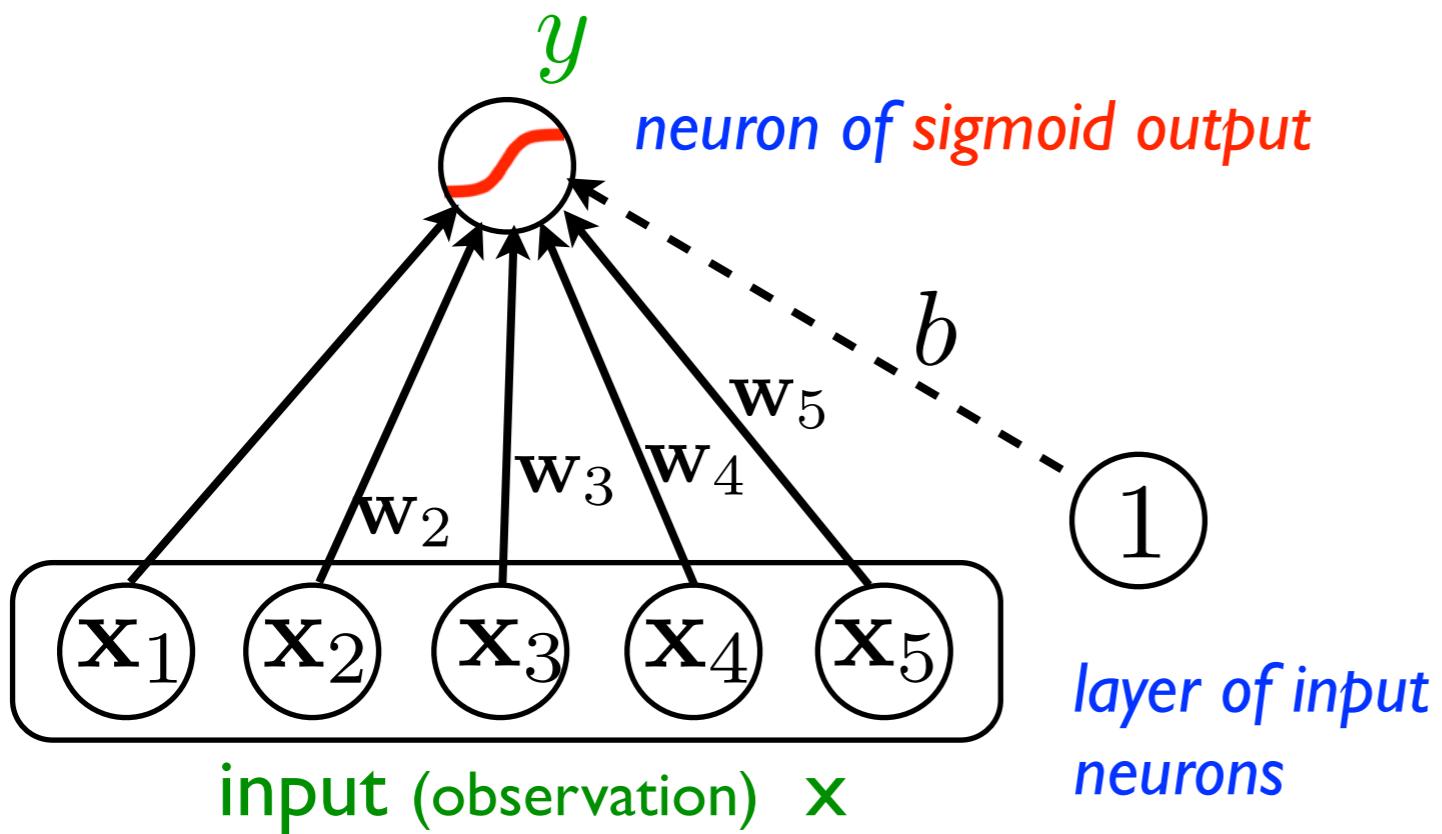
# Logistic regression

## Neuron vision



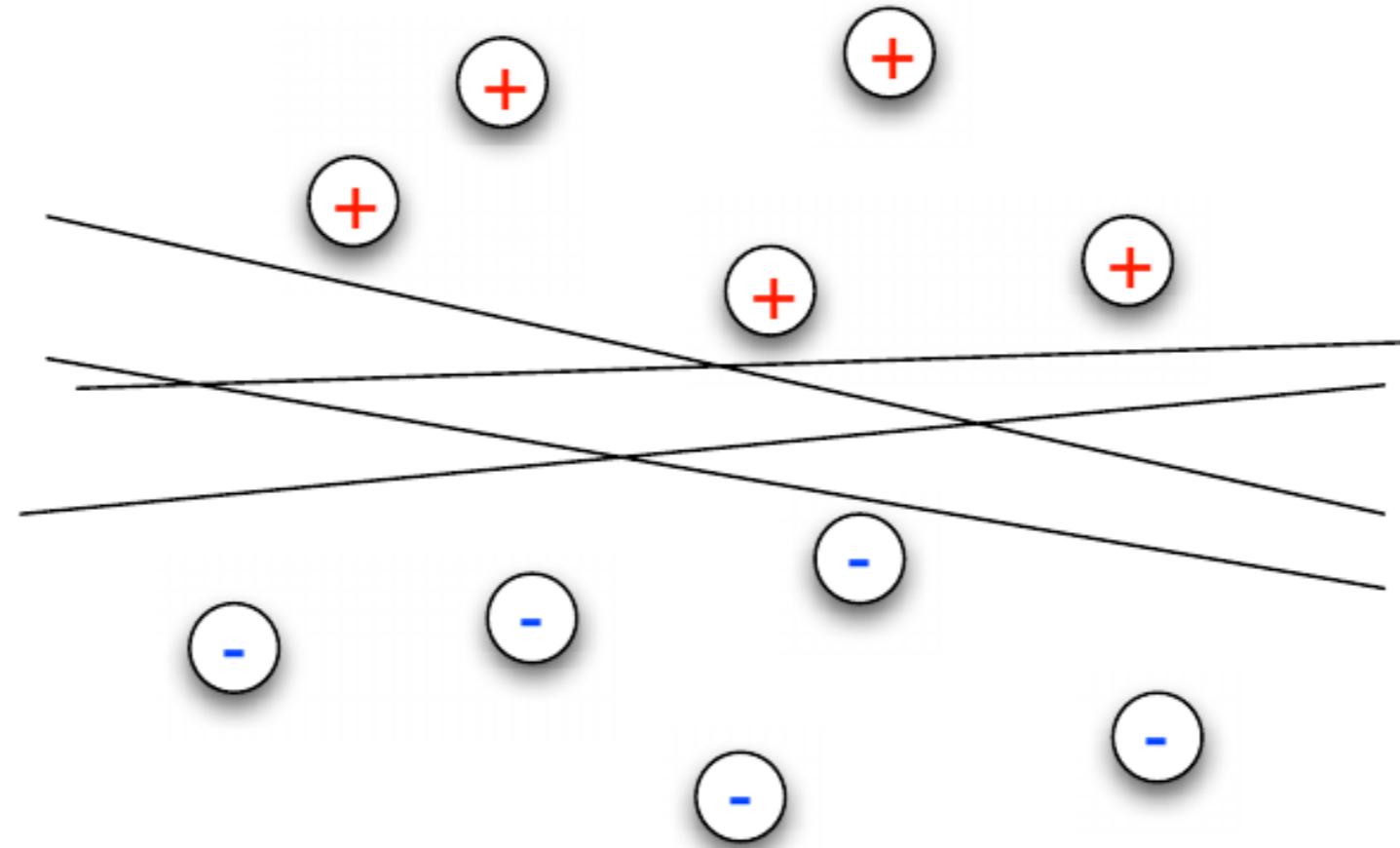
We can see the sigmoid as

- An differentiable alternative of the indicator function (step function) 
- An approximation of the "pulse rate" response in biological neurons



## Binary classification revisited

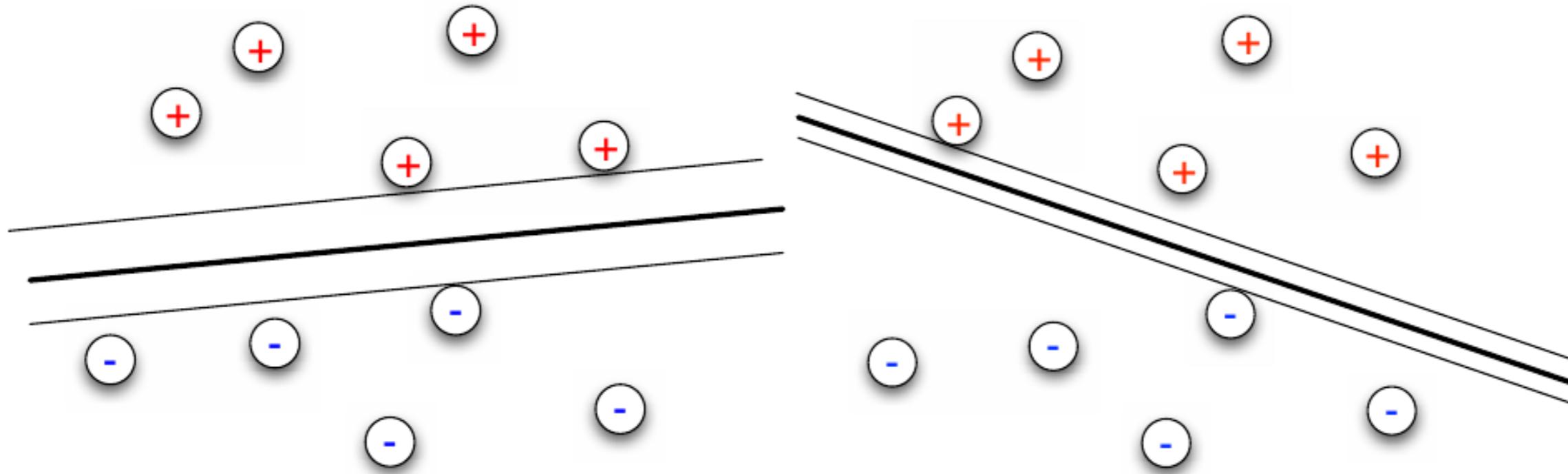
- Consider a linearly separable binary classification data set  $\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$ .
- There is an infinite number of hyperplanes that separate the classes:



- Which plane is best?
- Relatedly, for a given plane, for which points should we be most confident in the classification?

## The margin, and linear SVMs

- For a given separating hyperplane, the *margin* is two times the (Euclidean) distance from the hyperplane to the nearest training example.



- It is the width of the “strip” around the decision boundary containing no training examples.
- A linear SVM is a perceptron for which we choose  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $b$  so that margin is maximized

Ex 6:

# Support Vector Machines

(Vapnik & Lerner 1963, Cortes & Vapnik 1995)

- At the base: another algorithm that learns a simple **linear discriminant function**  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b$
- Choose a particular hyperplane, with geometric motivation:  
**aim for maximum margin.**
- Nonlinear version uses **the kernel trick**.
- Very popular method  
(in its linear form and in its nonlinear kernel form).

# SVM: geometric motivation

Data:

$$D_n = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$$

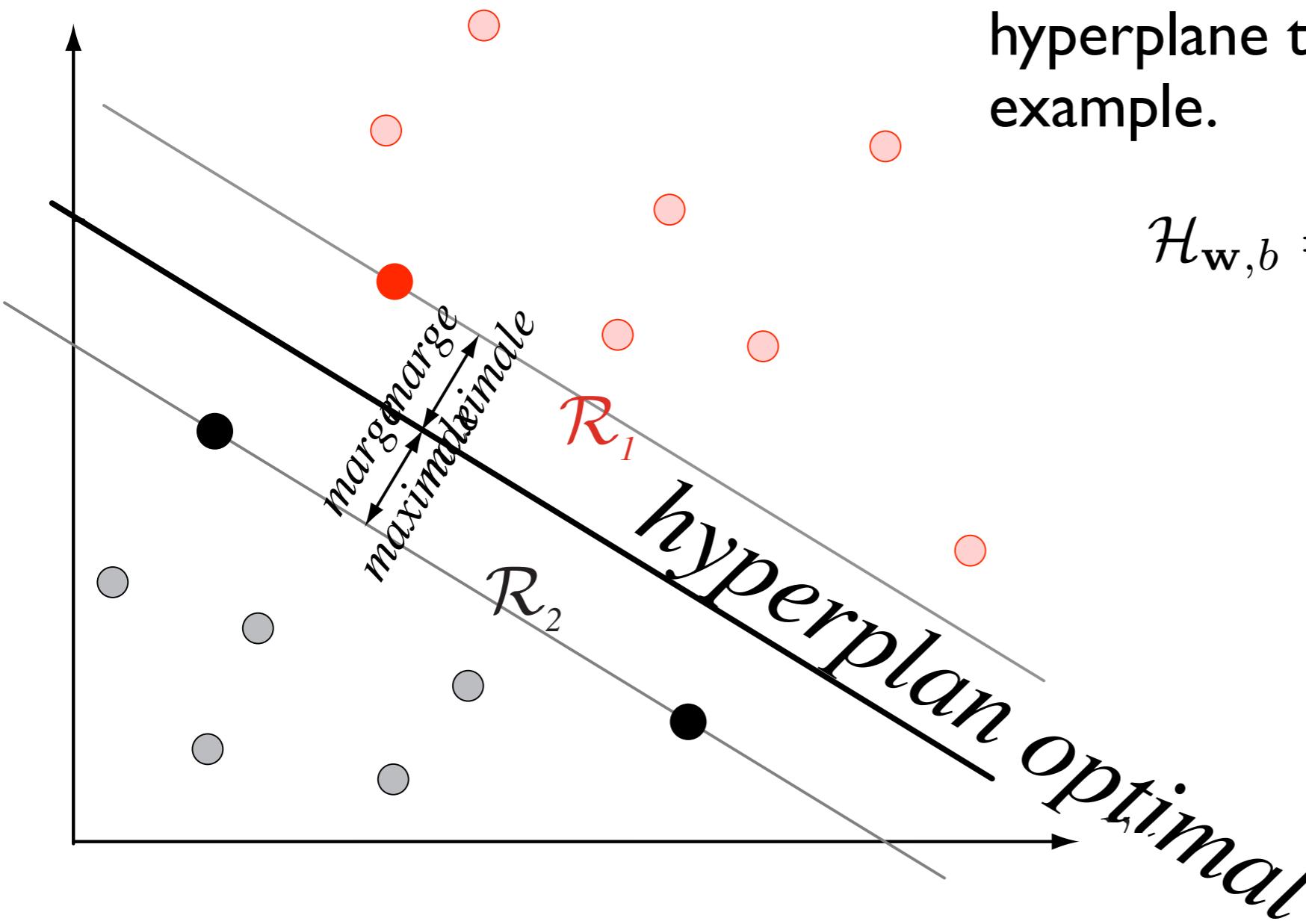
$$\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$$

- Algorithm learns a **maximum margin linear discriminant function**.  
$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b$$
- The **margin** is the distance from the hyperplane to the nearest training example.

$$\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{w}, b} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = 0\}$$

The distance from a point  $\mathbf{x}$  to the hyperplane is the distance to its orthogonal projection on the hyperplane:

$$\left| \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \right|$$



# SVM with hard margin

The distance from a point  $\mathbf{x}$  to the hyperplane:

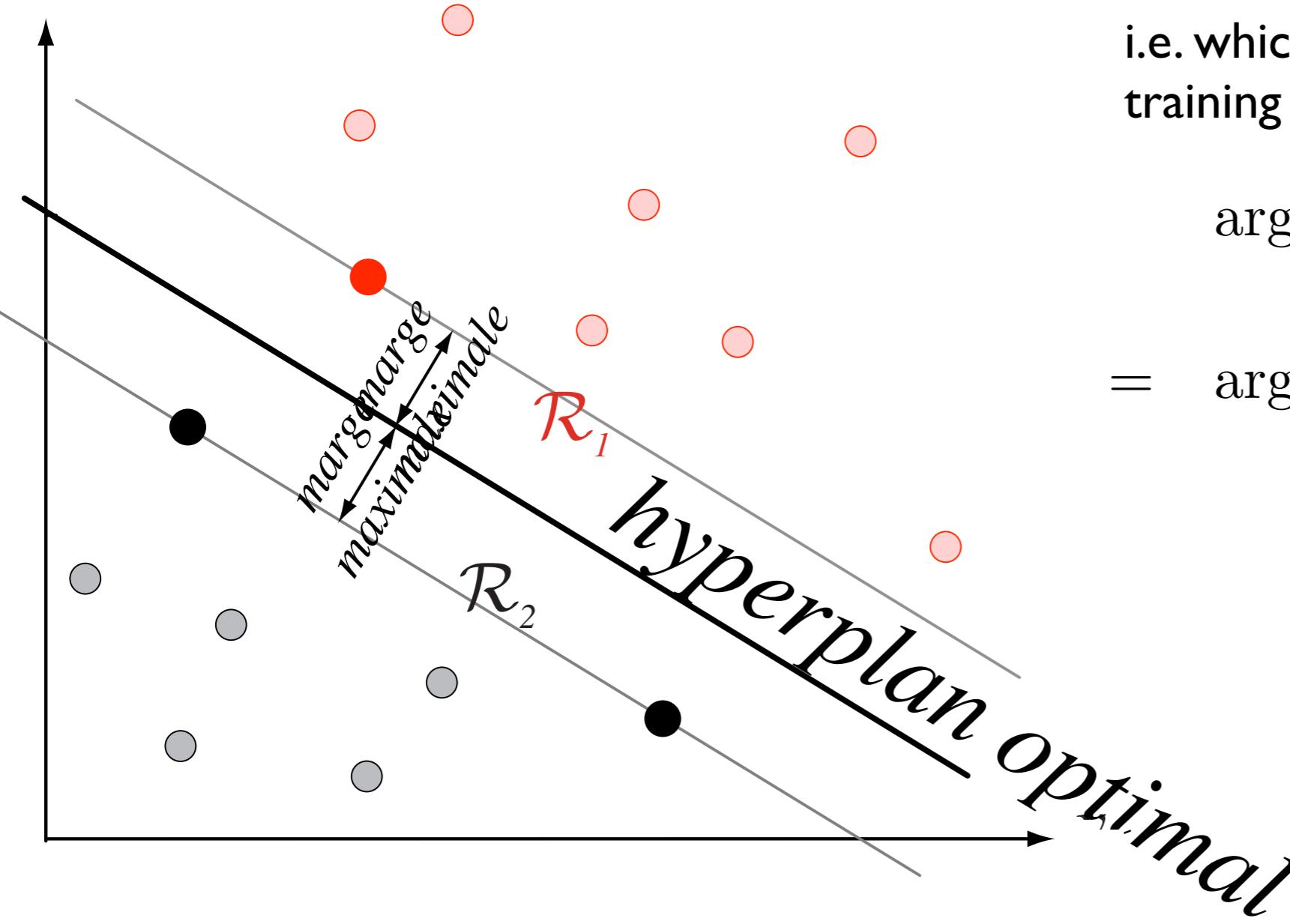
$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{w}, b}) = \left| \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \right|$$

Find the "optimal" hyperplane that:

- perfectly separates the data  
 $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b)y_i > 0$
- and has **the largest margin**  
i.e. which is furthest away from the closest training point

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \left\{ \min_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{w}, b}) \right\}$$

$$= \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \left\{ \min_i \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} y_i \right\}$$



# Margin = confidence

- Definition: **geometric margin** of an example  $(\mathbf{x}, y)$  is its signed distance from the hyperplane (sign indicates if classification was correct):

$$\gamma^{(g)}(\mathbf{x}, y) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} y$$

- Remark: the norm of  $\mathbf{w}$  does not change the hyperplane
- Definition: **functional margin** of an example  $(\mathbf{x}, y)$

$$\gamma(\mathbf{x}, y) = g(\mathbf{x})y = (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b)y$$

- The **signs** of the margin indicates if classification is correct
- The **magnitude (absolute value)** of the margin indicates the «**confidence**» of the classifier in its prediction.
- An example with a large positive margin is classified correctly with great confidence.
- A point with a negative margin of high magnitude is misclassified with great confidence.

# SVM with hard margin

## Equivalent optimization problems (with linearly separable data)

- Maximize the smallest geometric margin

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \left\{ \min_i \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} y_i \right\}$$

- Maximize the smallest functional margin, under constraint  $\|\mathbf{w}\|=1$

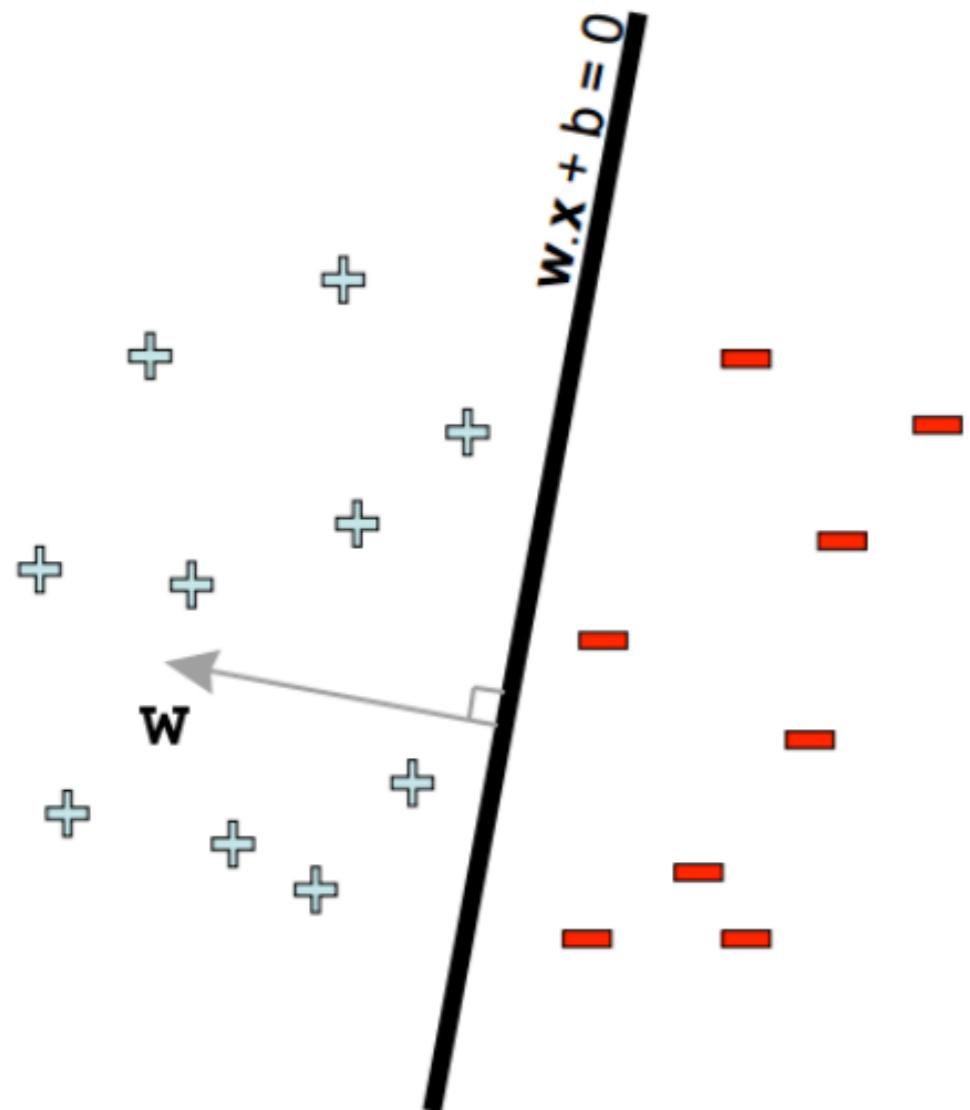
$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \left\{ \min_i (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i \right\}, \text{ s.c. } \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = 1$$

- Minimize  $\|\mathbf{w}\|$  under a functional margin constraint  $\geq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} & \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \\ & \text{s.c. } \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\} (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

- In these three cases, we obtain the same solution, with a potentially different norm for  $\mathbf{w}$  (which does not change the hyperplane)
- The last wording above corresponds to a problem of **Quadratic programming (QP) with constraints** (for an SVM with hard margin).

## Hyperplanes and scale invariance

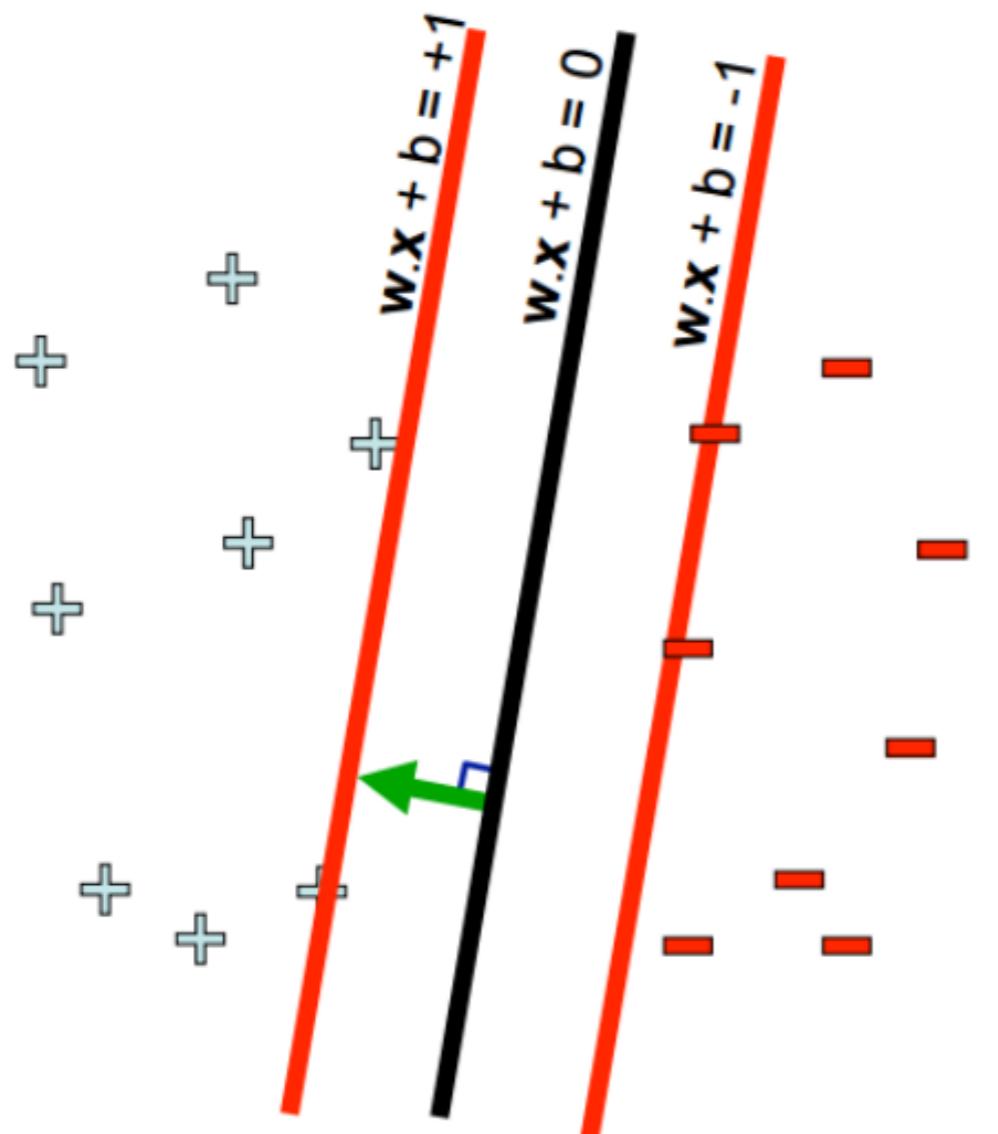


- Hyperplane:  $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b = 0$ .
- ⇒ Scale invariance:  $(\alpha \mathbf{w})^\top \mathbf{x} + \alpha b = 0$  define the same hyperplane for any scalar  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Figures taken form David Sontag's lecture slides:

<http://people.csail.mit.edu/dsontag/courses/ml13/slides/lecture3.pdf>

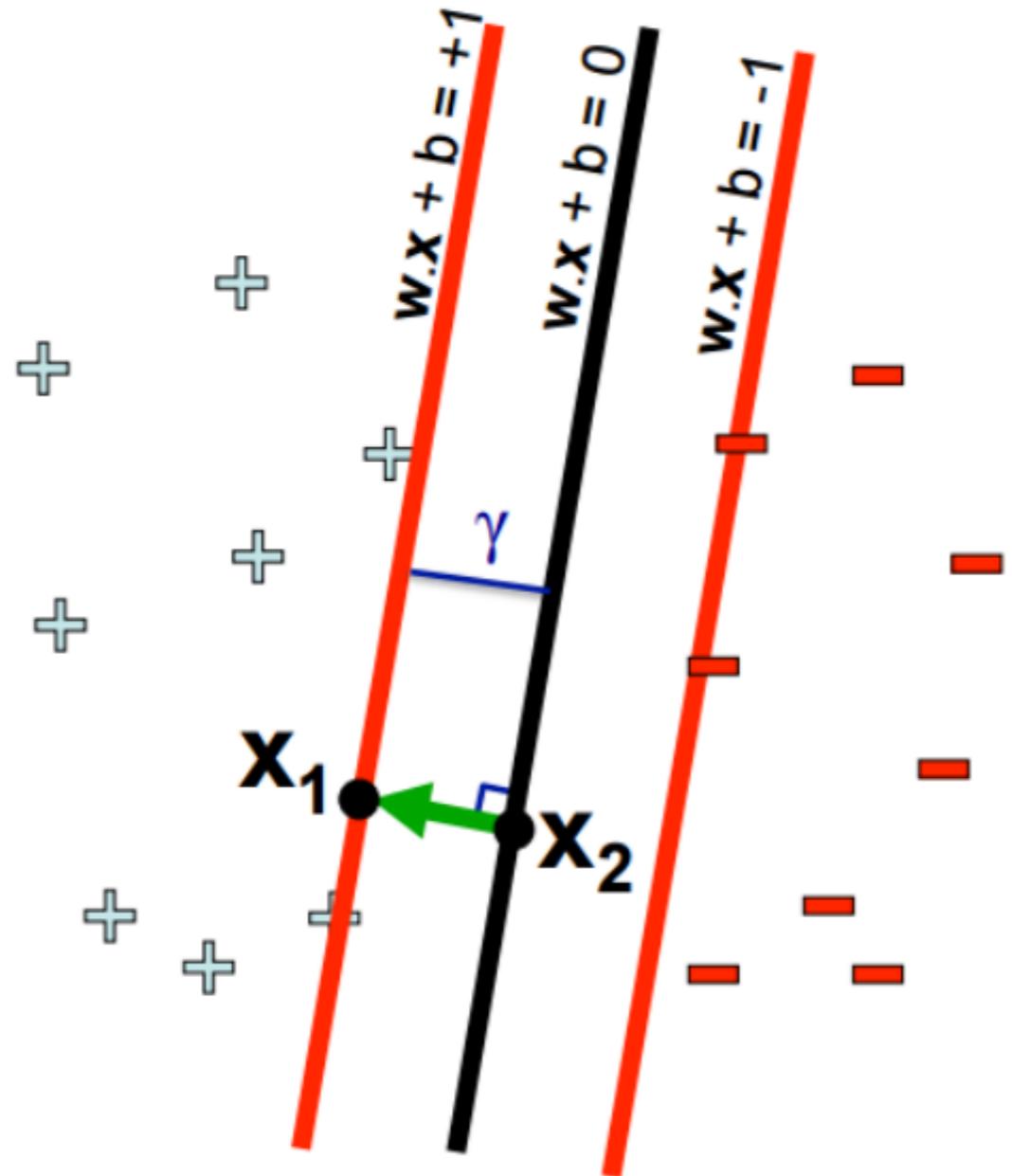
## Hyperplanes and scale invariance



- Hyperplane:  $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b = 0$ .
  - ⇒ Scale invariance:  $\alpha \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + \alpha b = 0 \dots$
  - Workaround: we set the scale by enforcing
    - $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b \geq 1$  for all positive examples
    - $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b \leq -1$  for all negative examples
- equivalently, we want to satisfy the **linear constraints**
- $$y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b) \geq 1$$
- for all  $i$  (here  $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, 1\}$ ).

## Margin as a function of the normal vector

- Let  $\mathbf{x}_1$  be a point on the boundary and  $\mathbf{x}_2$  its projection on the hyperplane:



$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_1 + b = 1$$

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_2 + b = 0$$

We get  $\mathbf{w}^\top (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) = 1$ .

- But we also know that

$$\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2 = \gamma \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

- Hence  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$ : maximizing the margin is equivalent to **minimizing the norm of  $\mathbf{w}$ !**

# SVM with hard margin

## Equivalent optimization problems (with linearly separable data)

- Maximize the smallest geometric margin

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \left\{ \min_i \frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} y_i \right\}$$

- Maximize the smallest functional margin, under constraint  $\|\mathbf{w}\|=1$

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}, b} \left\{ \min_i (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i \right\}, \text{ s.c. } \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = 1$$

- Minimize  $\|\mathbf{w}\|$  under a functional margin constraint  $\geq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} & \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \\ \text{s.c. } & \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\} (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

- In these three cases, we obtain the same solution, with a potentially different norm for  $\mathbf{w}$  (which does not change the hyperplane)
- The last wording above corresponds to a problem of **Quadratic programming (QP) with constraints** (for an SVM with hard margin).

# Soft margin SVM

- Relaxation of constraints to tolerate errors on training set  $D_n$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

avec les contraintes  $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

$$(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i \geq 1 - \xi_i$$

$$\xi_i \geq 0$$

- The examples that violate the margin have  $\xi_i > 0$  ( $=0$  for the others)
- => Quadratic programming (QP) with constraints.
- **C is a hyperparameter** (positive scalar) which controls tolerance to errors
- $C \rightarrow +\infty$  corresponds to an SVM with a hard margin (no errors tolerated,  $D_n$  must be linearly separable)

# Soft margin SVM formulation without constraints

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \quad \text{s.c. } \xi_i \geq 0 \text{ et } (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i \geq 1 - \xi_i$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \quad \text{s.c. } \xi_i \geq 0 \text{ et } \xi_i \geq 1 - (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \quad \text{s.c. } \xi_i \geq \max(0, 1 - (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i)$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \quad \text{s.c. } \xi_i = \max(0, 1 - (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) y_i)$$

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

**hinge loss:**  $\max(0, 1 - m)$  where  $m$  is the functional margin

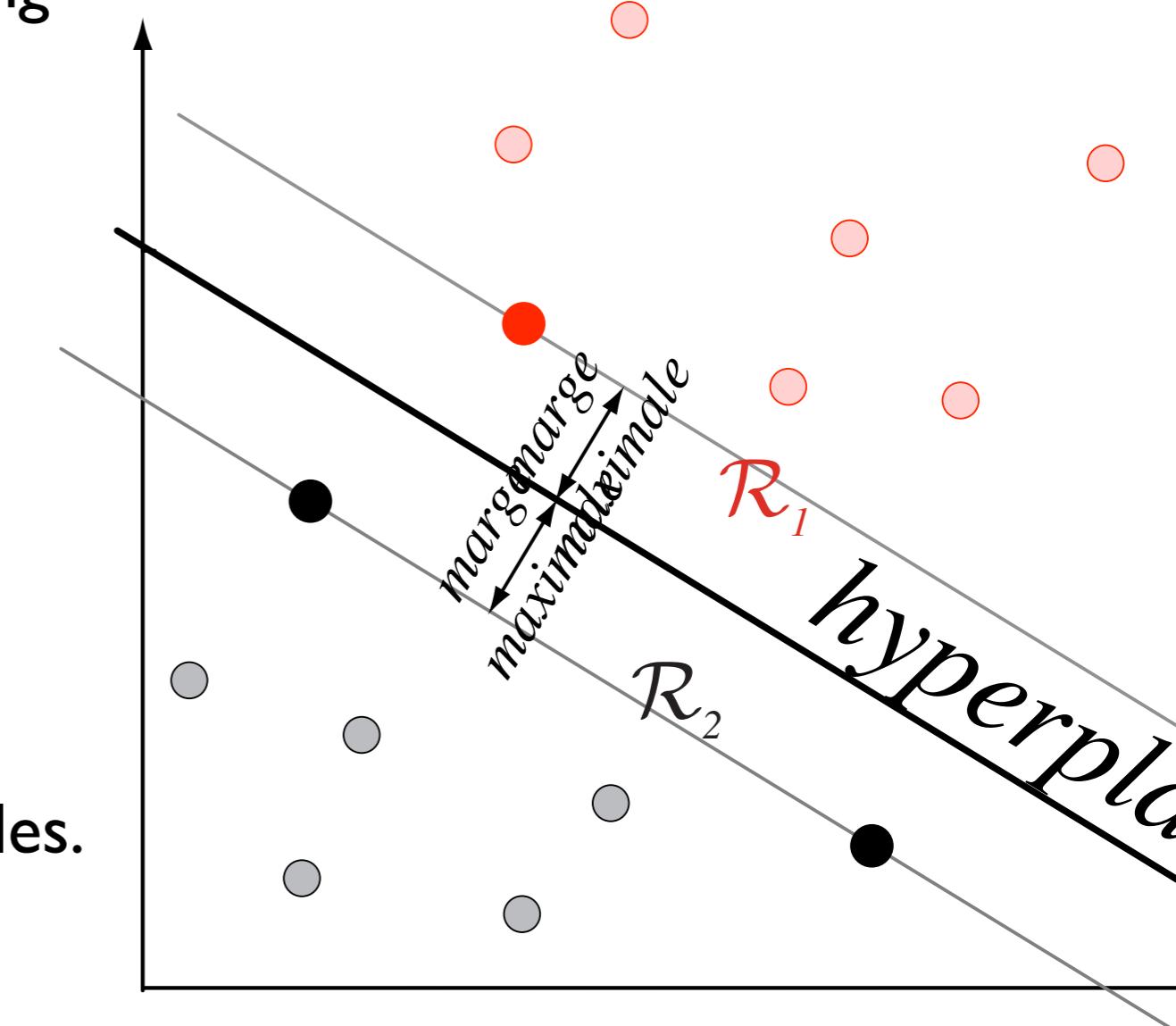
# SVM: form of the solution

- The solution of the minimization problem gives a  $w$  that has the following form:

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

where  $\alpha_i \geq 0$

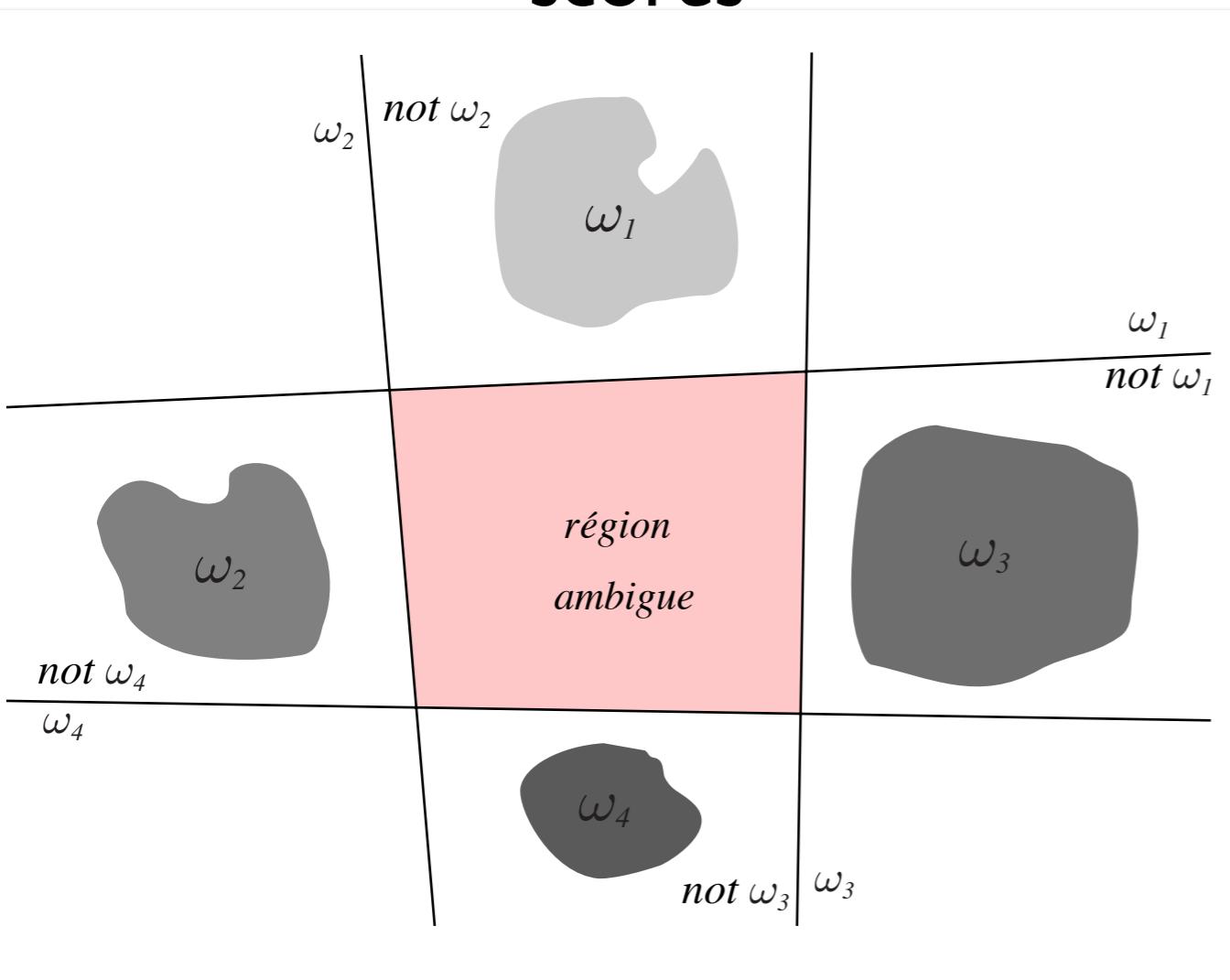
- Typically only a small fraction of the learning examples will have their  $\alpha_i > 0$ .
- The solution is therefore expressed according to these few training examples.
- We call those points **support vectors**.
- They are on the margin (or inside it if we tolerate errors, flexible margin).



Allows for a “dual formulation” of this optimization problem:  
where we learn  $\alpha_i$  rather than  $w_j$

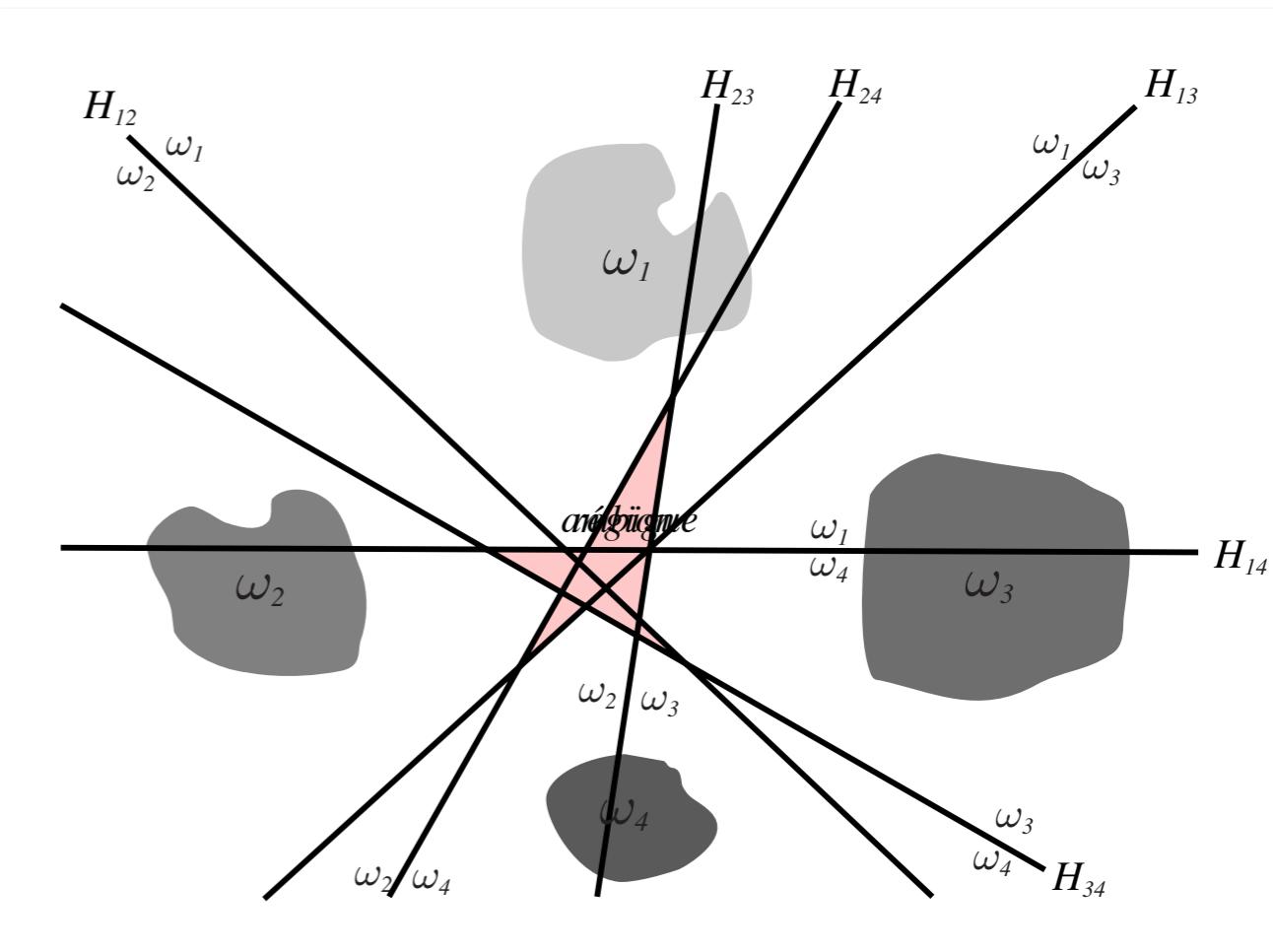
# Using binary classifiers for a problem of m classes

One against all: m decisions or scores



We can choose the highest score

One against one:  $m(m-1)/2$  decisions



We can make all these classifiers vote

# Nonlinear and multiclass SVM

- To obtain a nonlinear SVM we apply the **kernel trick** (which we will see in a next class)
- To obtain a classifier with  $m$  classes, one trains several SVM of binary classification:
- either  $m$  classifiers, each "one class against all other examples".  $\Rightarrow$  we get then  $m$  scores
- a classifier for each class pair: we then obtain  $m(m-1)/2$  values
- There are many other SVM extensions, especially for regression.

# SVM summary

- Geometric idea leads to a quadratic optimization problem with constraints.
- This gives the "hard margin SVM" algorithm and requires linearly separable data.
- An extension called "soft margin" can find a solution in the case not separable.
- In addition, the kernel trick can be applied to give a nonlinear classifier.
- SVMs with soft margin (kernel or not) are a very very popular algorithm (good performance, few hyper-parameters).

# Numerous techniques to learn a linear discriminant function

- Nearest centroid algorithm
- Bayes classifier with Gaussian densities (with identical covariance constraints for both classes)
- Linear Regression (or ridge regression) with targets -1 +1
- Perceptron
- Logistic regression (possibly regularized as ridge)
- (Fisher) Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
- Support Vector Machine (Linear)

All these methods will give a different decision boundary but it will always be a hyperplane! ( $\Rightarrow$  limited capacity)