CS189/CS289A Introduction to Machine Learning Lecture 3: Support Vector Machines

Peter Bartlett

January 27, 2015

• Recall: linear classifiers, perceptron algorithm

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- Support vector machines

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- Features and overfitting

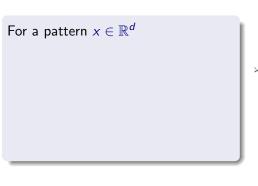
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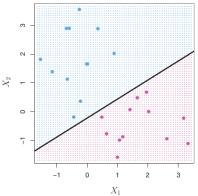
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Linear classifiers



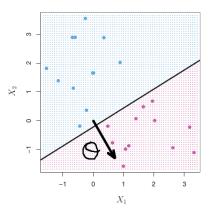


Linear classifiers

For a pattern $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and parameters $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$f(x) = \theta \cdot x + \theta_0,$$

$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x) \ge 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } f(x) < 0. \end{cases}$$

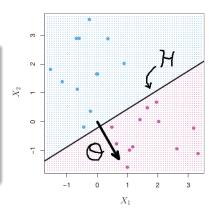


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Decision boundary:

$$H = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : f(x) = 0 \right\} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \theta \cdot x + \theta_0 = 0 \right\}.$$

• Suppose we have a training set $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$. (For example, the $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{400}$ might be grey-scale images of digits and the y_i their class label $y_i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, 9\}$.)

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 - The perceptron algorithm.
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 - The hard margin support vector machine.
 - The (soft margin) support vector machine.

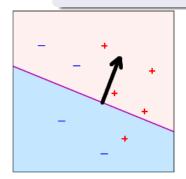
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- How do we use the data to choose a linear classifier?
- We consider three approaches:
 - The perceptron algorithm.
 - The hard margin support vector machine.
 - The (soft margin) support vector machine.
- (Later, we'll also look at other methods, including logistic regression and linear discriminant analysis.)

Perceptron algorithm:

```
Input: (X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{\pm 1\} while some y^i \neq \operatorname{sign}(\theta \cdot x^i) pick some misclassified (x^i, y^i) \theta \leftarrow \theta + y^i x^i Return \theta.
```

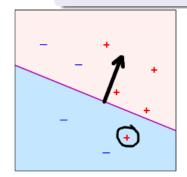
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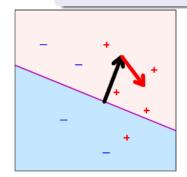
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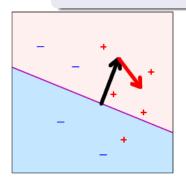
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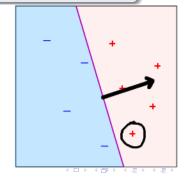


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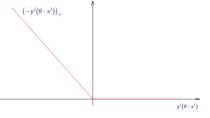
We can view the perceptron algorithm as a stochastic gradient method to minimize a cost function.

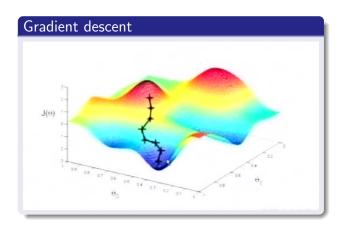
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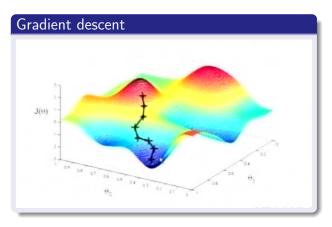
Margin cost function

$$J(\theta) = \sum_{i} \left(-y^{i} (\theta \cdot x^{i}) \right)_{+}$$

$$J(\theta) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{all } x^i \text{ classified correctly.}$$

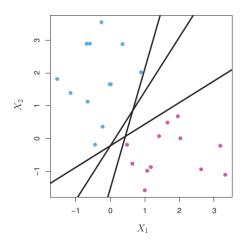






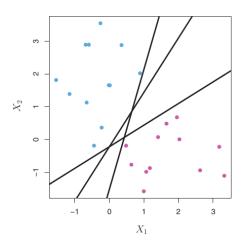
$$\theta \leftarrow \theta \underbrace{-\nabla J(\theta)}_{\mathsf{downhill}}$$

 There are always many linear classifiers that give identical classifications of the training data. Which is better?



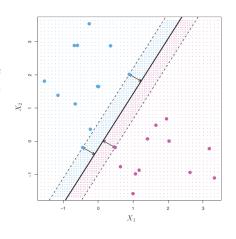
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- Support vector machines choose the classifier that maximizes the margin on the training data, where the margin is the minimum over (x^i, y^i) pairs of the signed distance to the decision boundary,

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Maximizing the margin:

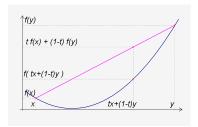
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\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 such that y^i\theta \cdot x^i \geq 1 \qquad (i=1,\dots,n)
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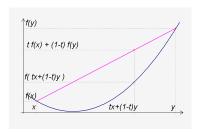
• This is a *quadratic program*: a minimization problem involving a convex quadratic criterion, subject to linear constraints).

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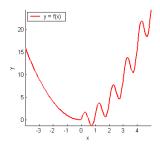
- This is a *quadratic program*: a minimization problem involving a convex quadratic criterion, subject to linear constraints).
- There are efficient algorithms for solving QPs.



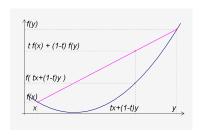
A convex function



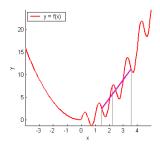
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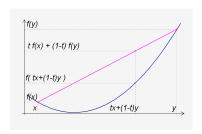
A non-convex function



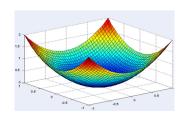
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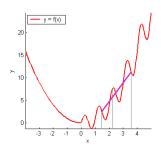


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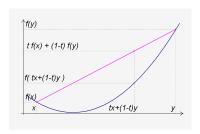


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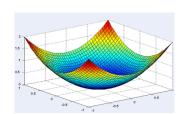


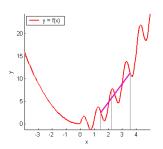


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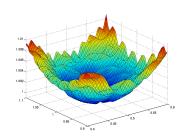


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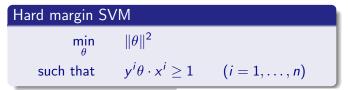
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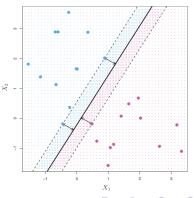
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Hard margin SVM \min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2 such that y^i \theta \cdot x^i \geq 1 (i=1,\ldots,n)
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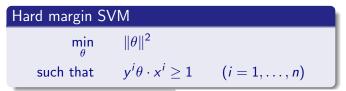
Hard margin SVM $\min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2$ such that $y^i \theta \cdot x^i \geq 1$ $(i=1,\ldots,n)$

 The points that satisfy these constraints with equality are called support vectors.

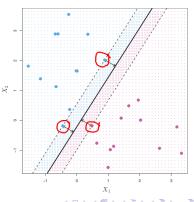


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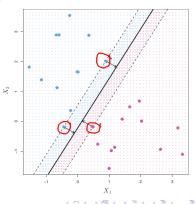


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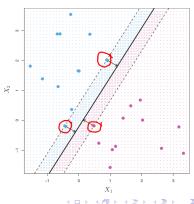
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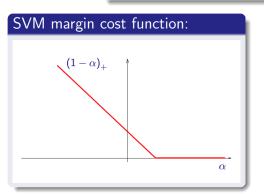
- The points that satisfy these constraints with equality are called support vectors.
- Small changes to any other data points will not affect the maximal margin hyperplane.
- We can think of the set of support vectors as a compressed version of the training data.



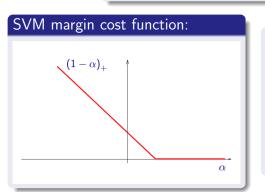
Soft margin SVM

$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$

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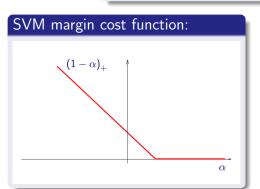
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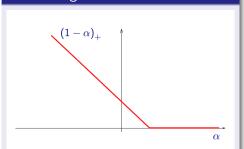


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Soft margin SVM

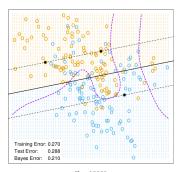
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SVM margin cost function:

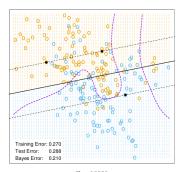


- Hard margin SVM: every term $(1 y^i \theta \cdot x^i)_+ = 0$.
- Soft margin SVM: the constraints can be violated, but not too much.
- The parameter C adjusts the trade-off: $\|\theta\|^2$ versus fit to the data.

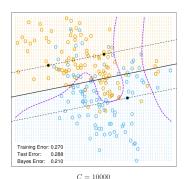
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- (Purple line is the optimal decision boundary—'Bayes classifier'. It minimizes the probability of misclassification.)

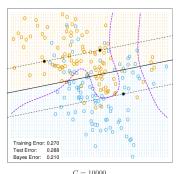


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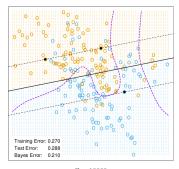
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- Solid black line is the SVM decision boundary $\{x : \theta \cdot x = 0\}$.



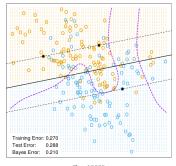
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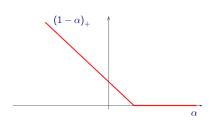


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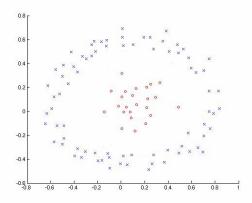


Outline

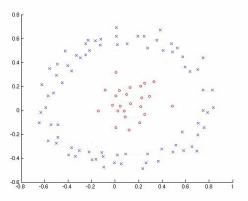
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- Role of the regularization parameter C
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• What if a linear decision boundary performs poorly?

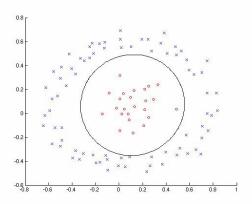
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- What if a linear decision boundary performs poorly?
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- No linear decision boundary can effectively separate "o"s from "x"s.



- What if a linear decision boundary performs poorly?
- Consider this toy example.
- No linear decision boundary can effectively separate "o"s from "x"s.
- But a quadratic decision boundary can separate them.



Quadratic classifier

$$f(x) = ||x - c||^2 - r^2$$

(center $c \in \mathbb{R}^2$, radius r)

$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x) \ge 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } f(x) < 0. \end{cases}$$

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Recall: Linear classifier

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$$f(x) = \|x - c\|^2 - r^2 \qquad \text{(center } c \in \mathbb{R}^2, \text{ radius } r\text{)}$$

$$= (x_1 - c_1)^2 + (x_2 - c_2)^2 - r^2$$

$$= x_1^2 - 2c_1x_1 + c_1^2 + x_2^2 - 2c_2x_2 + c_2^2 - r^2$$

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$$= x_1^2 - 2c_1x_1 + c_1^2 + x_2^2 - 2c_2x_2 + c_2^2 - r^2$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2c_1 \\ -2c_2 \\ c_1^2 + c_2^2 - r^2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Recall: Linear classifier

$$f(x) = \theta \cdot x.$$

$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x) \ge 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } f(x) < 0. \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \|x - c\|^2 - r^2 \qquad \text{(center } c \in \mathbb{R}^2, \text{ radius } r\text{)}$$

$$= (x_1 - c_1)^2 + (x_2 - c_2)^2 - r^2$$

$$= x_1^2 - 2c_1x_1 + c_1^2 + x_2^2 - 2c_2x_2 + c_2^2 - r^2$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2c_1 \\ -2c_2 \\ c_1^2 + c_2^2 - r^2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\theta \cdot \phi(x)}_{\text{linear classifier}}$$

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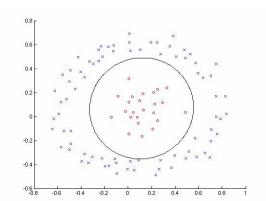
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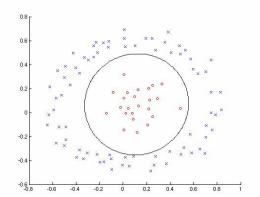
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• The quadratic decision boundary corresponds to a linear classifier with new features

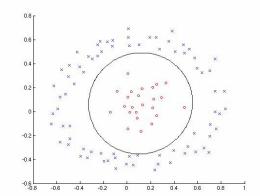


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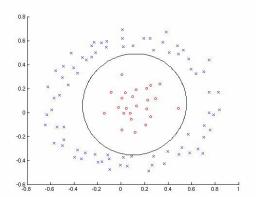
$$f(x) = \theta \cdot \phi(x).$$

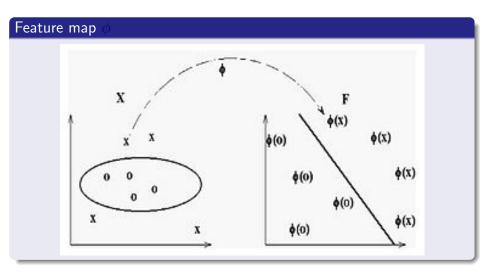


• The quadratic decision boundary corresponds to a linear classifier with new features, $\phi(x)$ instead of x:

$$f(x) = \theta \cdot \phi(x).$$

• The features we choose are very important!





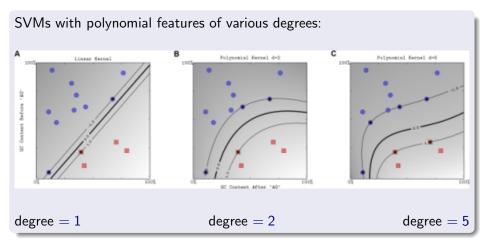
An aside

We used this idea earlier when we were simplifying notation to drop the offset θ_0 : we transformed the pattern $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ into a pattern $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ with a constant component: to dispense with the offset θ_0 :

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_d \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \qquad \tilde{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\tilde{f}(\tilde{x}) := \tilde{\theta} \cdot \tilde{x} = \sum_{i=1}^d \theta_i x_i + \theta_0 = \theta \cdot x + \theta_0 = f(x).$$



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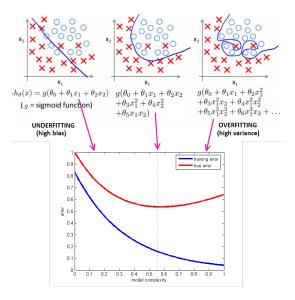
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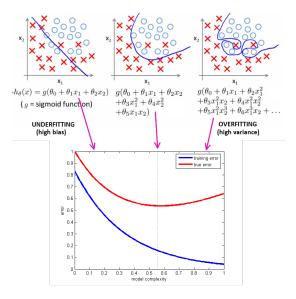
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- The richer the set of features, the more likely we will encounter overfitting.
- It's a balancing act: we want our features to be as complex as necessary to represent the classifier, but no more complex.

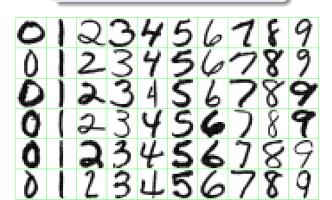
Features and overfitting



Features and overfitting



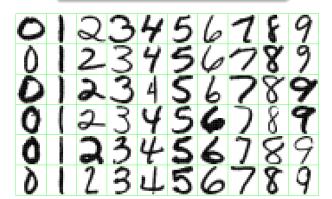
Digit recognition



24 / 49

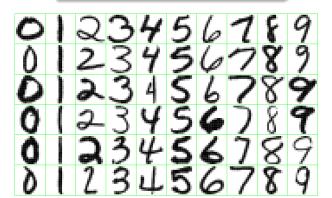
Digit recognition

• What features should we use?



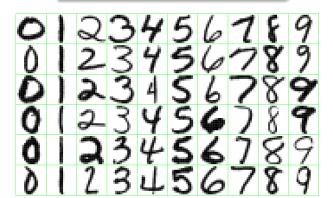
Digit recognition

- What features should we use?
 - Grey scale level for each pixel



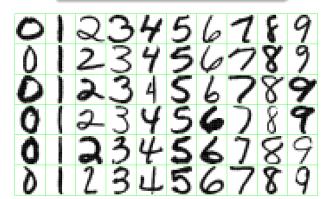
Digit recognition

- What features should we use?
 - Grey scale level for each pixel
 - Orientation histograms



Digit recognition

- What features should we use?
 - Grey scale level for each pixel
 - Orientation histograms
 - Polynomials of these



Histograms of Oriented Gradients



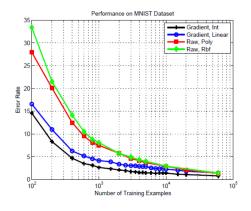
CellSize = [4 4]

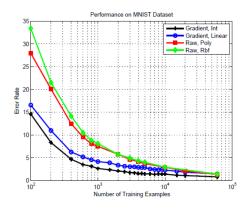
CellSize = [2 2] Feature length = 1764 Feature length = 324

CellSize = [8 8]

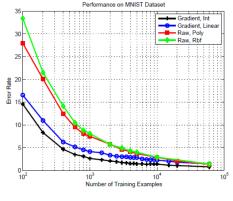




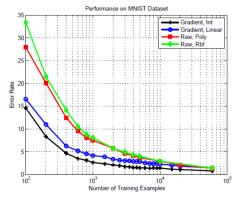




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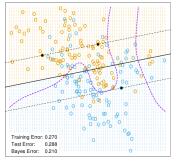


- For large sample sizes, different features give similar performance.
- For smaller sample sizes, there are significant differences.
- For some features, good classifiers are easier to find than for others.

Outline

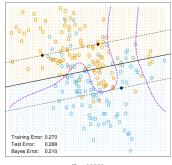
- Recall: linear classifiers, perceptron algorithm
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- Kernels

• Simulated data: (x, y) pairs chosen according to a known distribution.



C = 10000

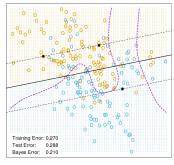
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$$C = 10000$$

$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$

- Simulated data: (x, y) pairs chosen according to a known distribution.
- Solid black line is the SVM decision boundary $\{x : \theta \cdot x = 0\}$.

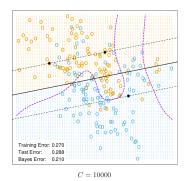


$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$

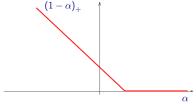
• Simulated data: (x, y) pairs chosen according to a known distribution.

min

- Solid black line is the SVM decision boundary $\{x : \theta \cdot x = 0\}$.
- Dashed black lines represent $\{x: \theta \cdot x \in \{-1, 1\}\}$.

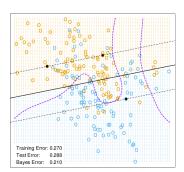


$$(1-\alpha)_+$$



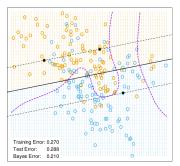
 $\|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1} \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$

$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$



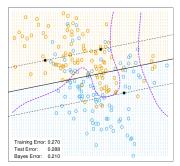
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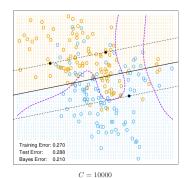
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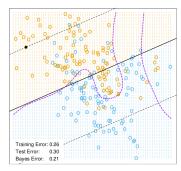
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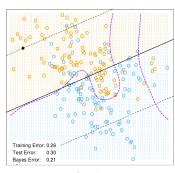
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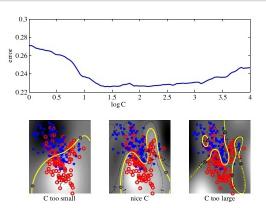


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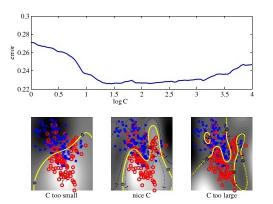
- C controls trade-off between margin $1/\|\theta\|$ and fit to data:
- Large C: focus on fit to data (small margin ok).
- Small C: focus on large margin.
- Overfitting increases with: less data, more features, C. (Not apparent in this example with d=2 and n=100s.)



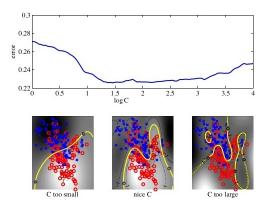
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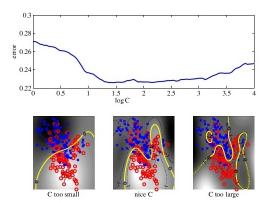
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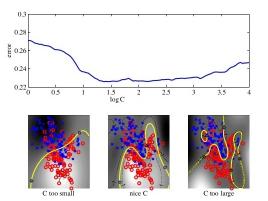
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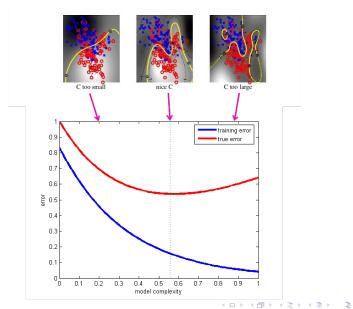
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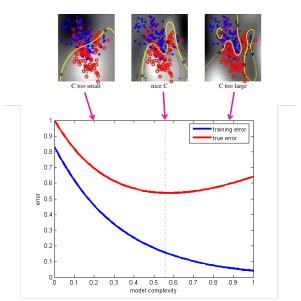
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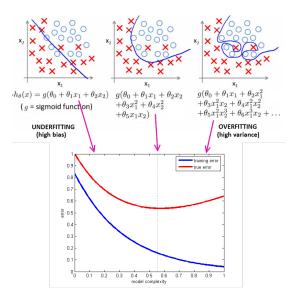
Regularization and overfitting



Regularization and overfitting



c.f. Features and overfitting



Outline

- Recall: linear classifiers, perceptron algorithm
- Support vector machines
- Features
- Features and overfitting
- Role of the regularization parameter C
- Regularization and overfitting
- Kernels

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 - Perceptron algorithm
 - Hard margin SVM
 - Soft margin SVM

Perceptron algorithm:

```
Input: (X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{\pm 1\} while some y^i \neq \mathrm{sign}(\theta \cdot x^i) pick some misclassified (x^i, y^i) \theta \leftarrow \theta + y^i x^i Return \theta.
```

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Properties:

$$\bullet \ \theta = \sum_{i} \alpha^{i} y^{i} x^{i}.$$

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Properties:

- $\theta = \sum_{i} \alpha^{i} y^{i} x^{i}$.
- The only properties of the data that we use are inner products:

$$\theta \cdot x^{j} = \left(\sum_{i} \alpha^{i} y^{i} x^{i}\right) \cdot x^{j} = \sum_{i} \alpha^{i} y^{i} \left(x^{i} \cdot x^{j}\right).$$

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• As long as we can calculate the inner products $x^i \cdot x^j$ for training vectors x^i , x^j , that is all we need.

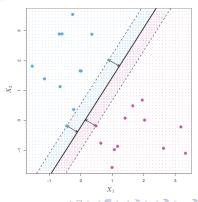
```
Hard margin SVM \min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2 such that y^i \theta \cdot x^i \geq 1 (i=1,\ldots,n)
```

Hard margin SVM $\min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2$ such that $y^i\theta \cdot x^i \geq 1 \qquad (i=1,\ldots,n)$

 The points that satisfy these constraints with equality are called support vectors.

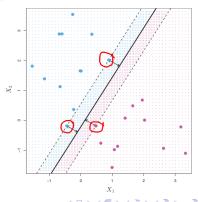
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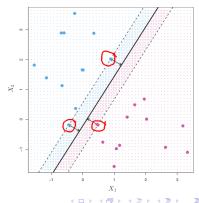
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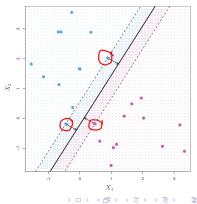
Hard margin SVM $\min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2$ such that $y^i \theta \cdot x^i \geq 1$ $(i=1,\ldots,n)$

- The points that satisfy these constraints with equality are called *support vectors*.
- It's clear that the solution θ only depends on the support vectors.



Hard margin SVM $\min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2$ such that $y^i \theta \cdot x^i \geq 1$ $(i=1,\ldots,n)$

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- It turns out that $\theta = \sum_{j} \alpha^{j} y^{j} x^{j}$. $(\alpha^{j} \neq 0 \text{ only for support vectors.})$



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 So inner products are the only properties of the data that we use:

Hard margin SVM $\min_{\theta} \quad \|\theta\|^2$ such that $y^i \frac{\theta}{\theta} \cdot x^i \geq 1 \qquad (i=1,\dots,n)$

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Hard margin SVM $\min_{\theta} \quad \frac{\|\theta\|^2}{\sup_{\theta} x^i \geq 1} \qquad (i=1,\dots,n)$ such that $y^i \theta \cdot x^i \geq 1$

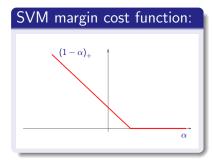
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 So inner products are the only properties of the data that we use:

$$\theta \cdot x^{i} = \sum_{j} \alpha^{j} y^{j} (x^{j} \cdot x^{i}),$$
$$\|\theta\|^{2} = \sum_{i,j} \alpha^{i} \alpha^{j} y^{i} y^{j} (x^{i} \cdot x^{j}).$$

$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$

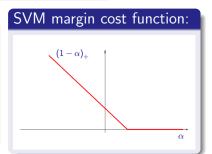
Soft margin SVM
$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$



Soft margin SVM

$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$

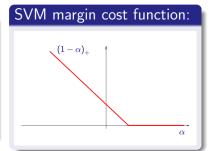
• The points satisfying $y^i \theta \cdot x^i \le 1$ are called *support vectors*.



Soft margin SVM

$$\min_{\theta} \qquad \|\theta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 - y^i \theta \cdot x^i\right)_+.$$

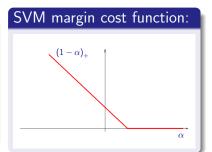
- The points satisfying $y^i \theta \cdot x^i \le 1$ are called *support vectors*.
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$$\theta \cdot x^{i} = \sum_{j} \alpha^{j} y^{j} (x^{j} \cdot x^{i}),$$
$$\|\theta\|^{2} = \sum_{i:j} \alpha^{i} \alpha^{j} y^{i} y^{j} (x^{i} \cdot x^{j}).$$

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$$K(x^i, x^j) = x^i \cdot x^j$$
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- All we need is the $K(x^i, x^j)$.
- K is called a kernel.

• Given the $K(x^i, x^j)$, we can then solve the optimization problem to find the α^j . They determine the parameters:

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$$\theta \cdot \phi(x) = \sum_{j} \alpha^{j} y^{j} \left(\phi(x^{j}) \cdot \phi(x) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{j} \alpha^{j} y^{j} K \left(x^{j}, x \right)$$

Examples of Kernels for $x, \tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$K_m(x, \tilde{x}) = (1 + x \cdot \tilde{x})^m$$

degree-m polynomial kernel

$$K_2(x,\tilde{x}) = (1+x\cdot\tilde{x})^2$$

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Kernels¹

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= \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ x_{1}^{2} \\ x_{2}^{2} \\ \sqrt{2}x_{1} \\ \sqrt{2}x_{2} \\ \sqrt{2}\tilde{x}_{1}\tilde{x}_{2} \end{pmatrix}}_{d(\tilde{x})} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \tilde{x}_{1}^{2} \\ \tilde{x}_{2}^{2} \\ \sqrt{2}\tilde{x}_{1} \\ \sqrt{2}\tilde{x}_{2} \\ \sqrt{2}\tilde{x}_{1}\tilde{x}_{2} \end{pmatrix}}_{d(\tilde{x})}$$

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This is equivalent to the polynomial features we considered earlier. But we can compute it via

$$\theta \cdot \phi(x) = \sum_{j} \alpha^{j} y^{j} K_{2}(x^{j}, x).$$

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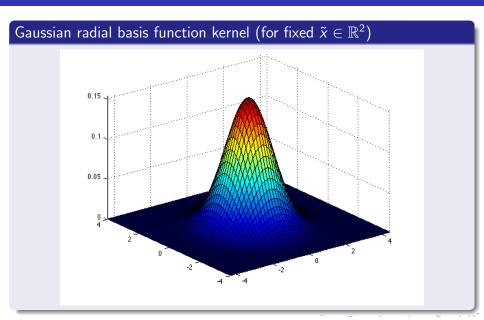
degree-*m* polynomial kernel

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degree-*m* polynomial kernel radial basis function kernel



How can we write

$$K_{rbf}(x, \tilde{x}) = \exp(-\gamma ||x - \tilde{x}||^2) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi(\tilde{x})$$
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It turns out we can, but ϕ is infinite-dimensional.

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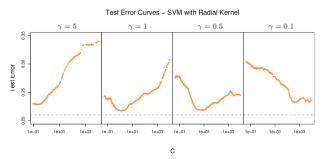


FIGURE 12.6. Test-error curves as a function of the cost parameter C for the radial-kernel SVM classifier on the mixture data. At the top of each plot is the scale parameter γ for the radial kernel: $K_{\gamma}(x,y) = \exp{-\gamma||x-y||^2}$. The optimal value for C depends quite strongly on the scale of the kernel. The Bayes error rate is indicated by the broken horizontal lines.



Why use kernels?

 They provide a modular approach to training a classifier: the same optimization procedure can be used with many different features. All that is required is the kernel matrix, with entries

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• Often this representation is considerably easier to compute. For example, the degree m polynomial kernel on \mathbb{R}^d is an inner product involving $\binom{m+d}{m}$ features.

Outline

- Recall: linear classifiers, perceptron algorithm
- Support vector machines
- Features
- Features and overfitting
- Role of the regularization parameter C
- Regularization and overfitting
- Kernels