Controling Complexity: Feature Selection and Regularization

Mengye Ren

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Complexity of Hypothesis Spaces

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To control the "size" of \mathcal{F} , we need some measure of its complexity:

- Number of variables / features
- 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} = \{\text{all polynomial functions}\}\$
- $\mathcal{F}_d = \{\text{all polynomials of degree } \leqslant d\}$
- 2. Select one of these models based on a score (e.g. validation error)

Feature Selection in Linear Regression

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

- $\mathcal{F} = \{\text{linear functions using all features}\}\$
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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
- 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

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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.

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 ℓ_2 and ℓ_1 Regularization

An objective that balances number of features and prediction performance:

$$score(S) = training_loss(S) + \lambda |S|$$
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 λ balances the training loss and the number of features used:

- ullet Adding an extra feature must be justified by at least λ improvement in training loss
- Larger $\lambda \to \text{complex models}$ are penalized more heavily

Goal: Balance the complexity of the hypothesis space $\mathcal F$ and the training loss

Complexity measure: $\Omega: \mathcal{F} \to [0, \infty)$, e.g. number of features

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Penalized ERM (Tikhonov regularization)

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

As usual, we find λ using the validation data.

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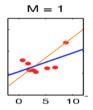
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Number of features as complexity measure is hard to optimize—other measures?

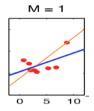
Weight Shrinkage: Intuition



• Why would we prefer a regression line with smaller slope (unless the data strongly supports a larger slope)?

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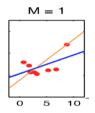
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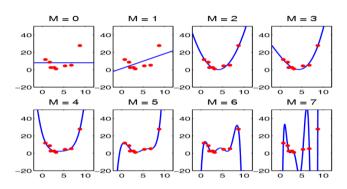
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Weight Shrinkage: Intuition



- Why would we prefer a regression line with smaller slope (unless the data strongly supports a larger slope)?
- More conservative: 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)

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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 $\hat{y} = 1000x^7 + 500x^3 + 1$

(Adapated from Mark Schmidt's slide)

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Linear Regression with ℓ_2 Regularization

We have a linear model

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

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

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

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

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Penalizes large weights:

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

where $||w||_2^2 = w_1^2 + \cdots + w_d^2$ is the square of the ℓ_2 -norm.

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- Equivalent to linear least square regression when $\lambda = 0$.
- ℓ_2 regularization can be used for other models too (e.g. neural networks).

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 ℓ_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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- Proof:

$$\begin{split} \left| \hat{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) \right| &= \left| \hat{w}^T (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \hat{w}^T \mathbf{x} \right| = \left| \hat{w}^T \mathbf{h} \right| \\ &\leqslant \|\hat{w}\|_2 \|\mathbf{h}\|_2 \quad \text{(Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)} \end{split}$$

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

Linear Regression vs. Ridge Regression

Objective:

- Linear: $L(w) = \frac{1}{2} ||Xw y||_2^2$
- Ridge: $L(w) = \frac{1}{2} ||Xw y||_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||w||_2^2$

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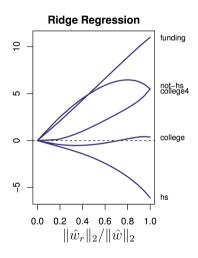
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Closed-form solution:

- Linear: $X^T X w = X^T y$
- Ridge: $(X^TX + \lambda I)w = X^Ty$
 - $(X^TX + \lambda I)$ is always invertible

Ridge Regression: Regularization Path



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

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

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

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

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Lasso Regression

Penalize the ℓ_1 norm of the weights:

Lasso Regression (Tikhonov Form, soft penalty)

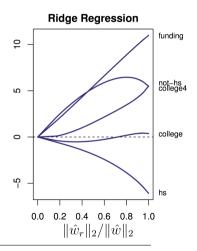
$$\hat{w} = \arg\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ w^T x_i - y_i \right\}^2 + \lambda ||w||_1,$$

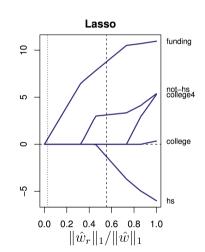
where $||w||_1 = |w_1| + \cdots + |w_d|$ is the ℓ_1 -norm.

("Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator")

Ridge vs. Lasso: Regularization Paths

Lasso yields sparse weights:





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- Interpretability: identifies the important features
- Prediction function may generalize better (model is less complex)

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Why does ℓ_1 Regularization Lead to Sparsity?

Regularization as Constrained Empirical Risk Minimization

Constrained ERM (Ivanov regularization)

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

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

Lasso Regression (Ivanov Form, hard constraint)

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

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

r has the same role as λ in penalized ERM (Tikhonov).

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- The conditions for this equivalence can be derived from Lagrangian duality theory.
- In practice, both approaches are effective: we will use whichever one is more convenient for training or analysis.

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The ℓ_1 and ℓ_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 $(w_1, w_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.
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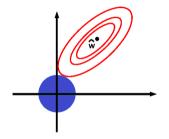
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• Where are the sparse solutions?

Visualizing Regularization

• $f_r^* = \operatorname{arg\,min}_{w \in \mathbb{R}^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$ subject to $w_1^2 + w_2^2 \leqslant r$

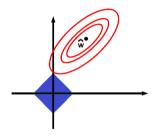


- Blue region: Area satisfying complexity constraint: $w_1^2 + w_2^2 \leqslant r$
- Red lines: contours of the empirical risk $\hat{R}_n(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i y_i)^2$.

KPM Fig. 13.3

Why Does ℓ_1 Regularization Encourage Sparse Solutions?

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- ℓ_1 solution tends to touch the corners.

KPM Fig. 13.3

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Why Does ℓ_1 Regularization Encourage Sparse Solutions?

Geometric intuition: Projection onto diamond encourages solutions at corners.

• \hat{w} in red/green regions are closest to corners in the ℓ_1 "ball".

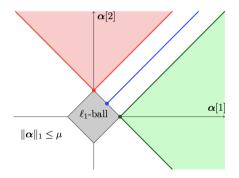


Fig from Mairal et al.'s Sparse Modeling for Image and Vision Processing Fig 1.6

Why Does ℓ_1 Regularization Encourage Sparse Solutions?

Geometric intuition: Projection onto ℓ_2 sphere favors all directions equally.

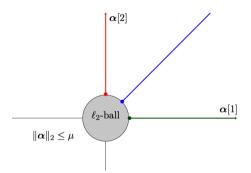


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Why does ℓ_2 Encourage Sparsity? Optimization Perspective

For ℓ_2 regularization,

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For ℓ_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

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

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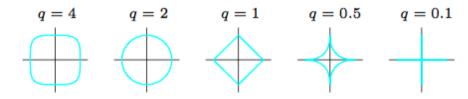
$$\Rightarrow$$

$$q = 0.5$$
 $q = 0.1$



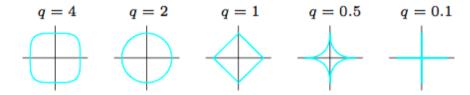
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• We can generalize to ℓ_q : $(\|w\|_q)^q = |w_1|^q + |w_2|^q$.



• Note: $\|w\|_q$ is only a norm if $q \geqslant 1$, but not for $q \in (0,1)$

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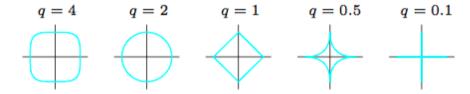


- Note: $||w||_q$ is only a norm if $q \ge 1$, but not for $q \in (0,1)$
- ullet When q<1, the ℓ_q constraint is non-convex, so it is hard to optimize; lasso is good enough in practice

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Regularization

• We can generalize to ℓ_a : $(\|w\|_a)^q = |w_1|^q + |w_2|^q$.



- Note: $||w||_q$ is only a norm if $q \ge 1$, but not for $q \in (0,1)$
- When q < 1, the ℓ_q constraint is non-convex, so it is hard to optimize; lasso is good enough in practice
- ℓ_0 ($||w||_0$) is defined as the number of non-zero weights, i.e. subset selection

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Minimizing the lasso objective

Minimizing the lasso objective

- The ridge regression objective is differentiable (and there is a closed form solution)
- Lasso objective function:

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

• $||w||_1 = |w_1| + \ldots + |w_d|$ is not differentiable!

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- $||w||_1 = |w_1| + \ldots + |w_d|$ is not differentiable!
- We will briefly review three approaches for finding the minimum:
 - Quadratic programming
 - Projected SGD
 - Coordinate descent

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- Consider any number $a \in R$.
- Let the **positive part** of a be

$$a^+ = a1(a \geqslant 0).$$

• Let the **negative part** of a be

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- How do you write a in terms of a^+ and a^- ?
- How do you write |a| in terms of a^+ and a^- ?

The Lasso as a Quadratic Program

Substituting $w = w^+ - w^-$ and $|w| = w^+ + w^-$ results in an equivalent problem:

$$\min_{w^+,w^-} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(w^+ - w^- \right)^T x_i - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda 1^T \left(w^+ + w^- \right)$$
subject to $w_i^+ \geqslant 0$ for all i and $w_i^- \geqslant 0$ for all i ,

- This objective is differentiable (in fact, convex and quadratic)
- How many variables does the new objective have?
- This is a quadratic program: a convex quadratic objective with linear constraints.
- Quadratic programming is a very well understood problem; we can plug this into a generic QP solver.

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Are we missing some constraints?

We have claimed that the following objective is equivalent to the lasso problem:

$$\min_{w^+,w^-} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(w^+ - w^- \right)^T x_i - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda \mathbf{1}^T \left(w^+ + w^- \right)$$
subject to $w_i^+ \geqslant 0$ for all i $w_i^- \geqslant 0$ for all i ,

- When we plug this optimization problem into a QP solver,
 - it just sees 2d variables and 2d constraints.
 - Doesn't know we want w_i^+ and w_i^- to be positive and negative parts of w_i .
- Turns out that these constraints will be satisfied anyway!
- To make it clear that the solver isn't aware of the constraints of w_i^+ and w_i^- , let's denote them a_i and b_i

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The Lasso as a Quadratic Program

(Trivially) reformulating the lasso problem:

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$$\min_{w} \min_{a,b} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left((a-b)^{T} x_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2} + \lambda 1^{T} (a+b)$$
subject to $a_{i} \geqslant 0$ for all i $b_{i} \geqslant 0$ for all i ,
$$a - b = w$$

$$a + b = |w|$$

Claim: Don't need the constraint a + b = |w|.

Exercise: Prove by showing that the optimal solutions a^* and b^* satisfies $\min(a^*, b^*) = 0$, hence $a^* + b^* = |w|$.

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The Lasso as a Quadratic Program

$$\min_{w} \min_{a,b} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left((a-b)^{T} x_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2} + \lambda \mathbf{1}^{T} (a+b)$$
 subject to $a_{i} \geqslant 0$ for all i , $b_{i} \geqslant 0$ for all i , $a-b=w$

Claim: Can remove min_w and the constraint a - b = w.

Exercise: Prove by switching the order of the minimization.

- Now that we have a differentiable objective, we could also use gradient descent
- But how do we handle the constraints?

$$\min_{\substack{w^+,w^- \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ w^+ \neq 0}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(w^+ - w^- \right)^T x_i - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda \mathbf{1}^T \left(w^+ + w^- \right)$$
 subject to $w_i^+ \geqslant 0$ for all i $w_i^- \geqslant 0$ for all i

- Projected SGD is just like SGD, but after each step
 - We project w^+ and w^- into the constraint set.
 - In other words, if any component of w^+ or w^- becomes negative, we set it back to 0.

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Coordinate Descent Method

Goal: Minimize $L(w) = L(w_1, ..., w_d)$ over $w = (w_1, ..., w_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

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Goal: Minimize
$$L(w) = L(w_1, ..., w_d)$$
 over $w = (w_1, ..., w_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

- In gradient descent or SGD, each step potentially changes all entries of w.
- In coordinate descent, each step adjusts only a single coordinate w_i .

$$w_i^{\text{new}} = \arg\min_{w_i} L(w_1, \dots, w_{i-1}, w_i, w_{i+1}, \dots, w_d)$$

- Solving the argmin for a particular coordinate may itself be an iterative process.
- Coordinate descent is an effective method when it's easy (or easier) to minimize w.r.t. one coordinate at a time

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Goal: Minimize
$$L(w) = L(w_1, \dots w_d)$$
 over $w = (w_1, \dots, w_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

- Initialize $w^{(0)} = 0$
- while not converged:
 - Choose a coordinate $j \in \{1, \ldots, d\}$
 - $w_j^{\text{new}} \leftarrow \arg\min_{w_j} L(w_1^{(t)}, \dots, w_{j-1}^{(t)}, w_j, w_{j+1}^{(t)}, \dots, w_d^{(t)})$
 - $w_j^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_j^{\text{new}}$ and $w^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w^{(t)}$
 - $t \leftarrow t + 1$
- Random coordinate choice \implies stochastic coordinate descent
- Cyclic coordinate choice \implies cyclic coordinate descent

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Coordinate Descent Method for Lasso

The lasso objective coordinate minimization has a closed form! If

$$\hat{w}_j = \underset{w_j \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(w^T x_i - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda |w|_1$$

Then

$$\hat{w}_j = egin{cases} (c_j + \lambda)/a_j & \text{if } c_j < -\lambda \ 0 & \text{if } c_j \in [-\lambda, \lambda] \ (c_j - \lambda)/a_j & \text{if } c_j > \lambda \end{cases}$$

$$a_j = 2\sum_{i=1}^n x_{i,j}^2$$
 $c_j = 2\sum_{i=1}^n x_{i,j}(y_i - w_{-j}^T x_{i,-j})$

where w_{-j} is w without the j-th component, and $x_{i,-j}$ is x_i without the j-th component.

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• In general, coordinate descent is not competitive with gradient descent: its convergence rate is slower and the iteration cost is similar

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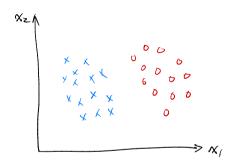
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- In general, coordinate descent is not competitive with gradient descent: its convergence rate is slower and the iteration cost is similar
- But it works very well for certain problems
- Very simple and easy to implement
- Example applications: lasso regression, SVMs

Maximum Margin Classifier

Linearly Separable Data

Consider a linearly separable dataset \mathfrak{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 $y_i = -1$

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The Perceptron Algorithm

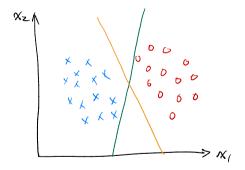
- Initialize $w \leftarrow 0$
- While not converged (exists misclassified examples)
 - For $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}$
 - If $y_i w^T x_i < 0$ (wrong prediction)
 - Update $w \leftarrow w + y_i x_i$
- Intuition: move towards misclassified positive examples and away from negative examples
- Guarantees to find a zero-error classifier (if one exists) in finite steps
- What is the loss function if we consider this as a SGD algorithm?

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Maximum-Margin Separating Hyperplane

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

Which one do we pick?

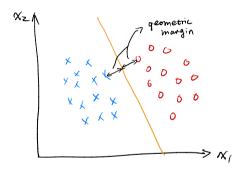


(Perceptron does not return a unique solution.)

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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

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

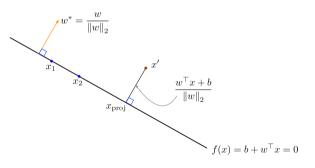
Definition (geometric margin)

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

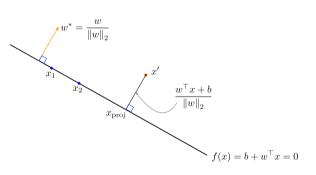
$$\min_{i} d(x_i, H),$$

the distance from the hyperplane to the closest data point.

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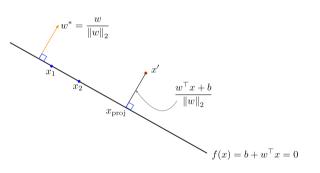


• Any point on the plane p, and normal vector $w/||w||_2$



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

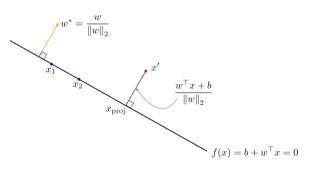
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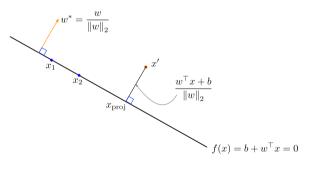
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• $(x'-p)^T w = x'^T w - p^T w = x'^T w + b$ (since $p^T w + b = 0$)



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- Signed distance between x' and Hyperplane H: $\frac{w^Tx'+b}{\|w\|_2}$



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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: $d(x', H) = \frac{y(w^Tx' + b)}{\|w\|_{2}}$

We want to maximize the geometric margin:

maximize $\min_{i} d(x_i, H)$.

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Given separating hyperplane
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Let's remove the inner minimization problem by

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{maximize} & M \\ \text{subject to} & \frac{y_i(w^Tx_i+b)}{\|w\|_2} \geqslant M \quad \text{for all } i \end{array}$$

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.

Let's remove the inner minimization problem by

maximize
$$M$$

subject to $\frac{y_i(w^Tx_i+b)}{\|w\|_2} \geqslant M$ for all i

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

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

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maximize
$$\frac{1}{\|w\|_2}$$

subject to $y_i(w^Tx_i+b)\geqslant 1$ for all i

It's equivalent to solving the minimization problem

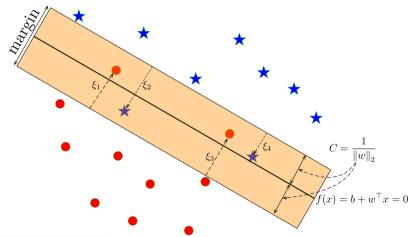
Note that $y_i(w^Tx_i + b)$ is the (functional) margin. The optimization finds the minimum norm solution which has a margin of at least 1 on all examples.

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Not linearly separable

What if the data is not linearly separable?

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



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Introduce slack variables ξ 's to penalize small margin:

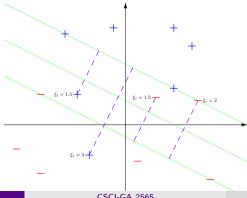
$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_2^2 + \frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ \text{subject to} & y_i (w^T x_i + b) \geqslant 1 - \xi_i \quad \text{for all } i \\ & \xi_i \geqslant 0 \quad \text{for all } i \end{array}$$

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

Slack Variables

 $d(x_i, H) = \frac{y_i(w^T x_i + b)}{\|w\|_2} \geqslant \frac{1 - \xi_i}{\|w\|_2}$, thus ξ_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

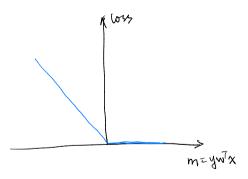


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Minimize the Hinge Loss

Perceptron Loss

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

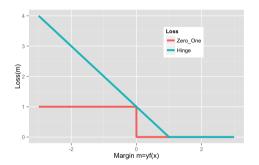


If we do ERM with this loss function, what happens?

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Hinge Loss

- SVM/Hinge loss: $\ell_{\text{Hinge}} = \max\{1-m, 0\} = (1-m)_{+}$
- Margin m = yf(x); "Positive part" $(x)_+ = x1(x \ge 0)$.



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

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• The SVM optimization problem is equivalent to

minimize
$$\frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + \frac{c}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$
subject to
$$\xi_i \geqslant \left(1 - y_i \left[w^T x_i + b\right]\right) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n$$
$$\xi_i \geqslant 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n$$

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which is equivalent to

minimize
$$\frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + \frac{c}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$
subject to
$$\xi_i \geqslant \max\left(0, 1 - y_i \left[w^T x_i + b\right]\right) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

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minimize
$$\frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + \frac{c}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

subject to
$$\xi_i \geqslant \max\left(0, 1 - y_i \left[w^T x_i + b\right]\right) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

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minimize
$$\frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + \frac{c}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

subject to
$$\xi_i \geqslant \max\left(0, 1 - y_i \left[w^T x_i + b\right]\right) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

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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minimize
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Move the constraint into the objective:

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

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

Using ERM:

- Hypothesis space $\mathcal{F} = \{ f(x) = w^T x + b \mid w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R} \}.$
- ℓ_2 regularization (Tikhonov style)
- Hinge loss $\ell(m) = \max\{1-m, 0\} = (1-m)_+$
- The SVM prediction function is the solution to

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

Not differentiable because of the max

Summary

Two ways to derive the SVM optimization problem:

- Maximize the margin
- Minimize the hinge loss with ℓ_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

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