

# Controling Complexity: Regularization

Mengye Ren

(Slides credit to David Rosenberg, He He, et al.)

NYU

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# Lecture Slides

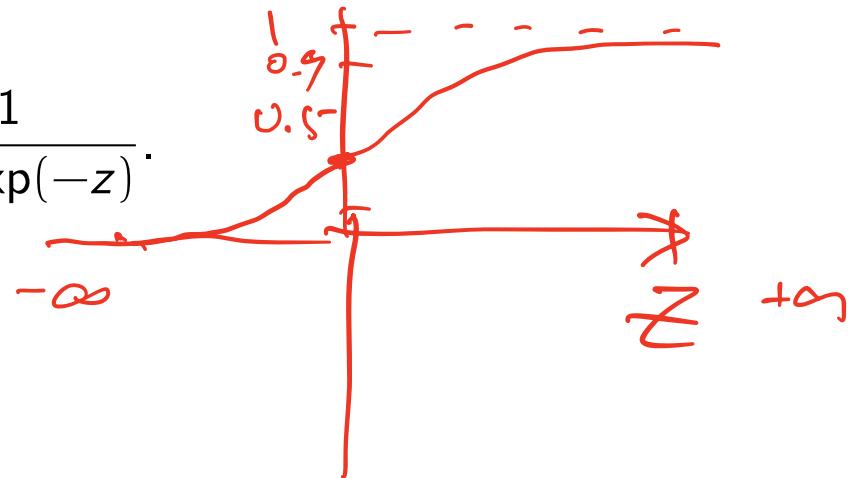
- For those of you who want to take notes on your tablets.
- Otherwise, slides will be shared on the course website after the lecture.



# Logistic Regression

- If the label is 0 or 1:
- $\hat{y} = \sigma(z)$ , where  $\sigma$  is the sigmoid function.

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}.$$



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- The loss is binary cross entropy:

$$\ell_{\text{Logistic}} = -y \log(\hat{y}) - (1-y) \log(1-\hat{y}).$$

Annotations on the equation:  
A red bracket under the term  $-y \log(\hat{y})$  is labeled  $y=1$ .  
A red bracket under the term  $(1-y) \log(1-\hat{y})$  is labeled  $y=0$ .  
A red bracket under the entire equation is labeled  $0-1$ .

Annotations on the right:  
true ans = 1  
 $y = 1$   
 $\hat{y} = 1$  loss = 0  
true ans = 0  
 $y = 0.1$  loss ↑↑  
 $\hat{y} = 0$  loss = 0  
 $y = 0.9$  loss ↑↑

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- Remember the negative sign!

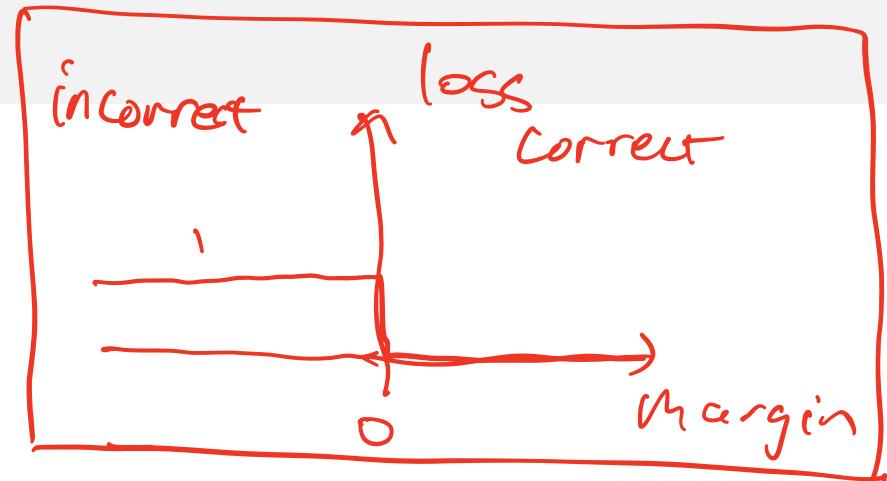
# Logistic Regression

- If the label is -1 or 1:
- Note:  $1 - \sigma(z) = \sigma(-z)$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{label} \\ \uparrow \\ m = \underline{y \cdot \text{prediction}} \end{array}$$

# Logistic Regression

- If the label is  $-1 \text{ or } 1$ :
- Note:  $\underline{1 - \sigma(z)} = \underline{\sigma(-z)}$
- Now we can derive an equivalent loss form:

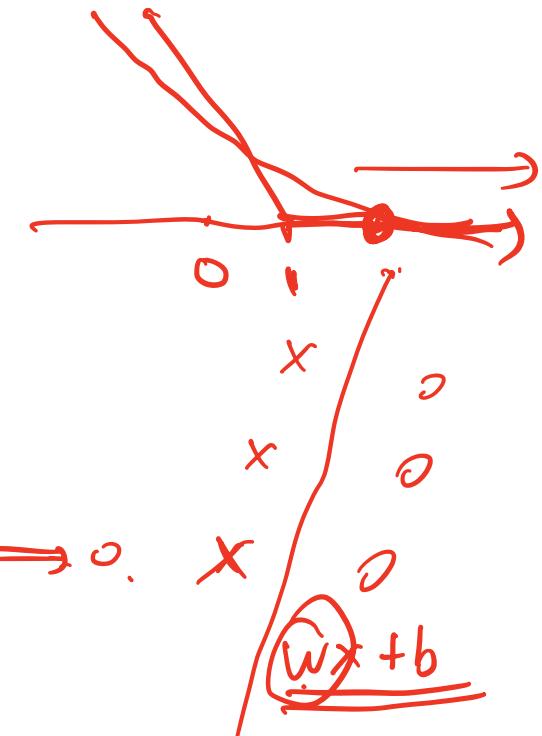
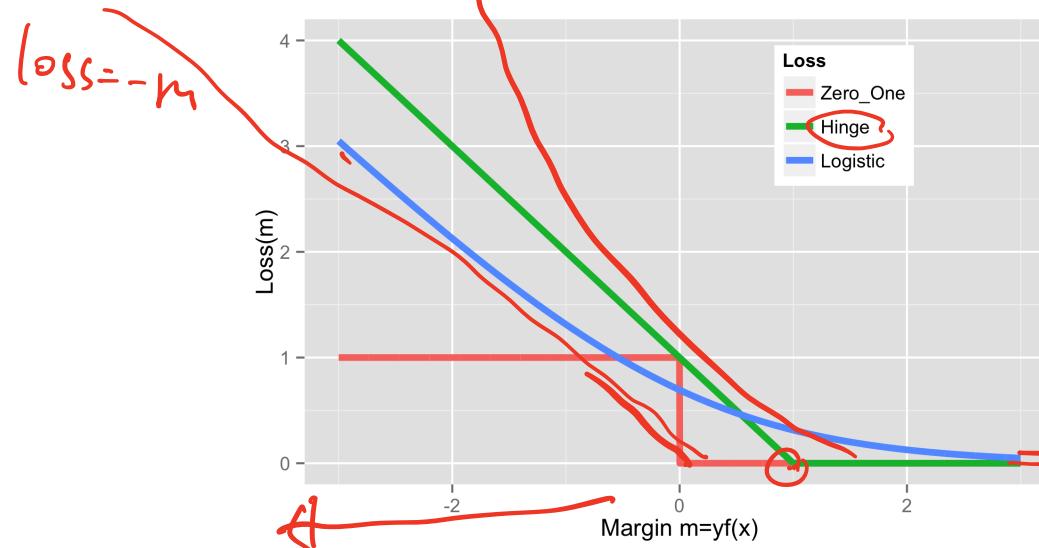


$$\begin{aligned}\ell_{\text{Logistic}} &= \begin{cases} -\log(\sigma(z)) & \text{if } y = 1 \\ -\log(\sigma(-z)) & \text{if } y = -1 \end{cases} \\ &= -\log(\sigma(yz)) \\ &= -\log\left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-yz}}\right) \quad \text{by def of } \sigma. \\ &= \log(1 + e^{-m}). \quad m = yz.\end{aligned}$$

# Logistic Loss

Logistic/Log loss:  $\ell_{\text{Logistic}} = \log(1 + e^{-m})$   $\frac{-m \uparrow}{e^{-m} \gg 1}$

$$\log(e^{-m}) = -m$$



Logistic loss is differentiable. Logistic loss always rewards a larger margin (the loss is never 0).

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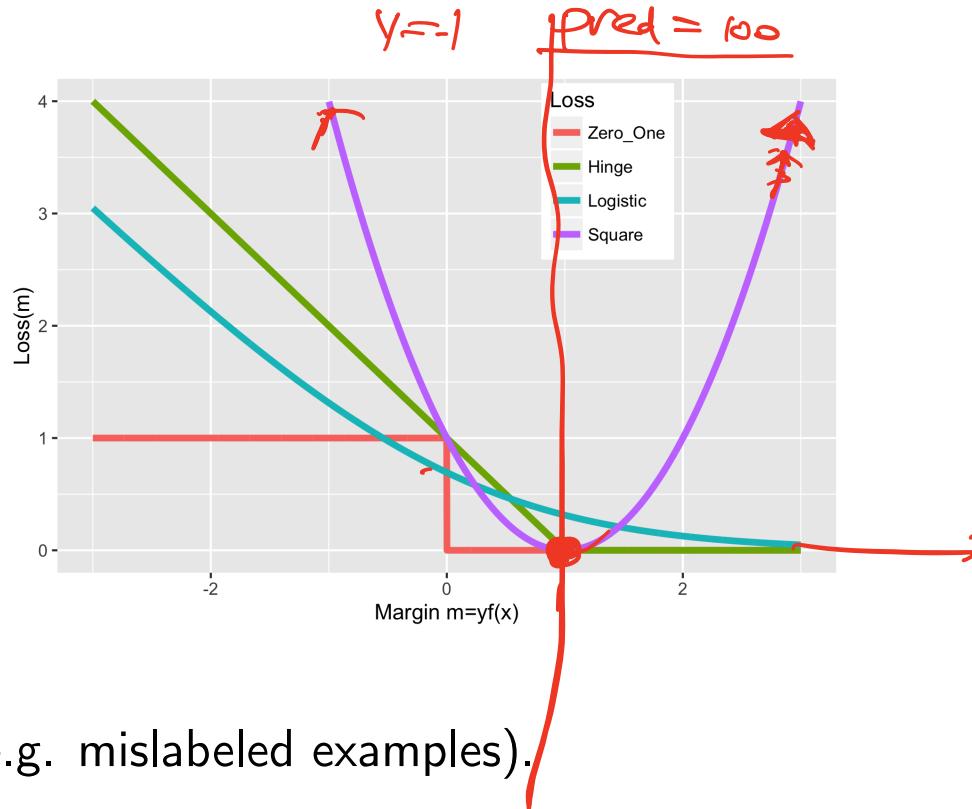

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→ only binary classification

# What About Square Loss for Classification?



Heavily penalizes outliers (e.g. mislabeled examples).

## Controlling the Complexity through Regularization

## Complexity of Hypothesis Spaces

↙ property of hypothesis class  
↙ # training sample.

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- Number of variables / features

$$\text{linear } w^T x + b$$

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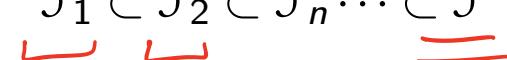
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- Degree of polynomial

# General Approach to Control Complexity

1. Learn a sequence of models varying in complexity from the training data

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- $\mathcal{F}_d = \{\text{all polynomials of degree } \leq d\}$

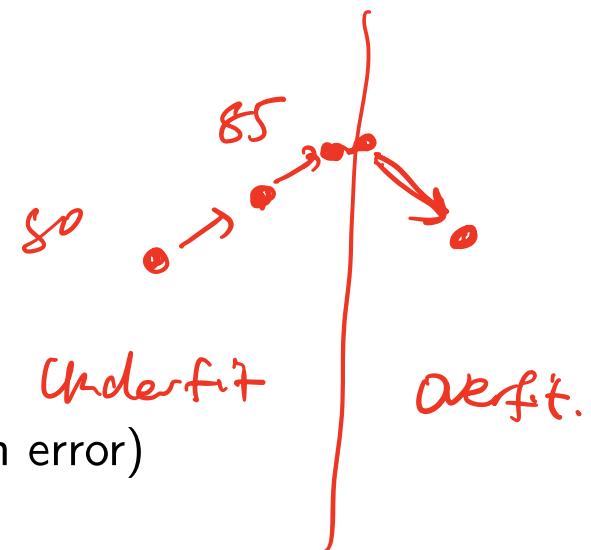
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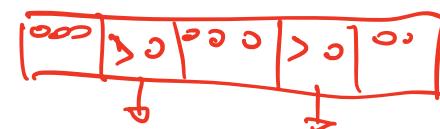
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2. Select one of these models based on a score (e.g. validation error)



# Feature Selection in Linear Regression

Nested sequence of hypothesis spaces:  $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2 \subset \mathcal{F}_n \dots \subset \overline{\mathcal{F}}$

- $\mathcal{F} = \{\text{linear functions using all features}\}$  *a lot of feature*
- $\mathcal{F}_d = \{\text{linear functions using fewer than } d \text{ features}\}$



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▷ choose  $d$ .

Best subset selection:

- Choose the subset of features that is best according to the score (e.g. validation error)
  - Example with two features: Train models using  $\{\}, \{X_1\}, \{X_2\}, \{X_1, X_2\}$ , respectively

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- **Not an efficient search algorithm**; iterating over all subsets becomes very expensive with a large number of features

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## Backward Selection:

- Start with all features; in each iteration, remove the worst feature

## Feature Selection: Discussion

- Number of features as a measure of the complexity of a linear prediction function

A red wavy underline is drawn under the word "features".

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- Forward & backward selection do not guarantee to find the best solution.
- Forward & backward selection do not in general result in the same subset.
- Could there be a more consistent way of formulating feature selection as an optimization problem?

## $\ell_2$ and $\ell_1$ Regularization

## Complexity Penalty

An objective that balances number of features and prediction performance:

$$\underline{\text{score}(S)} = \underline{\text{training\_loss}(S)} + \lambda|S| \quad (1)$$

$\lambda$  balances the training loss and the number of features used.

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The equation shows the score function as the sum of the training loss and a complexity penalty term. The training loss term is highlighted with a red box and a red arrow points down to it. The complexity penalty term,  $\lambda \|S\|_1$ , is circled in red.

$\lambda$  balances the training loss and the number of features used.

- Adding an extra feature must be justified by at least  $\lambda$  improvement in training loss
- Larger  $\lambda \rightarrow$  complex models are penalized more heavily

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For complexity measure  $\Omega : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  and fixed  $\lambda \geq 0$ ,

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i) + \underline{\lambda \Omega(f)}$$

As usual, we find  $\lambda$  using the validation data.

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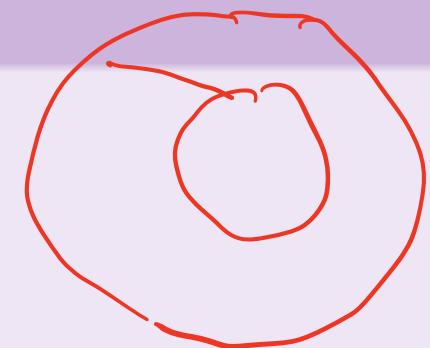
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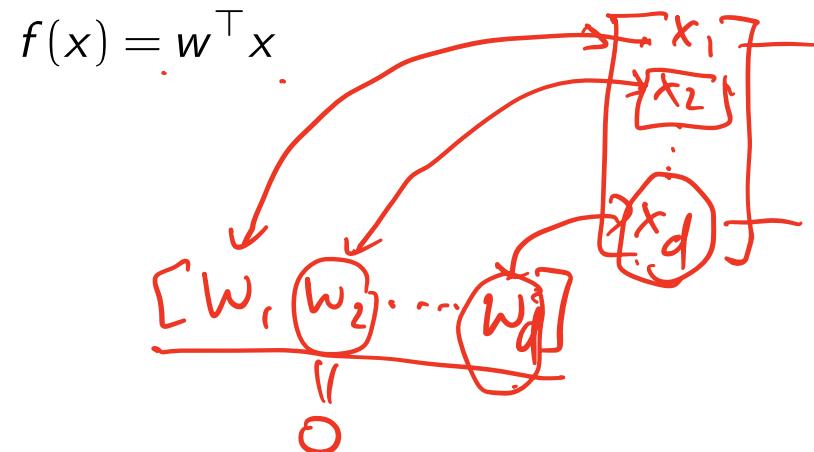
Number of features as complexity measure is not differentiable and hard to optimize—other measures?

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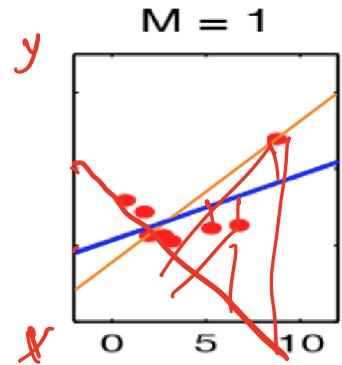
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$$f(x) = w^\top x$$

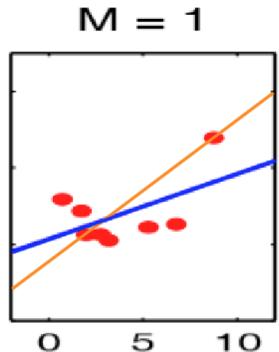
- If  $w_i$  is zero or close to zero, then it means that we are not using the  $i$ -th feature.

# Weight Shrinkage: Intuition



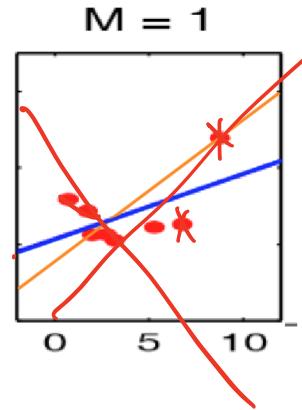
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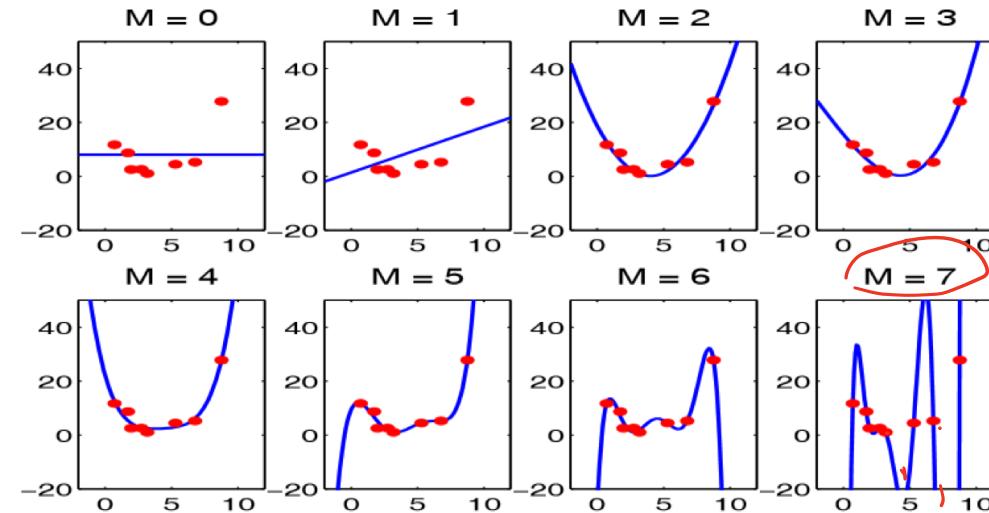
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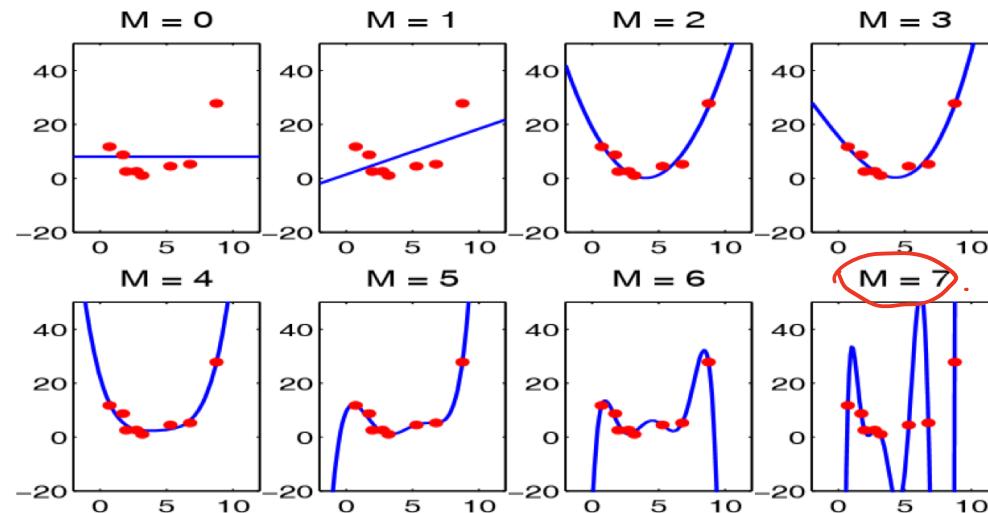
- Why would we prefer a regression line with **smaller slope** (unless the data strongly supports a larger slope)?
- More stable: small change in the input does not cause large change in the output
- If we push the estimated weights to be small, re-estimating them on a new dataset wouldn't cause the prediction function to change dramatically (**less sensitive to noise in data**)

# Weight Shrinkage: Polynomial Regression



- n-th feature dimension is the n-th power of x:  $1, x, x^2, \dots$

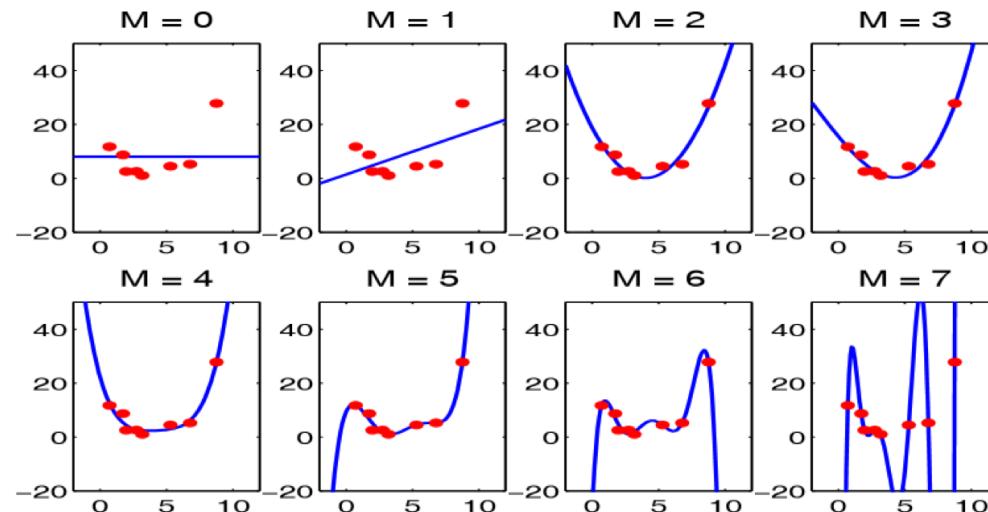
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$$\underbrace{0.001x^6 + 0.001x^5}_{+}$$

# Weight Shrinkage: Polynomial Regression



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- Large weights are needed to make the curve wiggle sufficiently to overfit the data
- $\hat{y} = 0.001x^7 + 0.003x^3 + 1$  less likely to overfit than  $\hat{y} = 1000x^7 + 500x^3 + 1$

(Adapted from Mark Schmidt's slide)

# Linear Regression with $\ell_2$ Regularization

- We have a linear model

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) = w^T x \text{ for } w \in \mathbb{R}^d \right\}$$

- Square loss:  $\ell(\hat{y}, y) = (y - \hat{y})^2$
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- Training data  $\mathcal{D}_n = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n))$
- Linear least squares regression is ERM for square loss over  $\mathcal{F}$ :

$$\hat{w} = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

- This often overfits, especially when  $d$  is large compared to  $n$  (e.g. in NLP one can have 1M features for 10K documents).

# Linear Regression with L2 Regularization

Penalizes large weights:

$$\hat{w} = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{ w^T x_i - y_i \}^2 + \lambda \|w\|_2^2,$$

where  $\|w\|_2^2 = w_1^2 + \dots + w_d^2$  is the square of the  $\ell_2$ -norm.

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(linear)

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Swap to loss of  
Other models.

- Also known as **ridge regression**.
- Equivalent to linear least square regression when  $\lambda = 0$ .
- $\ell_2$  regularization can be used for other models too (e.g. neural networks).

## $\ell_2$ regularization reduces sensitivity to changes in input

- $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{w}^T x$  is **Lipschitz continuous** with **Lipschitz constant**  $L = \|\hat{w}\|_2$  when moving from  $x$  to  $x + h$ ,  $\hat{f}$  changes no more than  $L\|h\|$ .

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- $\ell_2$  regularization controls the maximum rate of change of  $\hat{f}$ .
- Proof:

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regularize  $\|\hat{w}\|_2 \rightarrow$  less change in the output

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- Other norms also provide a bound on  $L$  due to the equivalence of norms:  
 $\exists C > 0$  s.t.  $\|\hat{w}\|_2 \leq C\|\hat{w}\|_p$

# Linear Regression vs. Ridge Regression

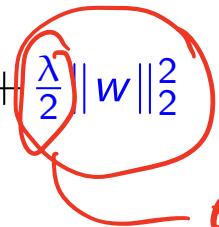
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don't worry about the scaling.

# Linear Regression vs. Ridge Regression

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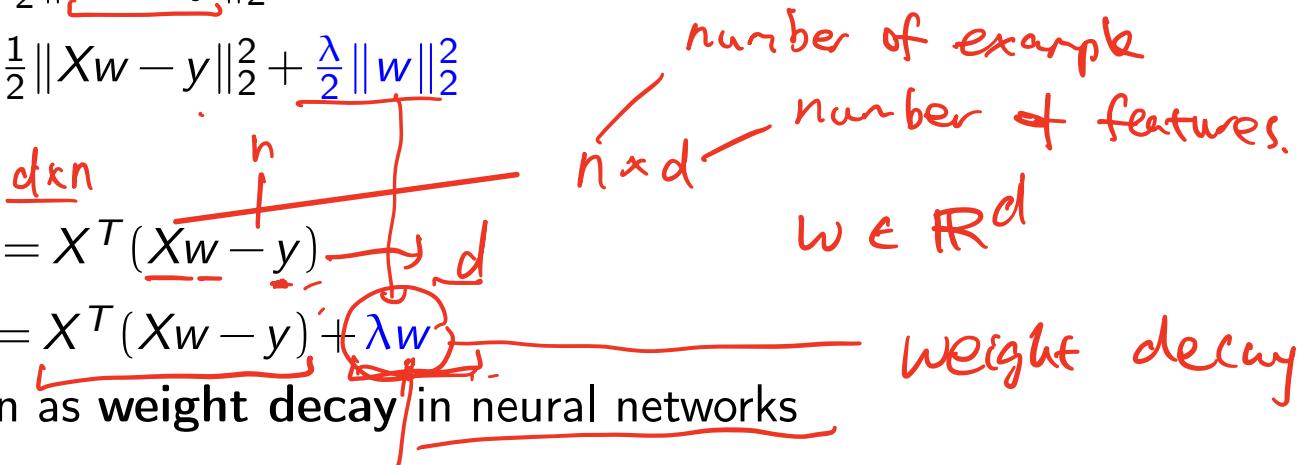
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- Linear:  $\nabla L(w) = X^T(Xw - y)$
- Ridge:  $\nabla L(w) = X^T(Xw - y) + \lambda w$ 
  - Also known as weight decay in neural networks



$$w=5 \quad 5\lambda. \quad \swarrow 5\lambda.$$
$$w=0.1 \quad 0.1\lambda. \quad \swarrow 0.1\lambda.$$

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## Closed-form solution:

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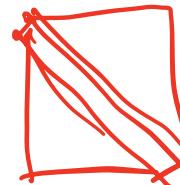
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Closed-form solution:

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- Ridge:  $(X^T X + \lambda I) w = X^T y \rightarrow w = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y$ 
  - $(X^T X + \lambda I)$  is always invertible

# Constrained Optimization

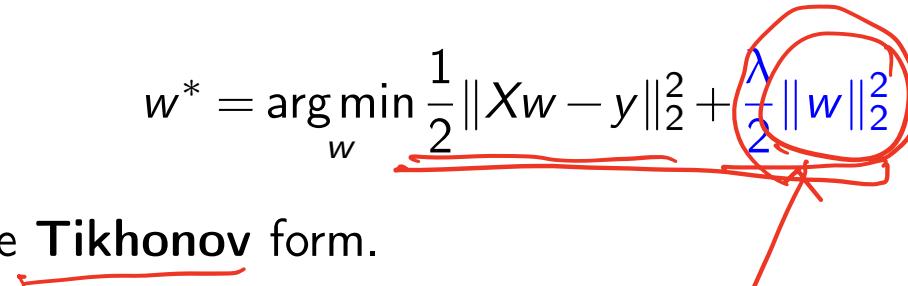
- L2 regularizer is a term in our optimization objective.

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \frac{1}{2} \|Xw - y\|_2^2 + \left( \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|_2^2 \right)$$

- This is also called the **Tikhonov** form.

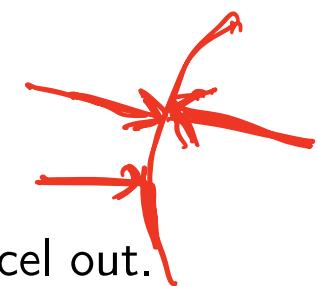
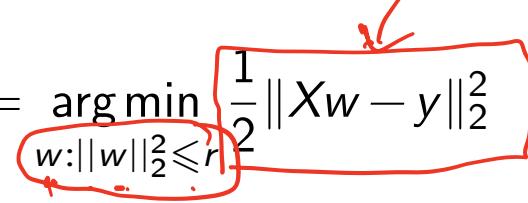
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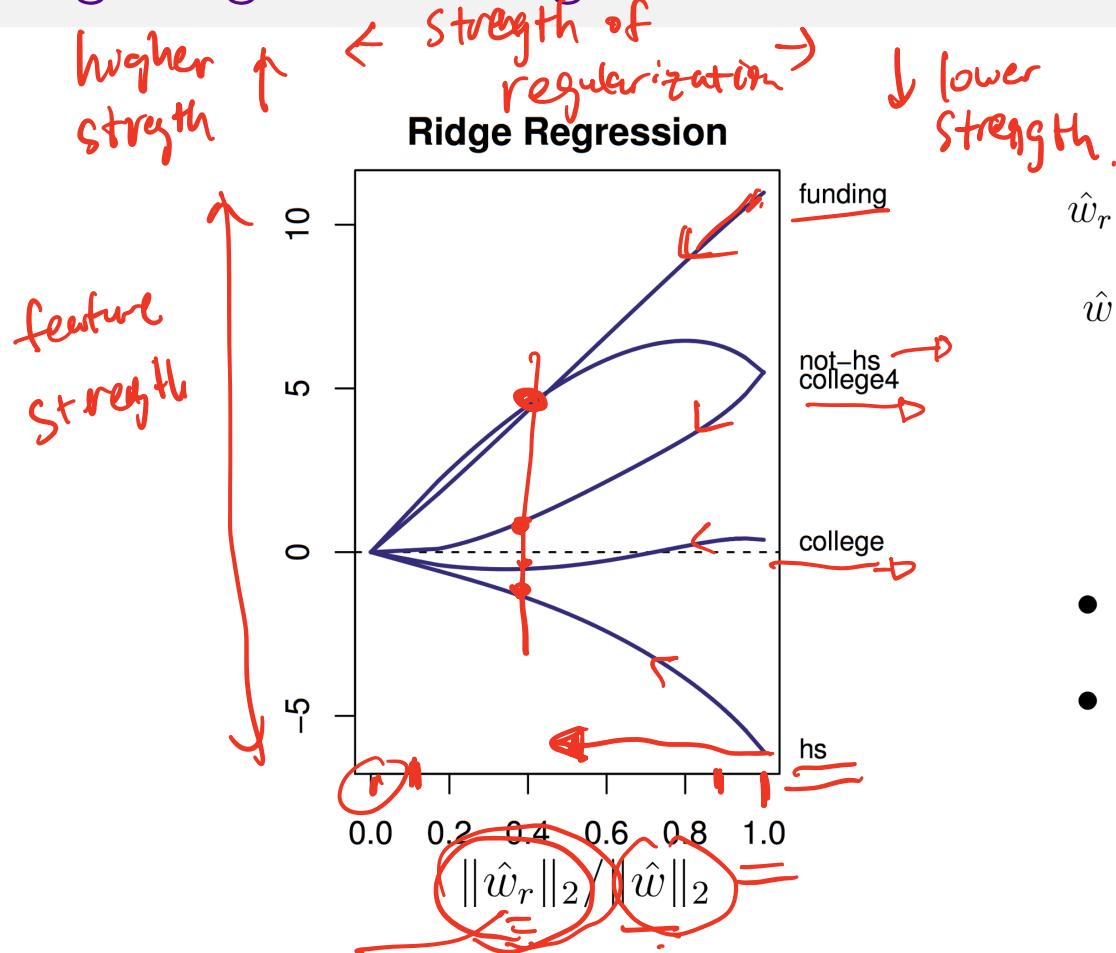
- This is also called the Tikhonov form.  

- The Lagrangian theory allows us to interpret the second term as a constraint.

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w: \|w\|_2^2 \leq r} \frac{1}{2} \|Xw - y\|_2^2$$


- At optimum, the gradients of the main objective and the constraint cancel out.
- This is also called the Ivanov form.  


# Ridge Regression: Regularization Path



$$\hat{w}_r = \arg \min_{\|w\|_2^2 \leq r^2} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

$$\hat{w} = \hat{w}_\infty = \text{Unconstrained ERM}$$

$$r^2 = 0, 1$$

- For  $r = 0$ ,  $\|\hat{w}_r\|_2 / \|\hat{w}\|_2 = 0$ .
- For  $r = \infty$ ,  $\|\hat{w}_r\|_2 / \|\hat{w}\|_2 = 1$

Modified from Hastie, Tibshirani, and Wainwright's *Statistical Learning with Sparsity*, Fig 2.1. About predicting crime in 50 US cities.

# Lasso Regression

Penalize the  $\ell_1$  norm of the weights:

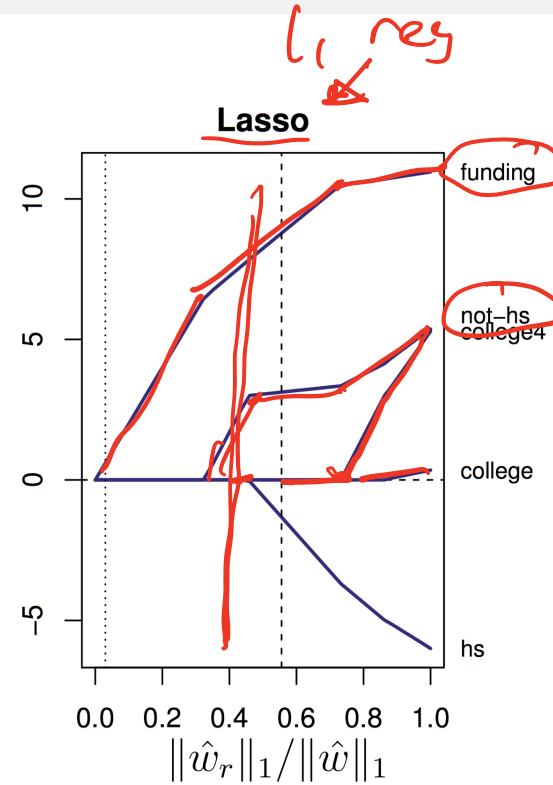
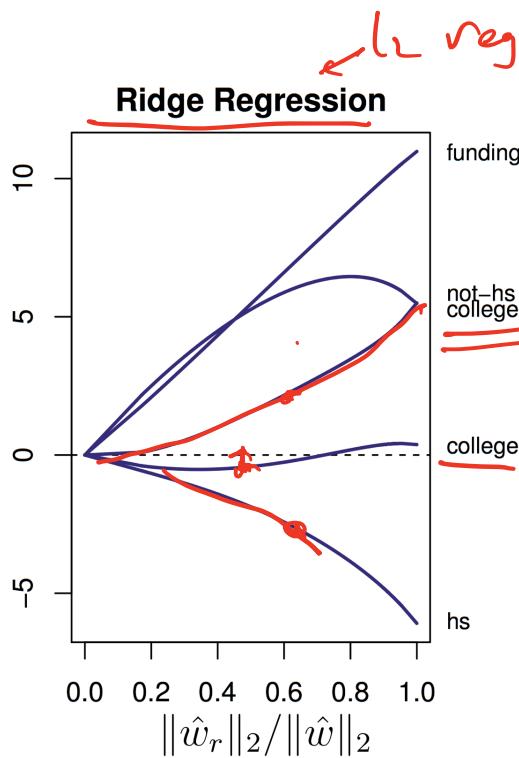
Lasso Regression (Tikhonov Form, soft penalty)

$$\hat{w} = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{w^T x_i - y_i\}^2 + \lambda \|w\|_1,$$

where  $\|w\|_1 = |w_1| + \dots + |w_d|$  is the  $\ell_1$ -norm.

$$\sqrt{w_1^2 + w_2^2 + \dots + w_d^2} = \ell_2$$

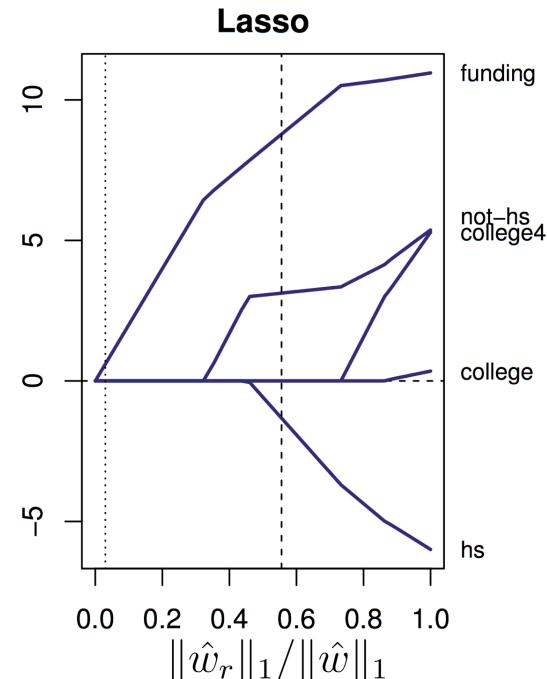
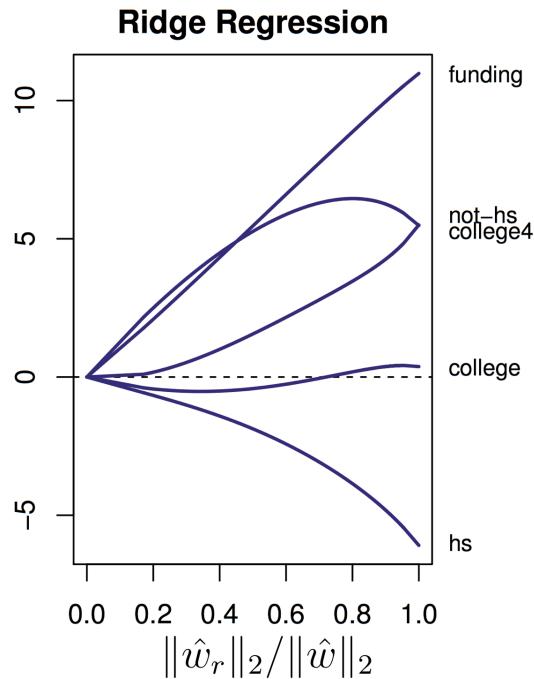
# Ridge vs. Lasso: Regularization Paths



- \* less smooth
- \* feature goes to zeros.

Modified from Hastie, Tibshirani, and Wainwright's *Statistical Learning with Sparsity*, Fig 2.1. About predicting crime in 50 US cities.

# Ridge vs. Lasso: Regularization Paths



Lasso yields sparse weights.

Modified from Hastie, Tibshirani, and Wainwright's *Statistical Learning with Sparsity*, Fig 2.1. About predicting crime in 50 US cities.

# The Benefits of Sparsity

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- Less memory to store features (deployment on a mobile device)
- Interpretability: identifies the important features
- Prediction function may generalize better (model is less complex)

## Why does $\ell_1$ Regularization Lead to Sparsity?

# Lasso Regression

Penalize the  $\ell_1$  norm of the weights:

Lasso Regression (Tikhonov Form, soft penalty)

$$\hat{w} = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\{w^T x_i - y_i\}^2}_{\text{linear regression}} + \lambda \|w\|_1,$$

where  $\|w\|_1 = |w_1| + \dots + |w_d|$  is the  $\ell_1$ -norm.

linear regression

# Regularization as Constrained ERM

## Constrained ERM (Ivanov regularization)

For complexity measure  $\Omega : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  and fixed  $r \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i) \\ & \text{s.t. } \Omega(f) \leq r \end{aligned}$$

## Lasso Regression (Ivanov Form, hard constraint)

The lasso regression solution for complexity parameter  $r \geq 0$  is

$$\hat{w} = \arg \min_{\|w\|_1 \leq r} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{ w^T x_i - y_i \}^2.$$

$r$  has the same role as  $\lambda$  in penalized ERM (Tikhonov).

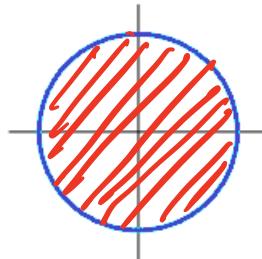
## The $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ Norm Constraints

- Let's consider  $\mathcal{F} = \{f(x) = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2\}$  space)
- We can represent each function in  $\mathcal{F}$  as a point  $(w_1, w_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .
- Where in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are the functions that satisfy the Ivanov regularization constraint for  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$ ?

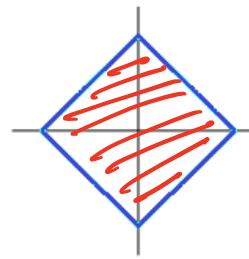
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- $\ell_2$  contour:  
 $w_1^2 + w_2^2 = r$



- $\ell_1$  contour:  
 $|w_1| + |w_2| = r$

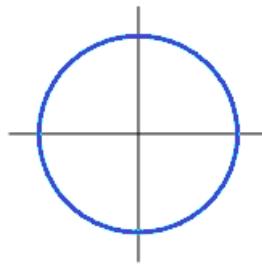


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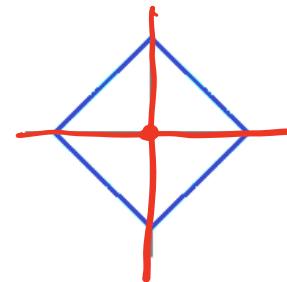
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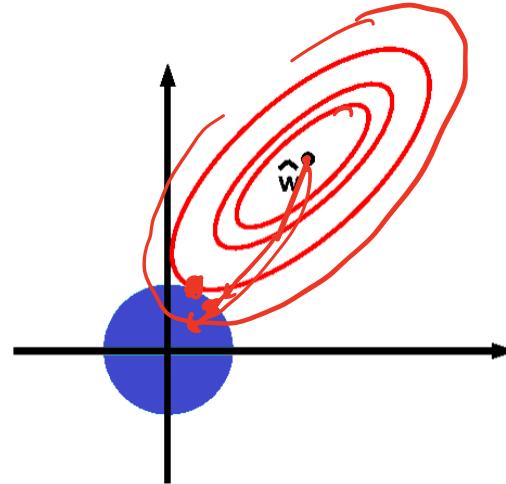
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- Where are the sparse solutions?

# Visualizing Regularization

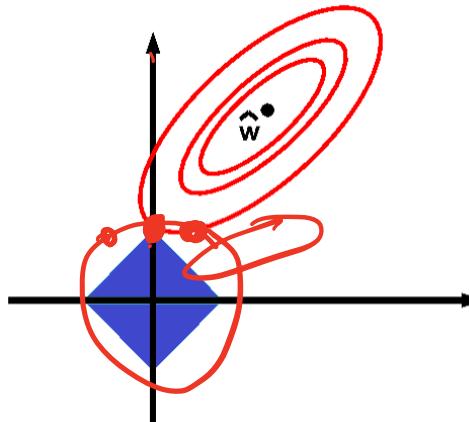
- $f_r^* = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$  subject to  $w_1^2 + w_2^2 \leq r$



- Blue region: Area satisfying complexity constraint:  $w_1^2 + w_2^2 \leq r$
- Red lines: contours of the empirical risk  $\hat{R}_n(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$ .

# Why Does $\ell_1$ Regularization Encourage Sparse Solutions?

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- $\ell_1$  solution tends to touch the corners.

# Why Does $\ell_1$ Regularization Encourage Sparse Solutions?

Suppose the loss contour is growing like a perfect circle/sphere.

Geometric intuition: Projection onto diamond encourages solutions at corners.

- $\hat{w}$  in red/green regions are closest to corners in the  $\ell_1$  “ball”.

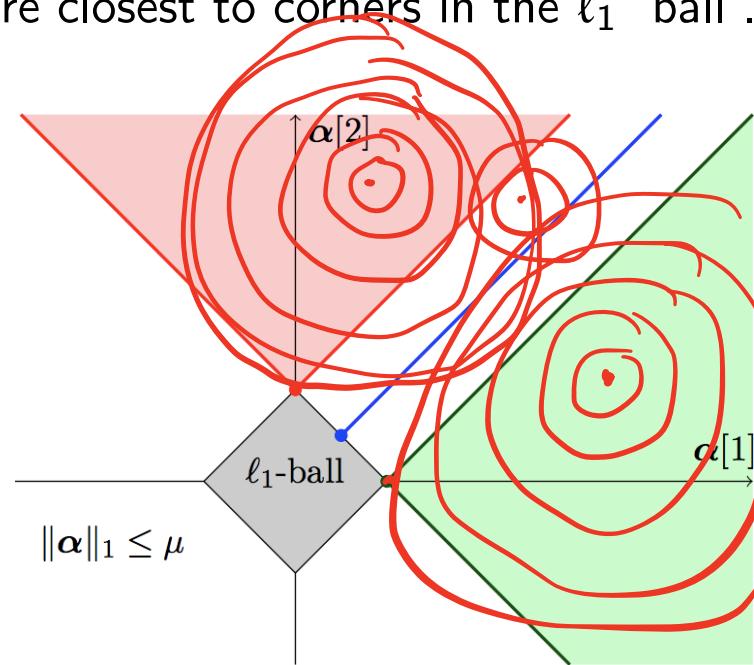


Fig from Mairal et al.'s Sparse Modeling for Image and Vision Processing Fig 1.6

# Why Does $\ell_1$ Regularization Encourage Sparse Solutions?

Suppose the loss contour is growing like a perfect circle/sphere.

Geometric intuition: Projection onto  $\ell_2$  sphere favors all directions equally.

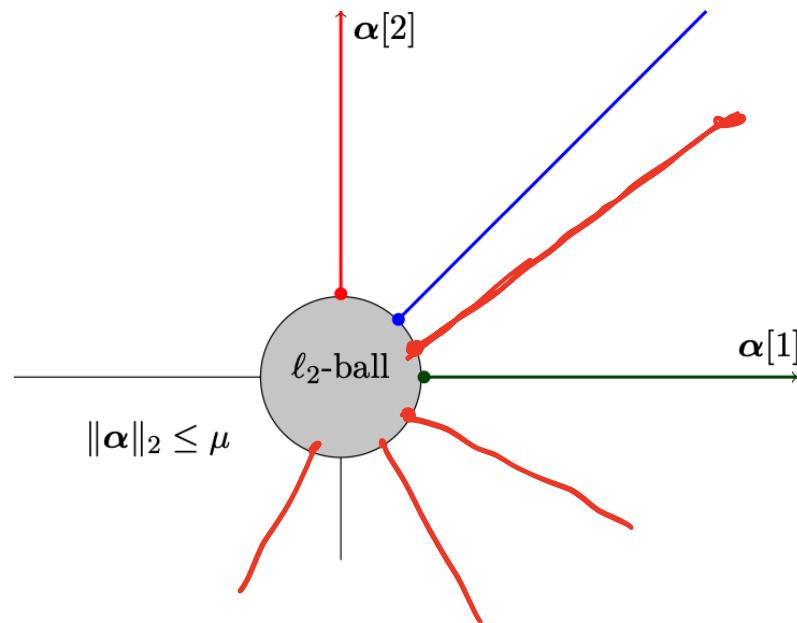


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# Optimization Perspective

For  $\ell_2$  regularization,

- As  $w_i$  becomes smaller, there is less and less penalty
  - What is the  $\ell_2$  penalty for  $w_i = 0.0001$ ?  $w_i^2$   $\lambda w$   $0.0001\lambda$ .
- The gradient—which determines the pace of optimization—decreases as  $w_i$  approaches zero
- Less incentive to make a small weight equal to exactly zero

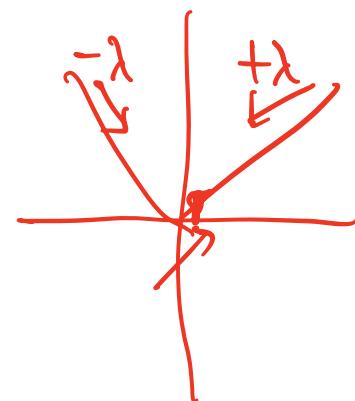
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For  $\ell_1$  regularization,

- The gradient stays the same as the weights approach zero
- This pushes the weights to be exactly zero even if they are already small

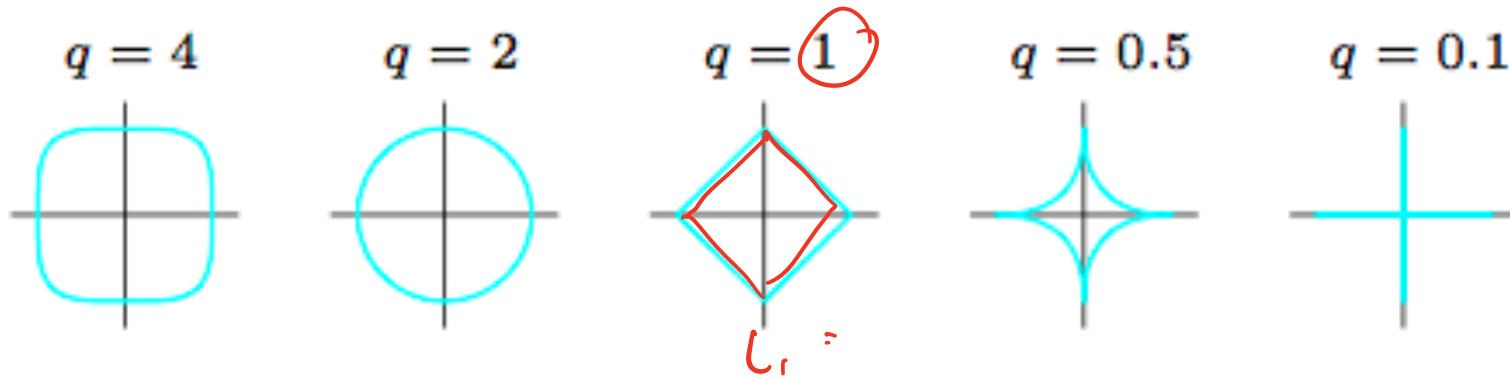


## $(\ell_q)$ Regularization

- We can generalize to  $\ell_q$  :  $(\|w\|_q)^q = |w_1|^q + |w_2|^q$ .

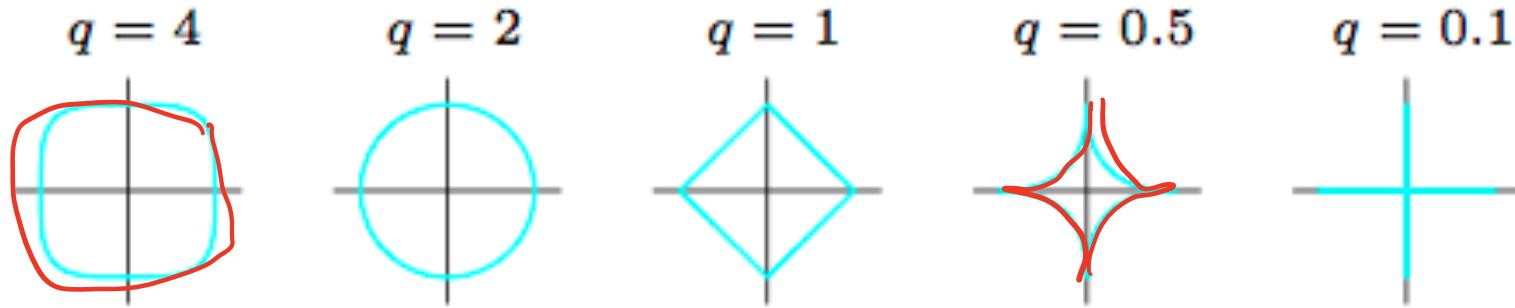
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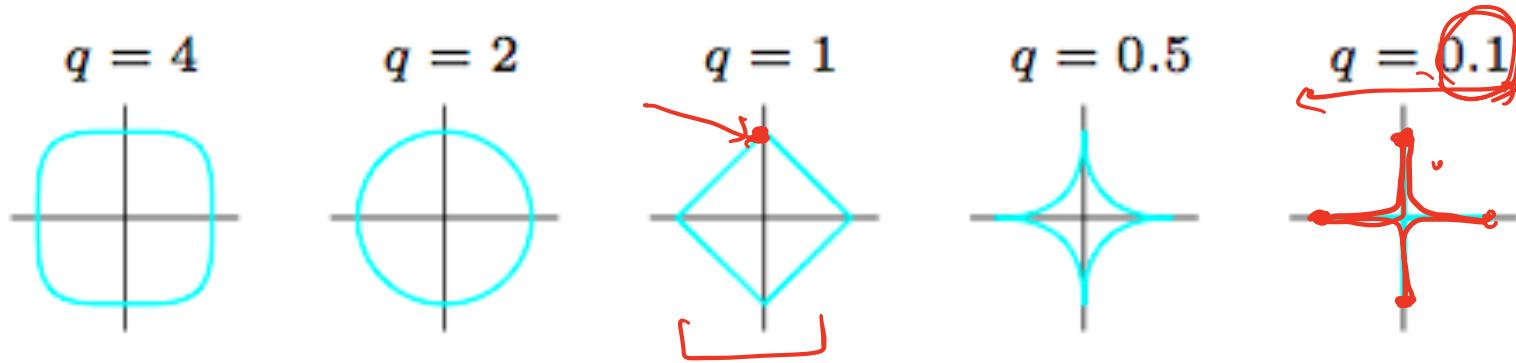
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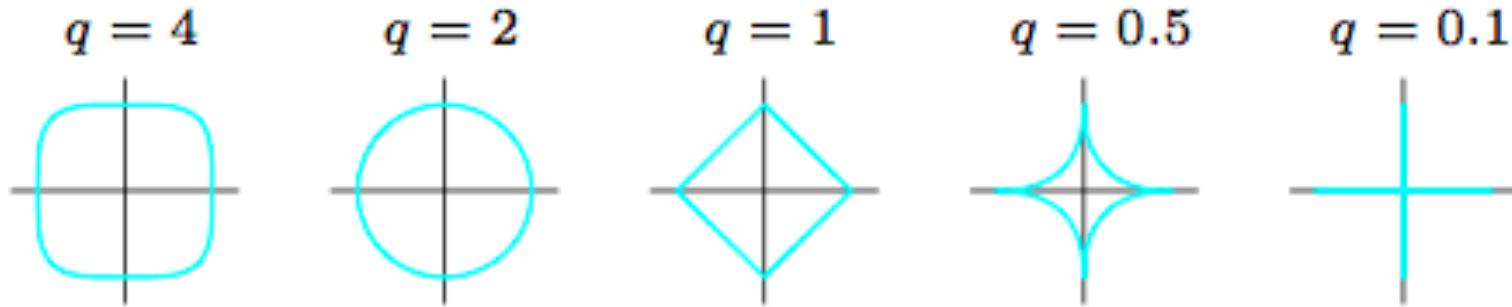
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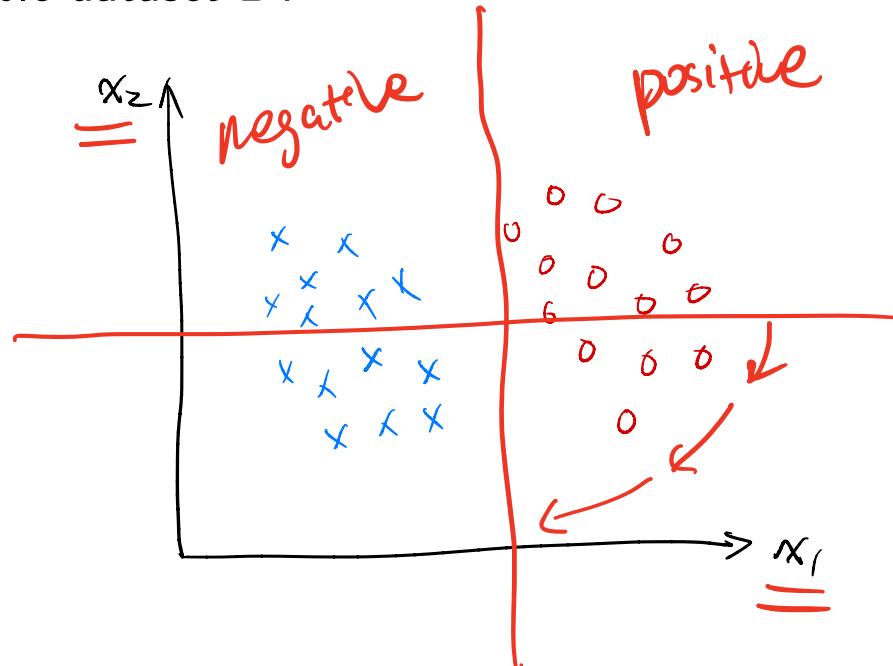


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- $\ell_0 (\|w\|_0)$  is defined as the number of non-zero weights, i.e. subset selection  
 $\overbrace{\quad}^{\text{def}} \quad \underbrace{q=0}$

# Maximum Margin Classifier

# Linearly Separable Data

Consider a linearly separable dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ :

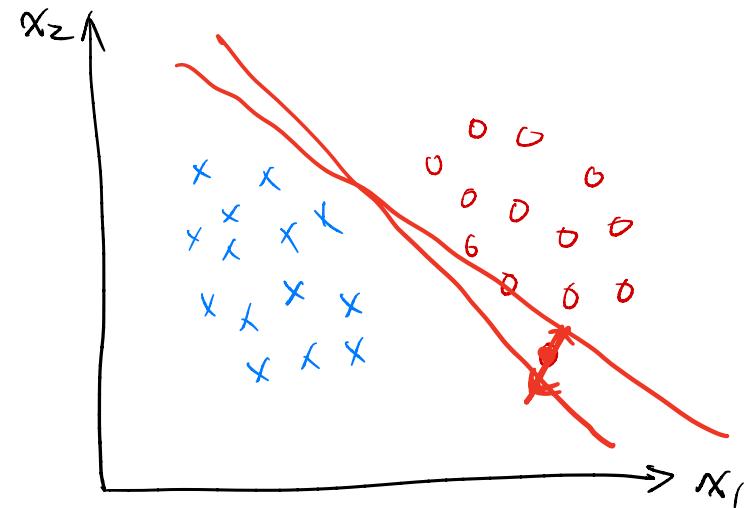


Find a separating hyperplane such that

- $w^T x_i > 0$  for all  $x_i$  where  $y_i = +1$
- $w^T x_i < 0$  for all  $x_i$  where  $y_i = -1$

# Linearly Separable Data

Consider a linearly separable dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ :



Now let's design a learning algorithm: If there is a misclassified example, change the hyperplane according to the example.

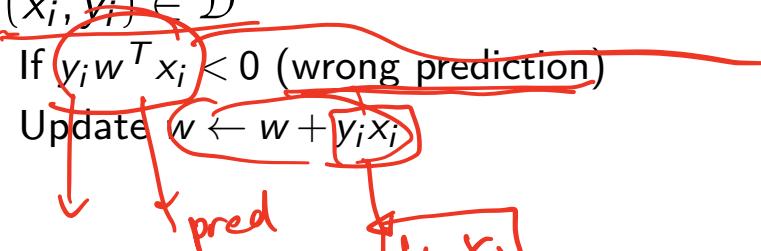
# The Perceptron Algorithm

- Initialize  $w \leftarrow 0$
- While not converged (exists misclassified examples)

- For  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}$

- If  $y_i w^T x_i < 0$  (wrong prediction)

- Update  $w \leftarrow w + y_i x_i$



$$\begin{aligned} y w^T x &= y_i (w_{\text{old}} + y_i x_i)^T x_i \\ &= \underbrace{y_i y_i x_i^T}_{\text{old}} + \underbrace{y_i y_i x_i^T}_{\text{new}} x_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} w^T x + b &= (w^T x) \\ &= (w_1 \quad \vdots \quad w_d \quad b) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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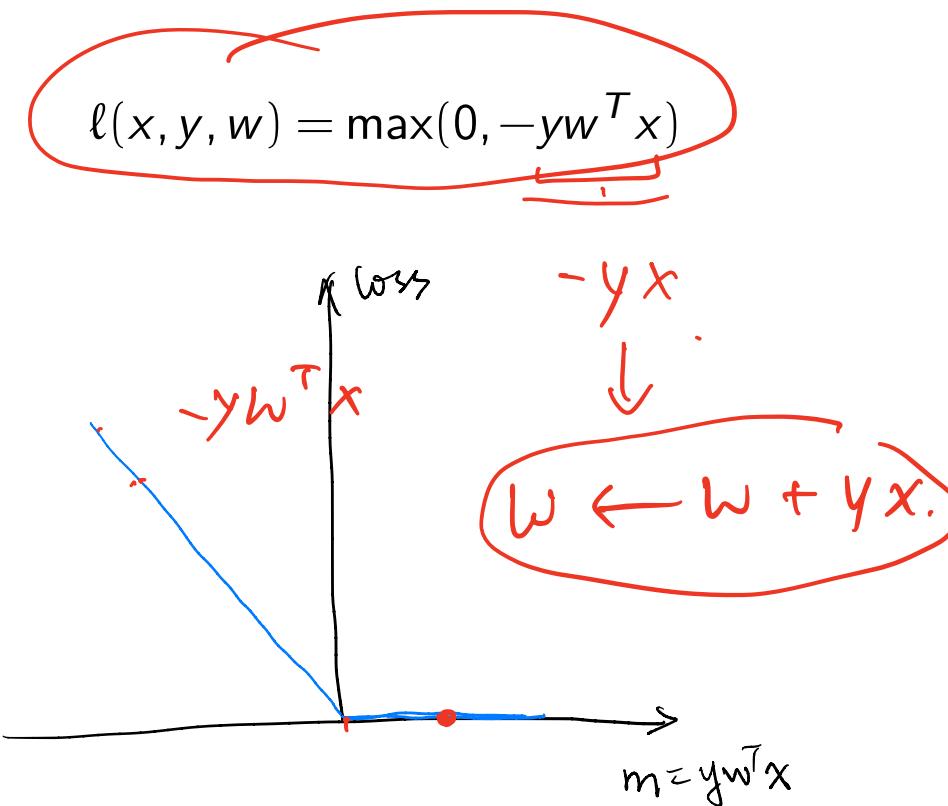
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- What is the loss function if we consider this as a SGD algorithm?

## Minimize the Hinge Loss

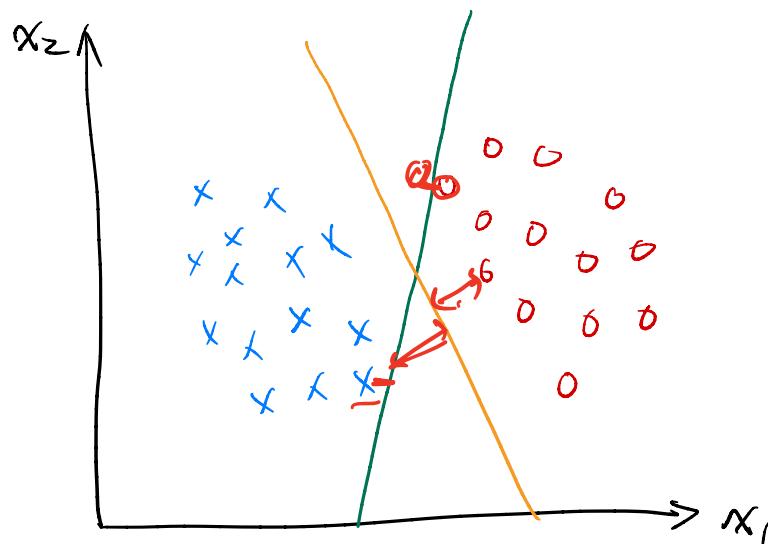
# Perceptron Loss



# Maximum-Margin Separating Hyperplane

For separable data, there are infinitely many zero-error classifiers.

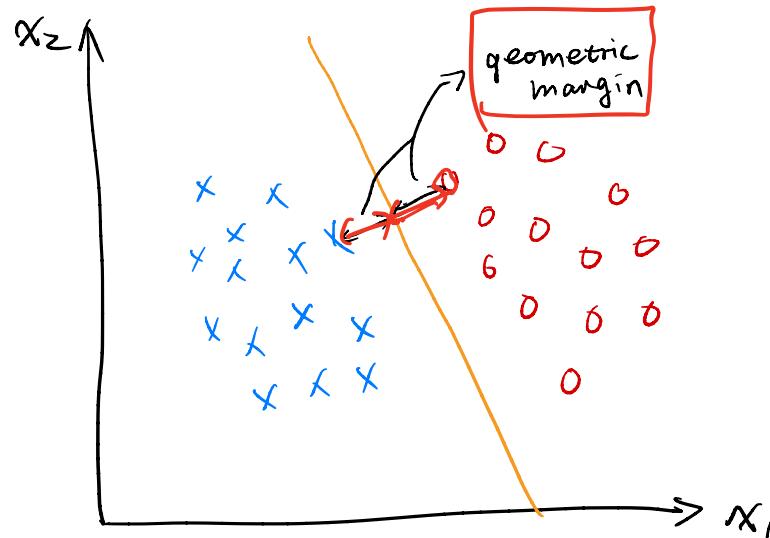
Which one do we pick?



(Perceptron does not return a unique solution.)

# Maximum-Margin Separating Hyperplane

We prefer the classifier that is farthest from both classes of points



- Geometric margin: smallest distance between the hyperplane and the points
- Maximum margin: *largest* distance to the closest points

# Geometric Margin

We want to maximize the distance between the **separating hyperplane** and the **closest** points.  
Let's formalize the problem.

## Definition (separating hyperplane)

We say  $(x_i, y_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are **linearly separable** if there is a  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $y_i(w^T x_i + b) > 0$  for all  $i$ . The set  $\{v \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid w^T v + b = 0\}$  is called a **separating hyperplane**.

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## Definition (geometric margin)

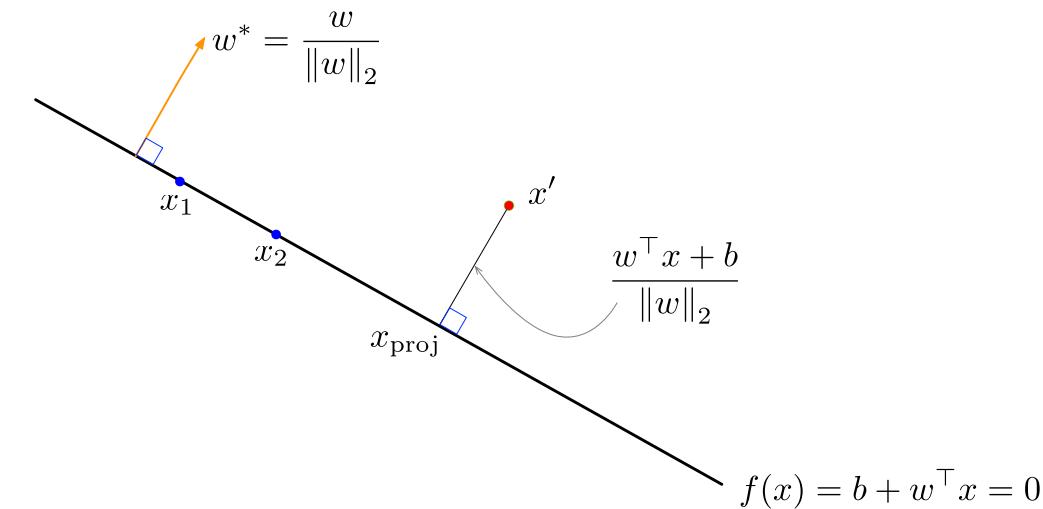
Let  $H$  be a hyperplane that separates the data  $(x_i, y_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . The **geometric margin** of this hyperplane is

$$\min_i d(x_i, H),$$

the distance from the hyperplane to the closest data point.

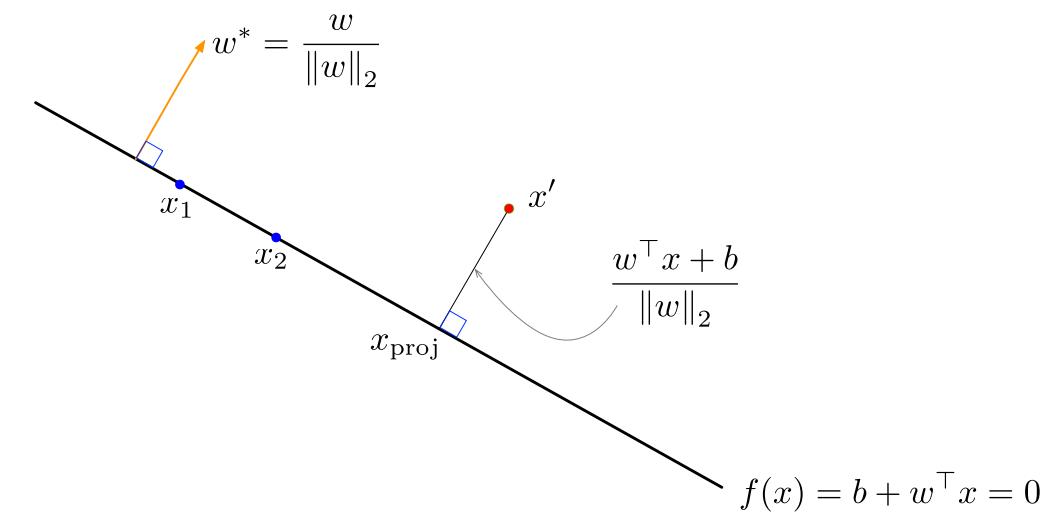
# Distance between a Point and a Hyperplane

- Any point on the plane  $p$ , and normal vector  $w/\|w\|_2$

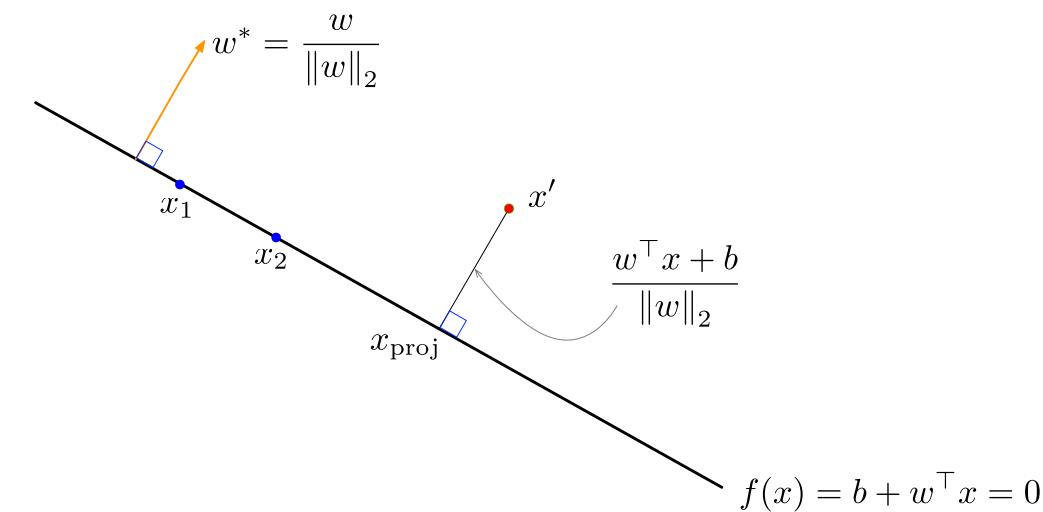


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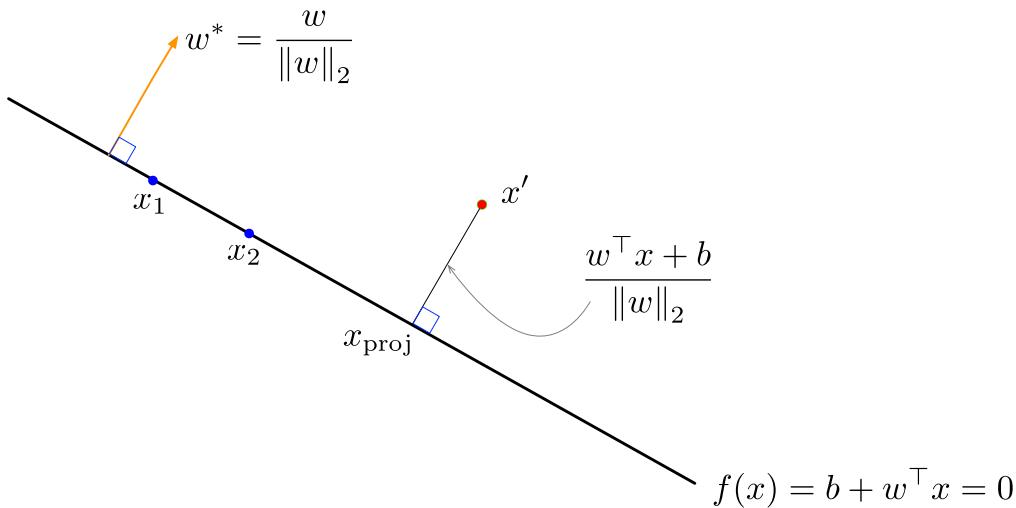


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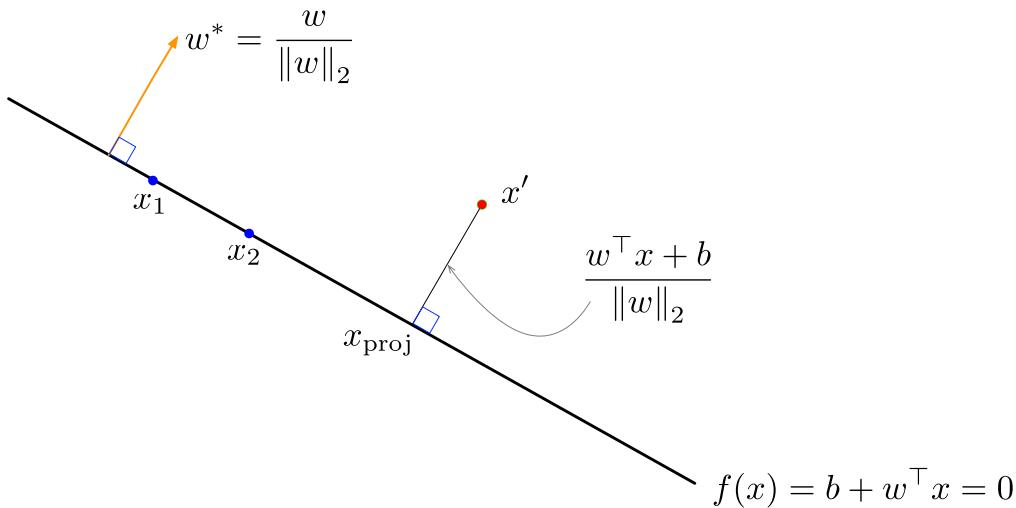
- Any point on the plane  $p$ , and normal vector  $w/\|w\|_2$
- Projection of  $x$  onto the normal:  $\frac{(x' - p)^T w}{\|w\|_2}$
- $(x' - p)^T w = x'^T w - p^T w = x'^T w + b$  (since  $p^T w + b = 0$ )

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- Signed distance between  $x'$  and Hyperplane  $H$ :  $\frac{w^T x' + b}{\|w\|_2}$
- Taking into account of the label  $y$ :  
$$d(x', H) = \frac{y(w^T x' + b)}{\|w\|_2}$$

# Maximize the Margin

We want to maximize the geometric margin:

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Let's remove the inner minimization problem by

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Note that the solution is not unique (why?).

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Let's fix the norm  $\|w\|_2$  to  $1/M$  to obtain:

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It's equivalent to solving the minimization problem

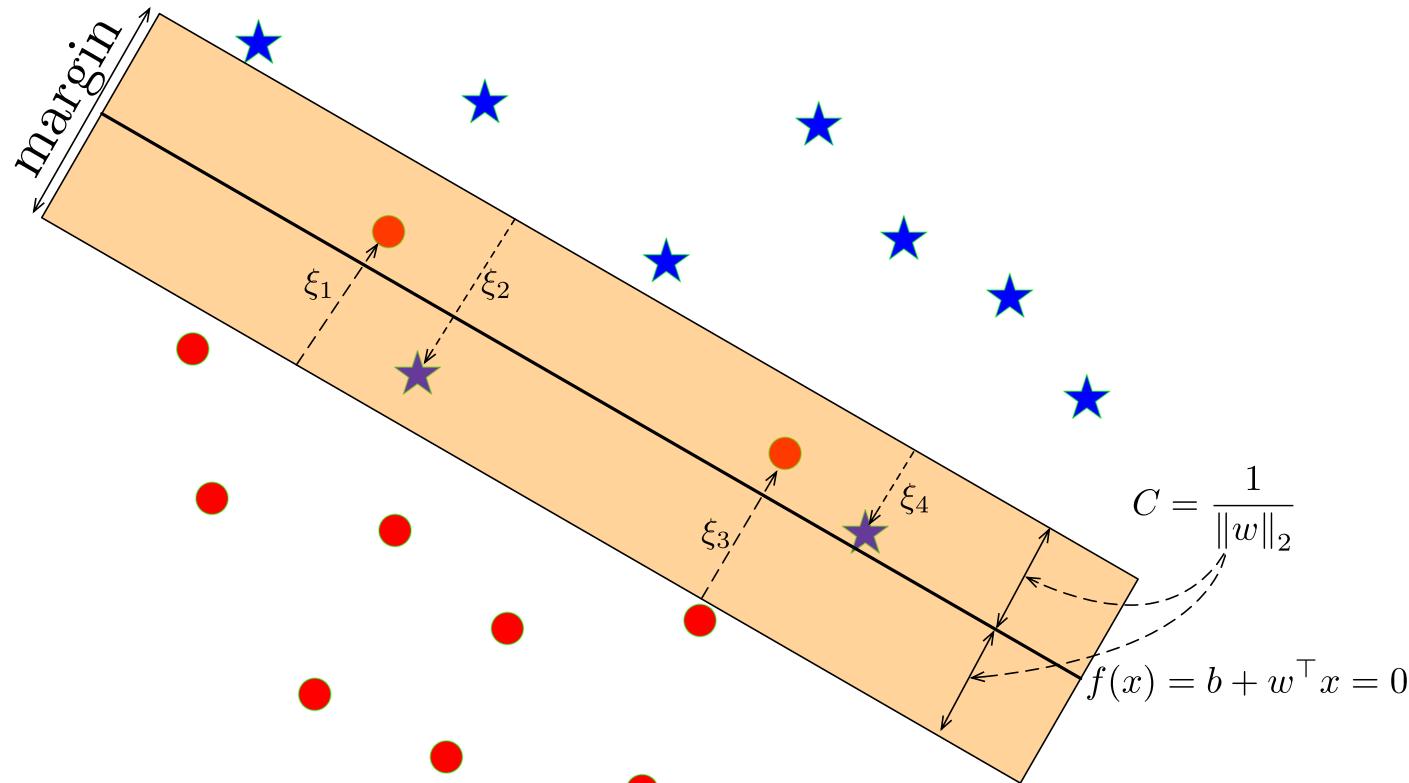
$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_2^2 \\ & \text{subject to} && y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1 \quad \text{for all } i \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $y_i(w^T x_i + b)$  is the (functional) margin. The optimization finds the minimum norm solution which has a margin of at least 1 on all examples.

# Not linearly separable

What if the data is *not* linearly separable?

For any  $w$ , there will be points with a negative margin.



# Soft Margin SVM

Introduce **slack variables**  $\xi$ 's to penalize small margin:

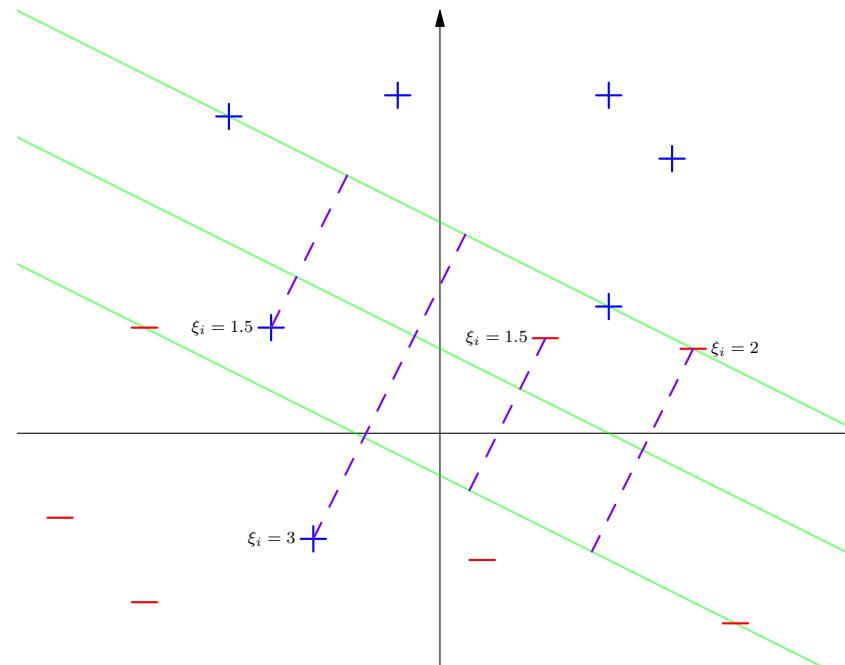
$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_2^2 + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ & \text{subject to} && y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \quad \text{for all } i \\ & && \xi_i \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i \end{aligned}$$

- If  $\xi_i = 0 \forall i$ , it's reduced to hard SVM.
- What does  $\xi_i > 0$  mean?
- What does  $C$  control?

# Slack Variables

$d(x_i, H) = \frac{y_i(w^T x_i + b)}{\|w\|_2} \geq \frac{1 - \xi_i}{\|w\|_2}$ , thus  $\xi_i$  measures the violation by multiples of the geometric margin:

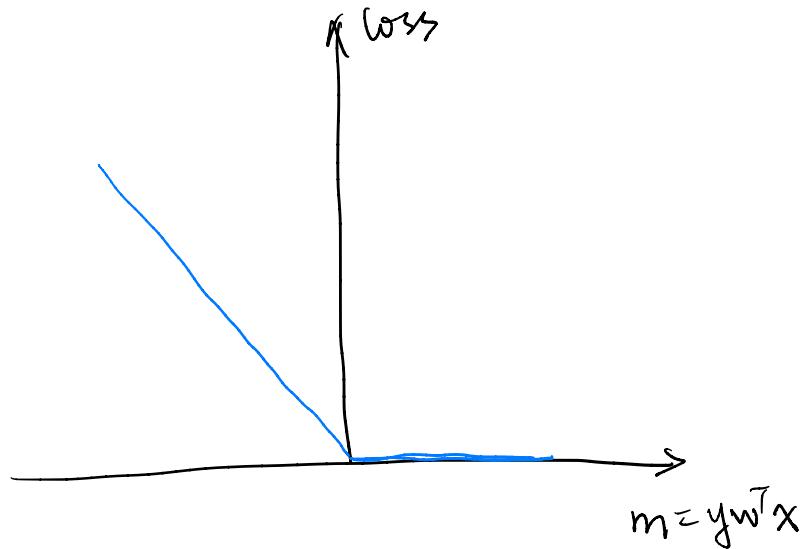
- $\xi_i = 1$ :  $x_i$  lies on the hyperplane
- $\xi_i = 3$ :  $x_i$  is past 2 margin width beyond the decision hyperplane



## Minimize the Hinge Loss

# Perceptron Loss

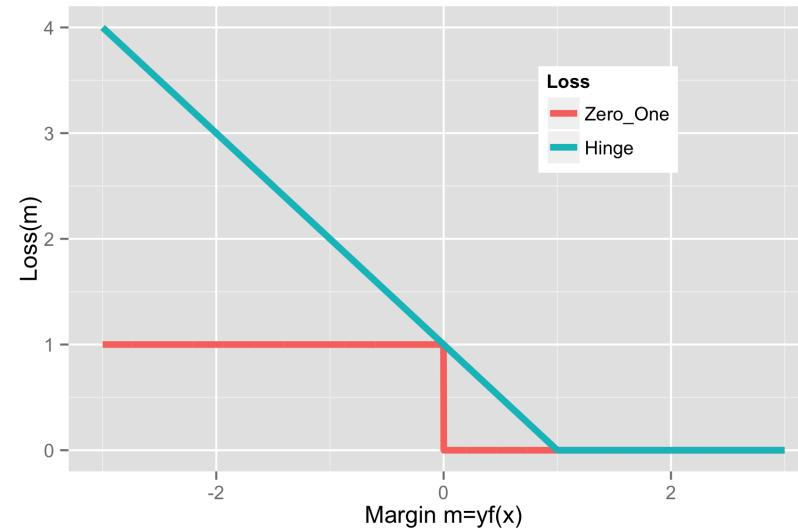
$$\ell(x, y, w) = \max(0, -yw^T x)$$



If we do ERM with this loss function, what happens?

# Hinge Loss

- SVM/Hinge loss:  $\ell_{\text{Hinge}} = \max\{1 - m, 0\} = (1 - m)_+$
- Margin  $m = yf(x)$ ; “Positive part”  $(x)_+ = x\mathbb{1}[x \geq 0]$ .



Hinge is a **convex, upper bound** on  $0 - 1$  loss. Not differentiable at  $m = 1$ . We have a “margin error” when  $m < 1$ .

# SVM as an Optimization Problem

- The SVM optimization problem is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} \text{minimize} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \xi_i \geq (1 - y_i [w^T x_i + b]) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \\ & \xi_i \geq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

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Move the constraint into the objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i [w^T x_i + b]).$$

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- The first term is the L2 regularizer.
- The second term is the Hinge loss.

# Support Vector Machine

Using ERM:

- Hypothesis space  $\mathcal{F} = \{f(x) = w^T x + b \mid w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .
- $\ell_2$  regularization (Tikhonov style)
- Hinge loss  $\ell(m) = \max\{1 - m, 0\} = (1 - m)_+$
- The SVM prediction function is the solution to

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i [w^T x_i + b]).$$

# Summary

Two ways to derive the SVM optimization problem:

- Maximize the margin
- Minimize the hinge loss with  $\ell_2$  regularization

Both leads to the minimum norm solution satisfying certain margin constraints.

- **Hard-margin SVM**: all points must be correctly classified with the margin constraints
- **Soft-margin SVM**: allow for margin constraint violation with some penalty