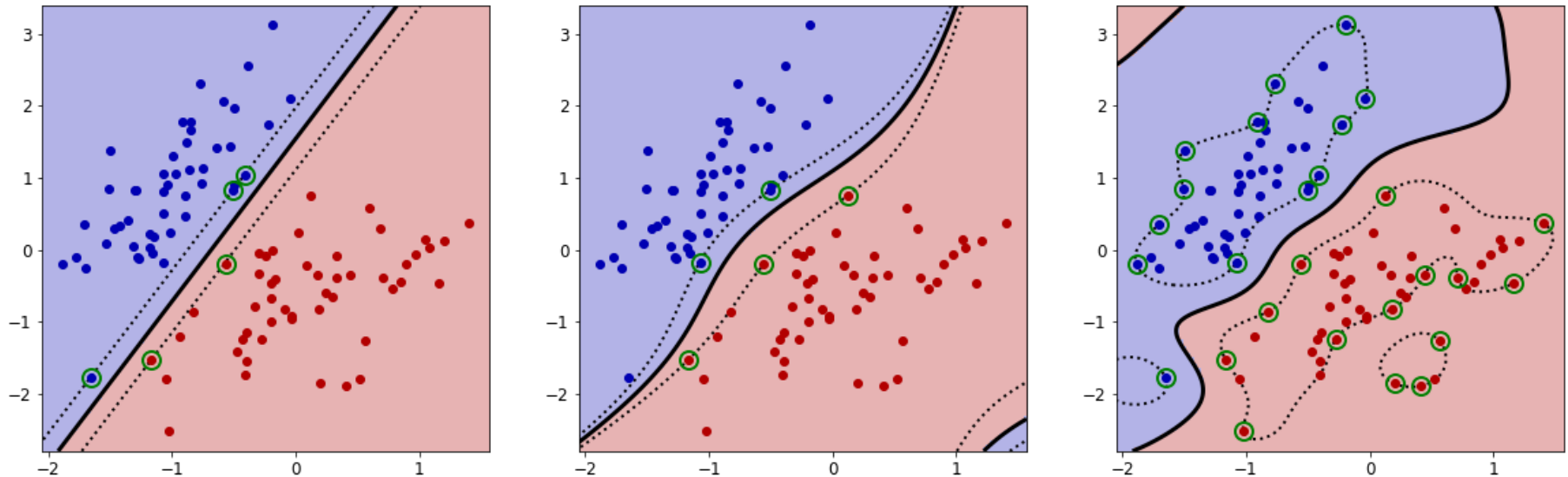


CS178: Support Vector Machines



Prof. Alexander Ihler
Fall 2023

Support Vector Machines

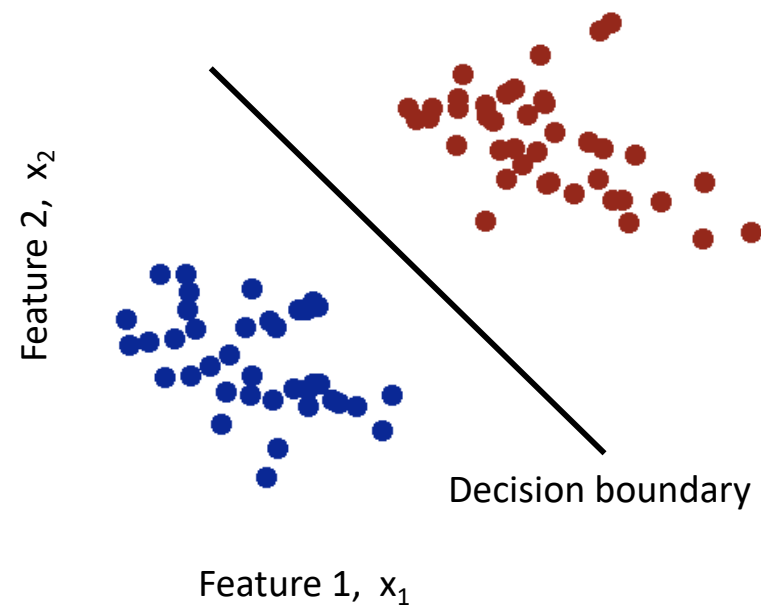
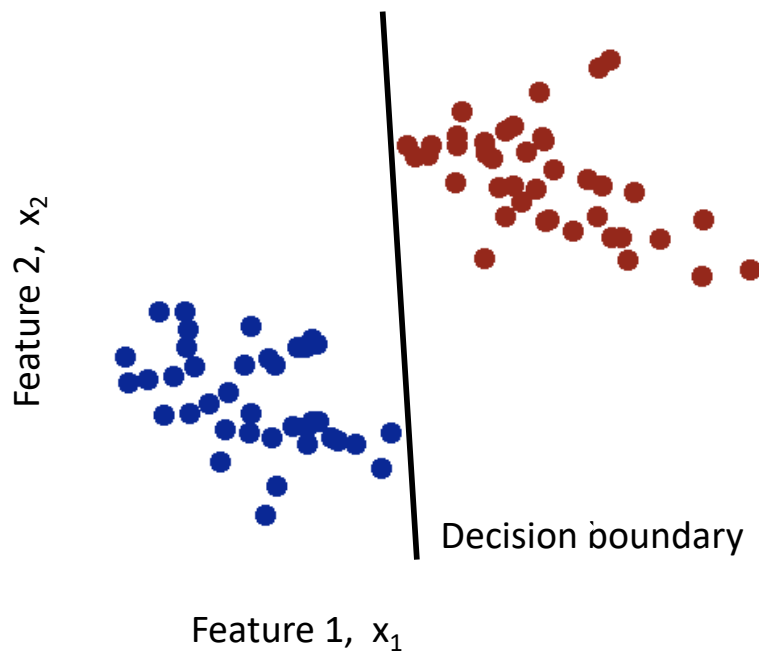
Large Margin Learning

Lagrangian and Dual Forms

The Kernel Trick

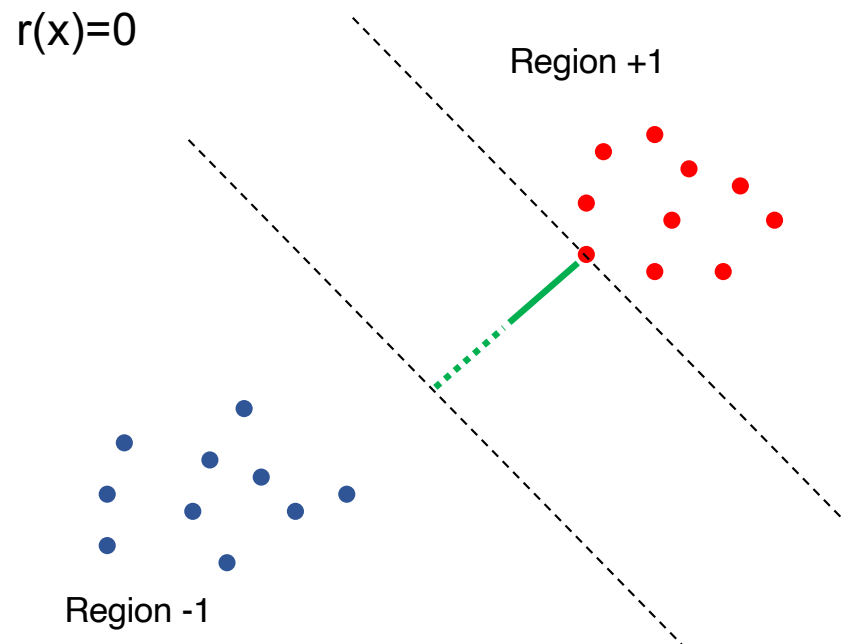
Linear classifiers

- Which decision boundary is “better”?
 - Both have zero training error (perfect training accuracy)
 - But, one of them seems intuitively better...
- How can we quantify “better”,
and learn the “best” parameter settings?



One possible answer...

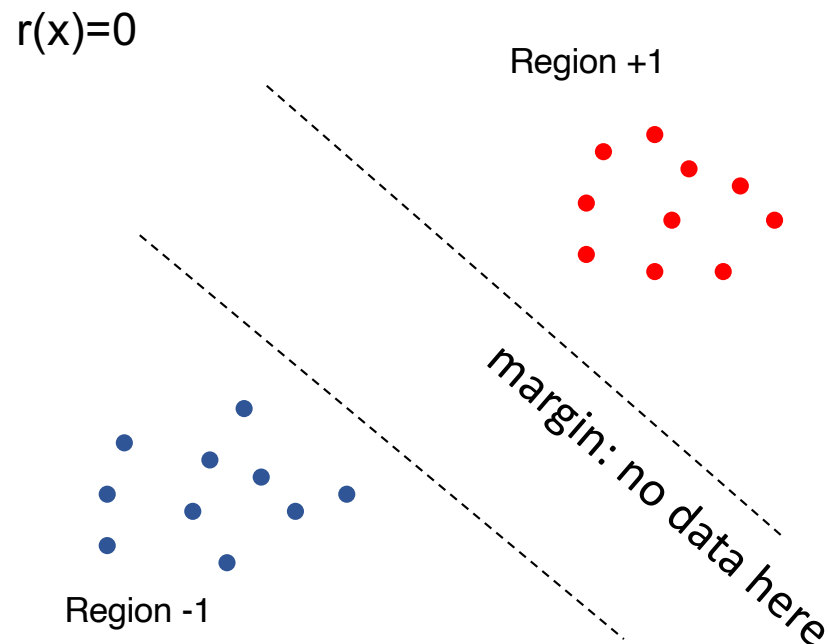
- Maybe we want to maximize our “margin”
 - How far away is the closest data point? (x 2)
- We could try to optimize this...
 - Move away from the closest point(s)
 - Notice: depends only on the closest data!
 - But – it will be easier to optimize if we do some math first...



“Support vectors” – data points on margin

One possible answer...

- Maybe we want to maximize our “margin”
- Let’s relate “margin” to the model parameters
 - Define an equivalent optimization problem to the previous one
- Remove the “scale invariance”
 - Define class +1 in some region, class -1 in another
 - Call region in between the “margin”



“Support vectors” – data points on margin

One possible answer...

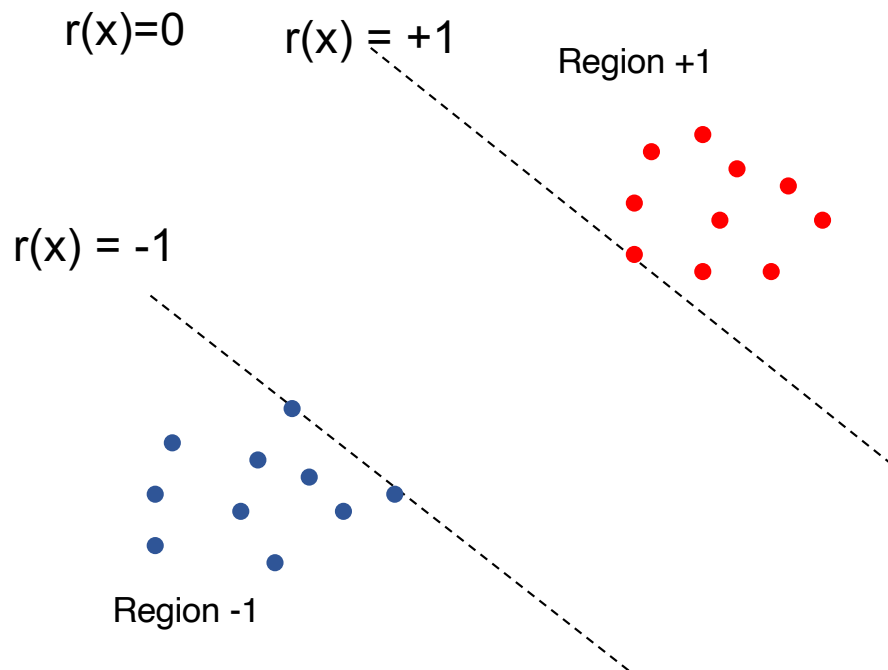
- Maybe we want to maximize our “margin”
- Let’s relate “margin” to the model parameters
 - Define an equivalent optimization problem to the previous one
- Remove the “scale invariance”
 - Define class +1 in some region, class -1 in another
 - Call region in between the “margin” – then, make it as **wide as possible**

Notation change!

$$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots$$



$$b + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \dots$$



We could define such a function:

$$r(x) = w * x^T + b$$

$$r(x) > +1 \text{ in region } +1$$

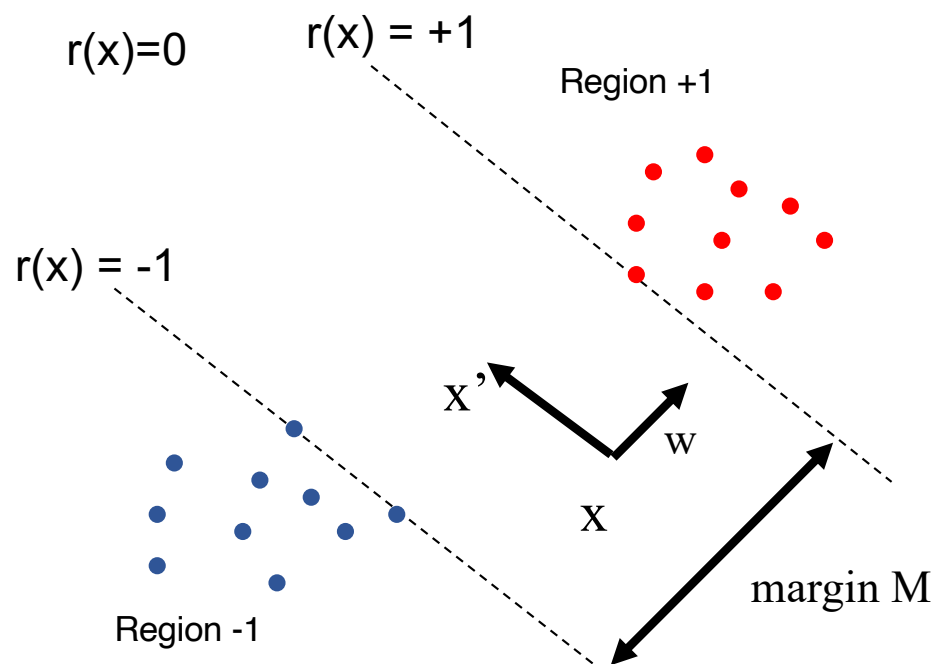
$$r(x) < -1 \text{ in region } -1$$

Passes through zero in center...

“Support vectors” – data points on margin

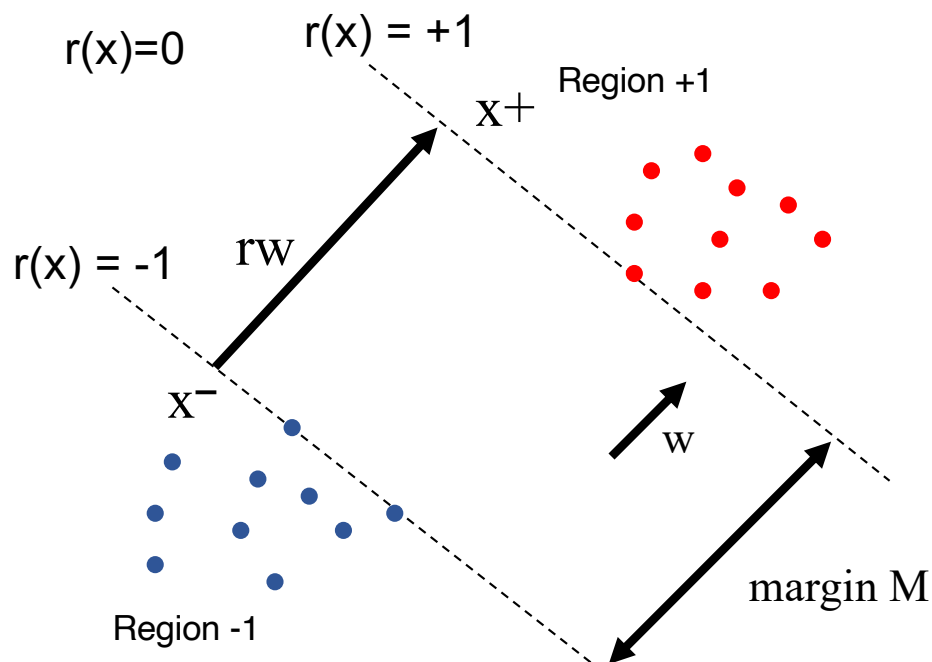
Computing the margin width

- Vector $\underline{w}=[w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots]$ is perpendicular to the boundaries (why?)
- $w \cdot x + b = 0$ & $w \cdot x' + b = 0 \Rightarrow w \cdot (x' - x) = 0$: orthogonal



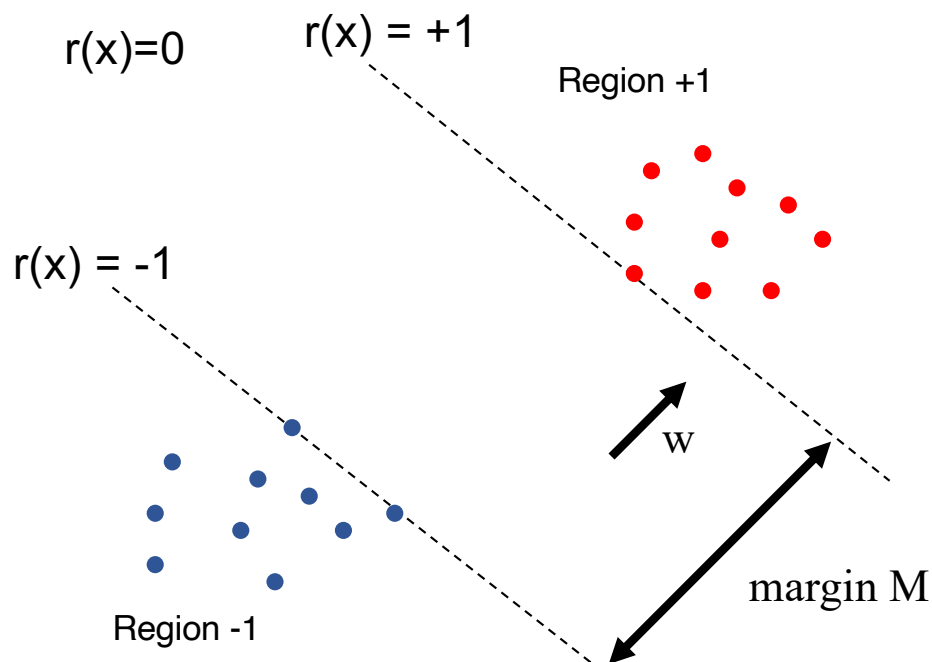
Computing the margin width

- Vector $\underline{w} = [w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots]$ is perpendicular to the boundaries
- Choose \underline{x}^- st $f(\underline{x}^-) = -1$; let \underline{x}^+ be the closest point with $f(\underline{x}^+) = +1$
 - $\underline{x}^+ = \underline{x}^- + r * \underline{w}$ (why?)
- Closest two points on the margin also satisfy
$$w \cdot x^- + b = -1 \qquad w \cdot x^+ + b = +1$$



Computing the margin width

- Vector $\underline{w}=[w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots]$ is perpendicular to the boundaries
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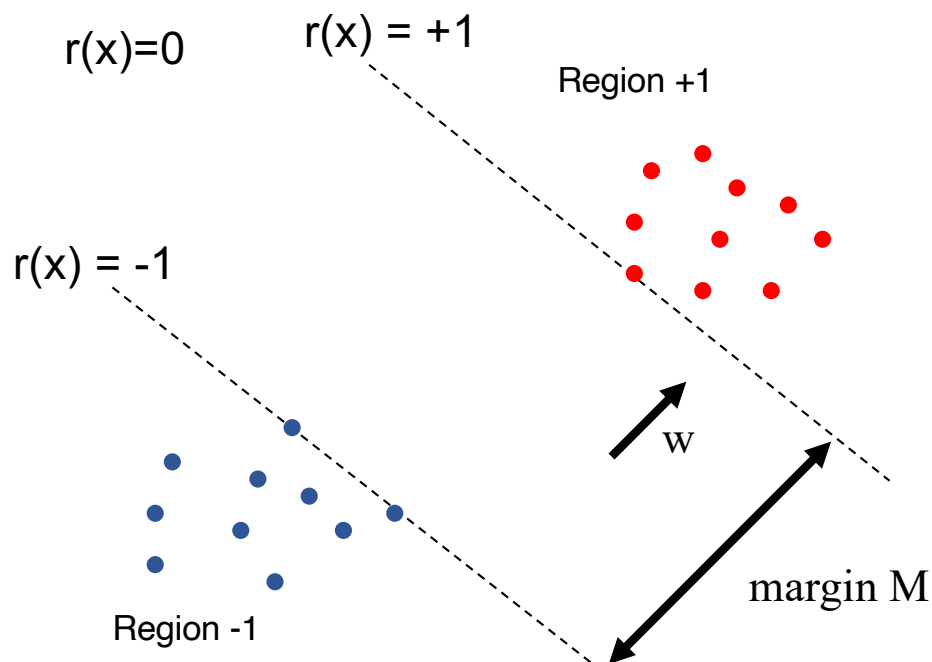
$$\begin{aligned} w \cdot (x^- + rw) + b &= +1 \\ \Rightarrow r\|w\|^2 + w \cdot x^- + b &= +1 \\ \Rightarrow r\|w\|^2 - 1 &= +1 \\ \Rightarrow r &= \frac{2}{\|w\|^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \|x^+ - x^-\| = \|rw\| \\ &= \frac{2}{\|w\|^2} \|w\| = \frac{2}{\sqrt{w^T w}} \end{aligned}$$

Maximum margin classifier

- Constrained optimization
 - Get all data points correct
 - Maximize the margin

This is an example of a **quadratic program**:
quadratic cost function, linear constraints



$$w^* = \arg \max_w \frac{2}{\sqrt{w^T w}}$$

such that: “all data on the correct side of the margin”

Primal problem:

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \sum_j w_j^2$$

s.t.

$$y^{(i)} = +1 \Rightarrow w \cdot x^{(i)} + b \geq +1$$

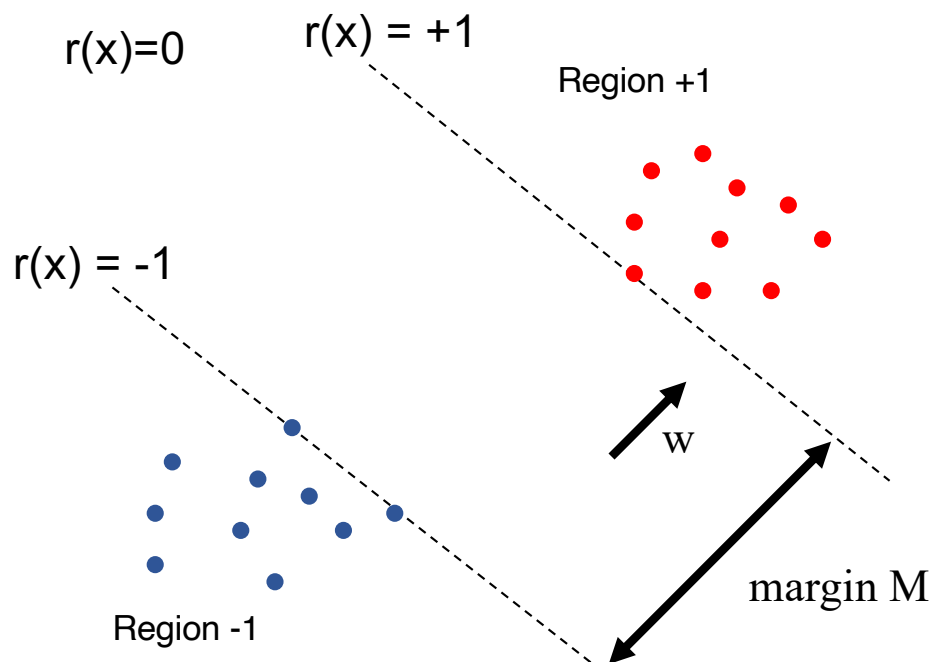
$$y^{(i)} = -1 \Rightarrow w \cdot x^{(i)} + b \leq -1$$

(m constraints)

Maximum margin classifier

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 - Get all data points correct
 - Maximize the margin

This is an example of a **quadratic program**:
quadratic cost function, linear constraints



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(m constraints)

A 1D Example

- Suppose we have three data points

$$x = -3, y = -1$$

$$x = -1, y = -1$$

$$x = 2, y = 1$$

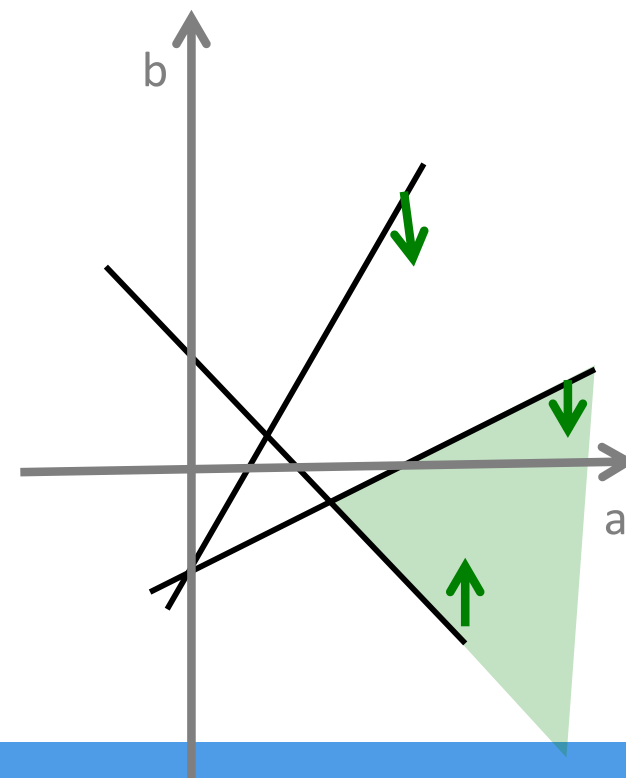
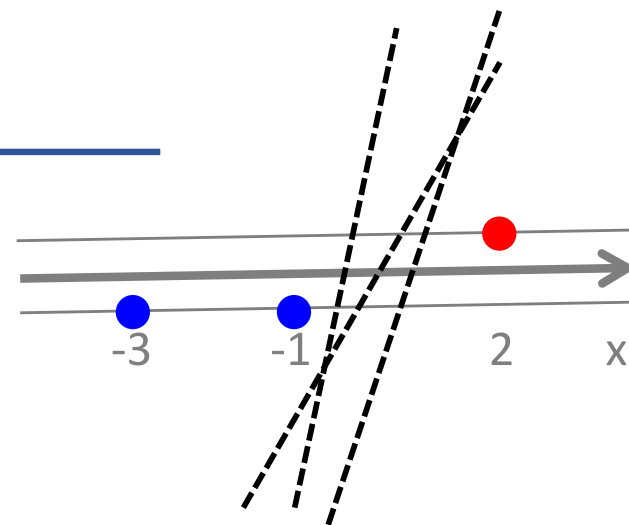
- Many separating perceptrons, $T[ax+b]$
 - Anything with $ax+b = 0$ between $x=-1$ and $x=2$

- We can write the margin constraints

$$a(-3) + b < -1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b < 3a - 1$$

$$a(-1) + b < -1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b < a - 1$$

$$a(2) + b > +1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b > -2a + 1$$



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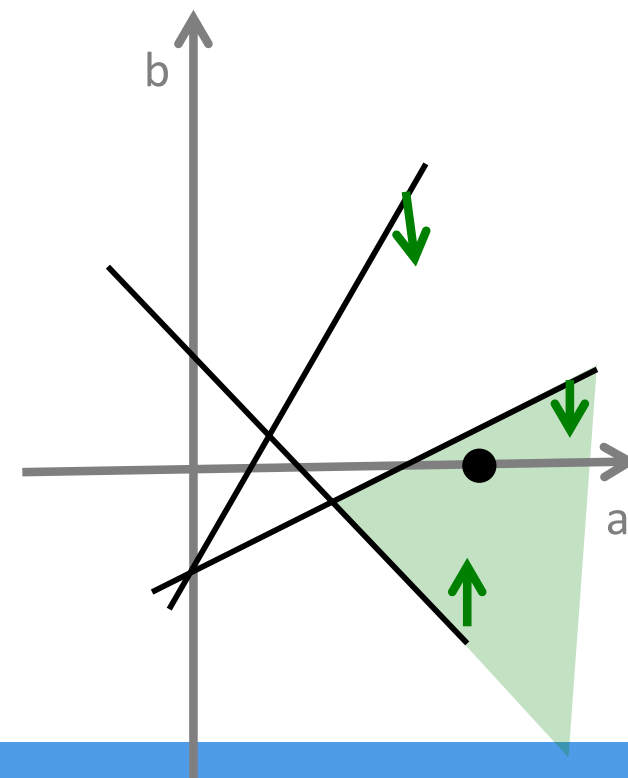
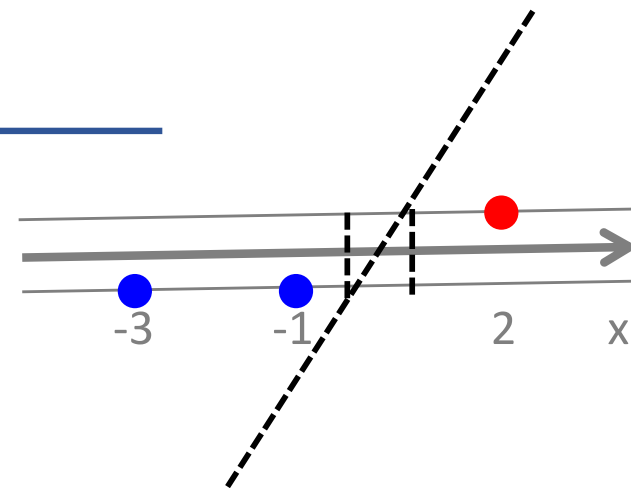
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- Ex: $a = 2, b = 0$



A 1D Example

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$$x = -3, y = -1$$

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$$x = 2, y = 1$$

- Many separating perceptrons, $T[ax+b]$
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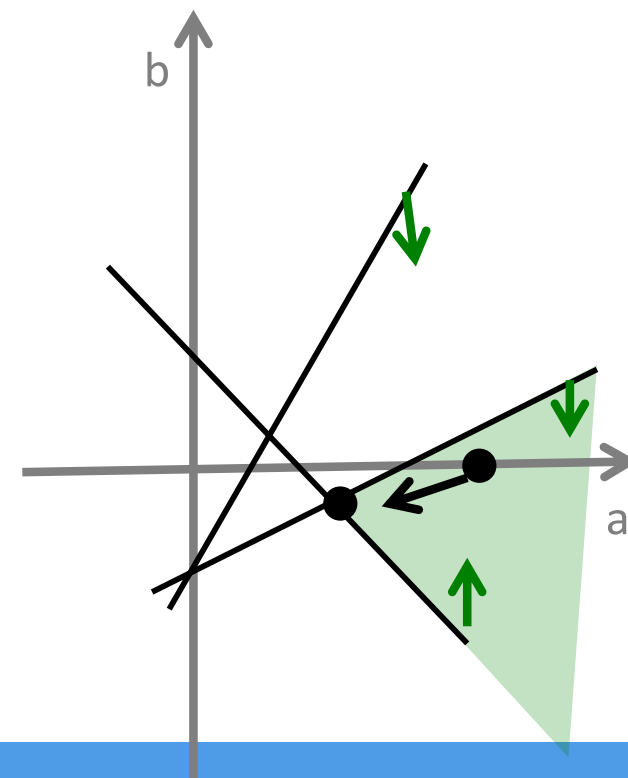
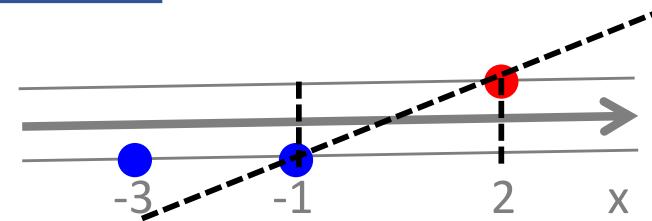
$$a(-1) + b < -1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b < a - 1$$

$$a(2) + b > +1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b > -2a + 1$$

- Ex: $a = 2, b = 0$

- Minimize $\|a\| \Rightarrow a = .66, b = -.33$

- Two data on the margin; constraints “tight”



Support Vector Machines

Large Margin Learning

Lagrangian and Dual Forms

The Kernel Trick

Lagrangian optimization

- Want to optimize constrained system:

$$\theta = (w, b)$$

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w, b} \underbrace{\sum_j w_j^2}_{f(\theta)} \quad s.t. \quad \underbrace{1 - y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)}_{g_i(\theta) \leq 0} \leq 0$$

- Introduce Lagrange multipliers α (one per constraint)

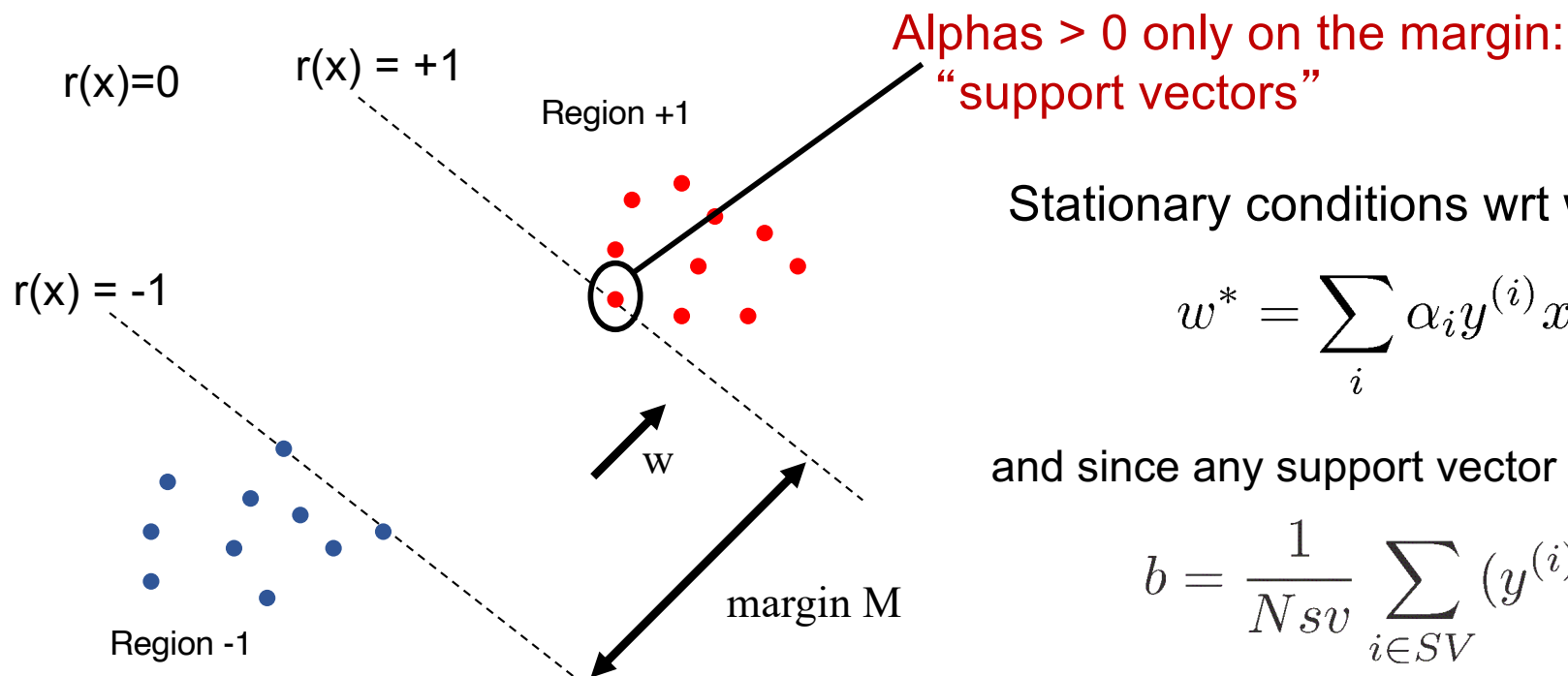
$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \max_{\alpha \geq 0} \underbrace{f(\theta)}_{\text{red}} + \sum_i \alpha_i \underbrace{g_i(\theta)}_{\text{blue}}$$

- Can optimize θ, α jointly over a simpler constraint set (initialization easy)
- For inner max:
 $g_i(\theta) \leq 0 : \alpha_i = 0$
 $g_i(\theta) > 0 : \alpha_i \rightarrow +\infty$
- Any optimum of the original problem is a saddle point of the new
- KKT complementary slackness: $\alpha_i > 0 \Rightarrow g_i(\theta) = 0$

Optimization

- Use Lagrange multipliers
 - Enforce inequality constraints

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \max_{\alpha \geq 0} \frac{1}{2} \sum_j w_j^2 + \sum_i \alpha_i (1 - y^{(i)} (w \cdot x^{(i)} + b))$$



Stationary conditions wrt w :

$$w^* = \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)}$$

and since any support vector has $y = wx + b$,

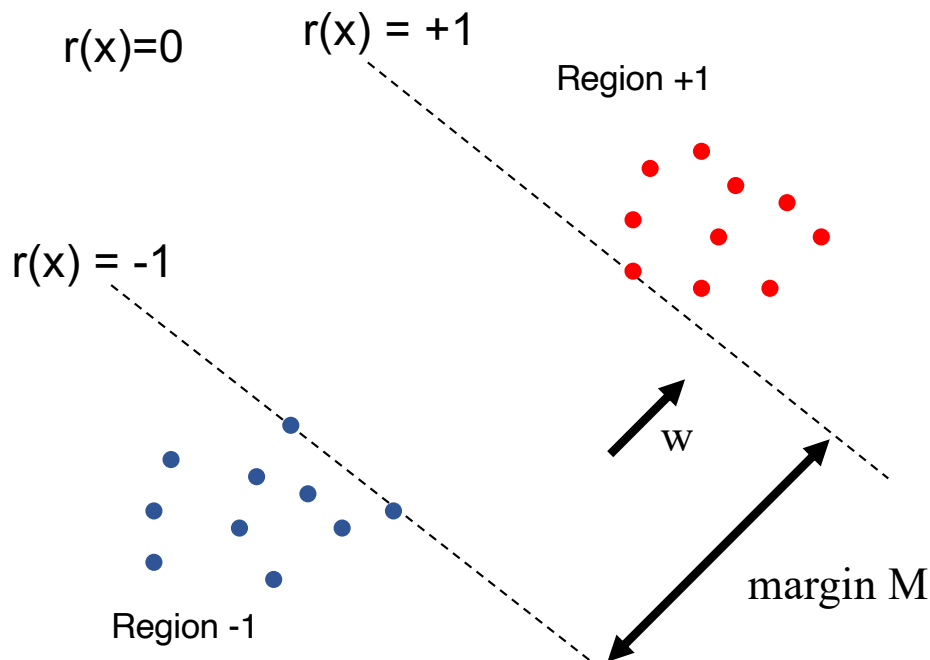
$$b = \frac{1}{N_{sv}} \sum_{i \in SV} (y^{(i)} - w \cdot x^{(i)})$$

Dual form

- Use Lagrange multipliers
 - Enforce inequality constraints
 - Use solution w^* to write solely in terms of alphas:

$$\max_{\alpha \geq 0} \sum_i \left[\alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j y^{(i)} y^{(j)} (x^{(i)} \cdot x^{(j)}) \right]$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0 \quad (\text{since derivative wrt } b = 0)$$



Another quadratic program:
optimize m vars with $1+m$ (simple) constraints
cost function has m^2 dot products

$$w^* = \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)}$$

$$b = \frac{1}{N_{SV}} \sum_{i \in SV} (y^{(i)} - w \cdot x^{(i)})$$

Maximum margin classifier

- What if the data are not linearly separable?

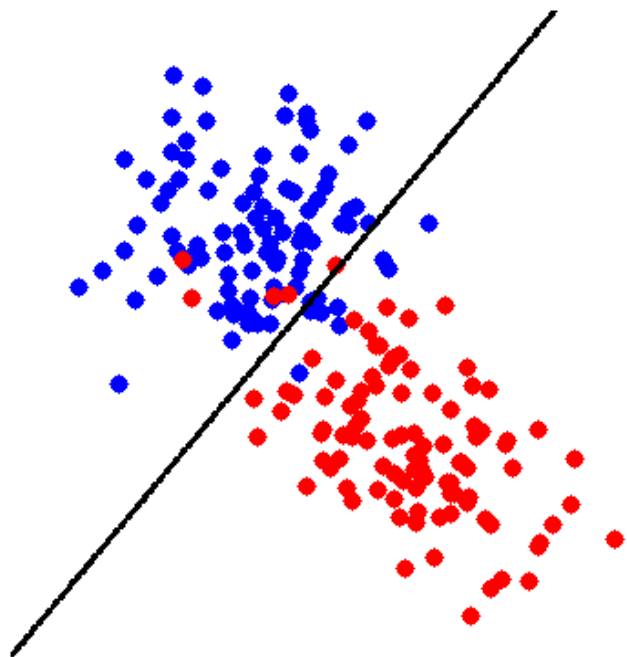
- Want a large “margin”:

$$\min_w \sum_j w_j^2$$

- Want low error:

$$\min_w \sum_i J(y^{(i)}, w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)$$

- “Soft margin” : introduce slack variables for violated constraints



$$w^* = \arg \min_{w, \epsilon} \sum_j w_j^2 + R \sum_i \epsilon^{(i)}$$

s.t.

$$y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq +1 - \epsilon^{(i)} \quad (\text{violate margin by } \epsilon)$$

$$\epsilon^{(i)} \geq 0$$

Assigns “cost” R proportional to distance from margin
Another quadratic program!

Soft margin SVM

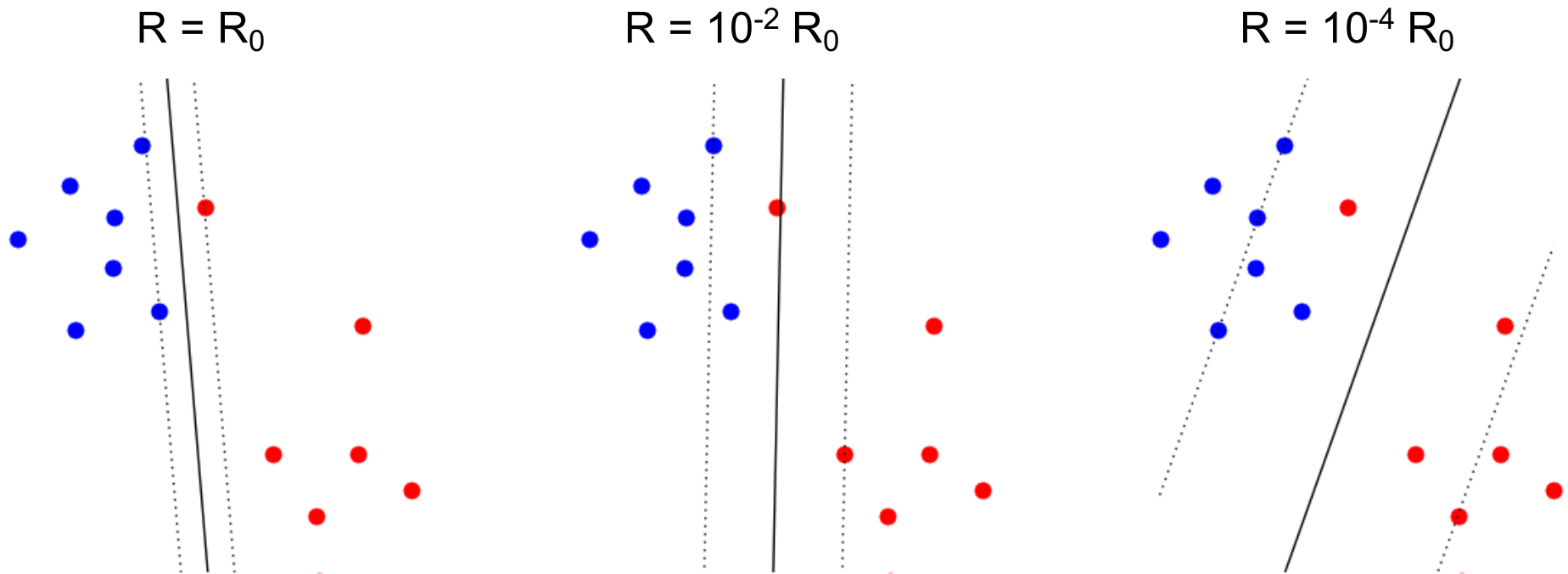
- Large margin vs. Slack variables
- R large = hard margin
- R smaller
 - A few wrong predictions; boundary farther from rest

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w, \epsilon} \sum_j w_j^2 + R \sum_i \epsilon^{(i)}$$

s.t.

$$y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq +1 - \epsilon^{(i)}$$

$$\epsilon^{(i)} \geq 0$$



Maximum margin classifier

- Soft margin optimization:

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w, \epsilon} \sum_j w_j^2 + R \sum_i \epsilon^{(i)}$$

- For *any* weights w ,

we can choose ϵ to satisfy constraints

$$y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq +1 - \epsilon^{(i)}$$

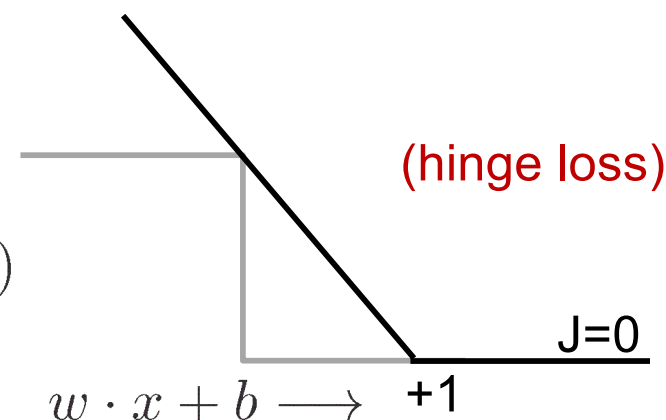
- Write ϵ^* as a function of w (call this J) and optimize directly

- J = distance from the “correct” place

$$J_i = \max[0, 1 - y^{(i)} (w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)]$$

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \frac{1}{R} \sum_j w_j^2 + \sum_i J_i(y^{(i)}, w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)$$

(L2 regularization on the weights)

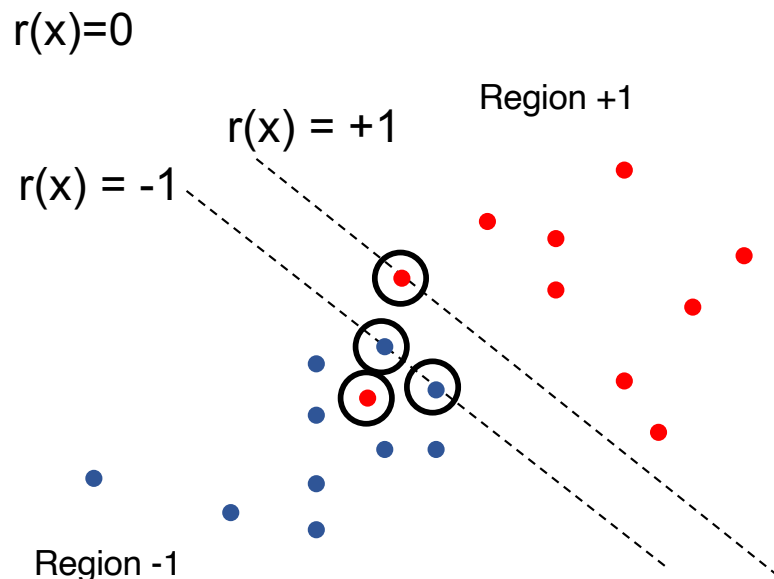


Dual form

- Soft margin dual:

$$\max_{\underline{0 \leq \alpha \leq R}} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \overset{K_{ij}}{\underbrace{x^{(i)} \cdot x^{(j)}}} \quad K_{ij} \text{ measures "similarity" of } x_i \text{ and } x_j \text{ (their dot product)}$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$$



Support vectors now data on or past margin...

Prediction:

$$\hat{y} = w^* \cdot x + b = \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} \underbrace{x^{(i)} \cdot x}_{\text{dot product}} + b$$

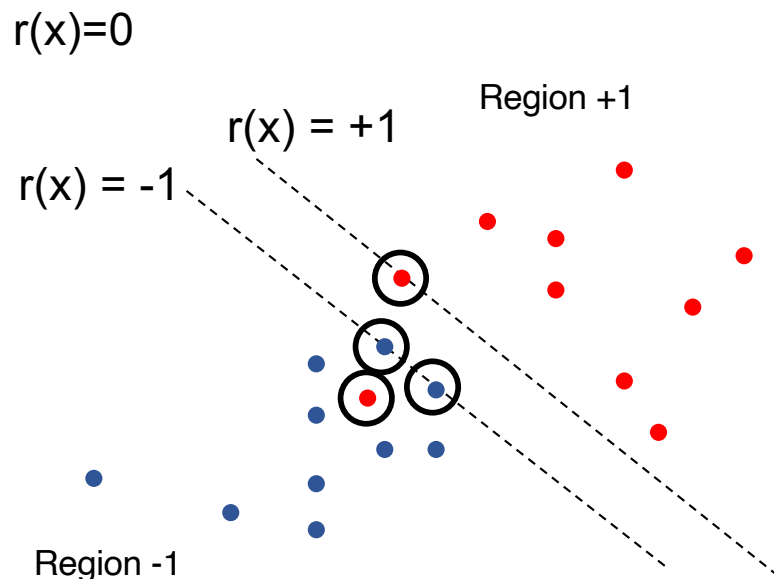
$$w^* = \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)}$$

$b = \dots$ More complicated; can solve e.g. using any $\alpha \in (0, R)$

Support Vectors

- The **support vectors** are data points i with non-zero weight α_i :
 - Points with minimum margin (on optimized boundary)
 - Points which violate margin constraint, but are still correctly classified
 - Points that are misclassified

For all other training data, features have **no impact** on learned weights!



Support vectors now data on or past margin...

Prediction:

$$\hat{y} = w^* \cdot x + b = \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)} \cdot x + b$$

$$w^* = \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)}$$

$$b = \dots$$

More complicated; can solve
e.g. using any $\alpha \in (0, R)$

Parametric vs Instance-Based Learners

- Some learners are **instance based**
 - Save some/all examples, use them to make subs. decisions
 - Ex: KNN
- Other learners are **parametric**
 - Save some fixed # of parameters
 - Ex: linear regression; perceptrons
 - Contrast with **nonparametric**: # parameters grows with data size
- SVMs show duality of viewpoint
 - Primal representation: save weight vector w
 - Dual representation: save example data (SVs)

Either representation gives exactly the same predictions
In different settings, one or the other may be more efficient!

If a learner can reproduce data points exactly, does it matter if it stores those data points as “x’s” or in “w”?

Sequential Minimal Optimization (SMO)

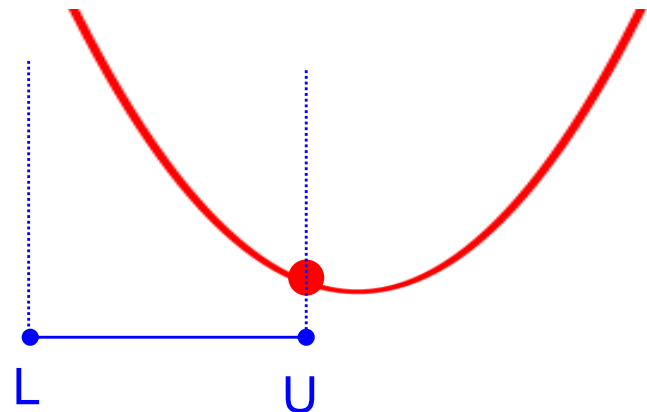
- Out-of-the-box QP solvers not very good for SVMs
- Faster: optimize dual QP coordinate-wise over pairs (α_i, α_j)
 - Pick α_i, α_j s.t. α_i violates KKT conditions
 - Solve constrained QP over just (α_i, α_j)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(3)} \quad \max_{0 \leq \alpha \leq R} \quad & \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j y^{(i)} y^{(j)} (x^{(i)} \cdot x^{(j)}) \quad \text{(2)} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0 \quad \text{(1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{(1)} \Rightarrow \alpha_i = c - \alpha_j y^{(j)} / y^{(i)}$$

(2) Quadratic function of α_j

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(1), (3)} \Rightarrow \quad & \alpha_j \in [L, U] \\ & \text{so both } \alpha_i, \alpha_j \text{ in } [0, R] \end{aligned}$$



Multi-class SVMs

- Use standard multi-class linear prediction, 0/1 loss:

$$\hat{y} = f(x; \theta) = \arg \max_y \theta \cdot \Phi(x, y)$$

$$\Phi(x, y) = [\mathbb{1}[y = 0] \Phi(x) , \mathbb{1}[y = 1] \Phi(x) , \dots]$$

- Hinge-like loss / slack variable optimization:

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w, b, \epsilon} \sum_j w_j^2 + R \sum_i \epsilon^{(i)}$$

$$w^T \Phi(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) - w^T \Phi(x^{(i)}, y) \geq 1 - \epsilon^{(i)} \quad \forall y \neq y^{(i)}$$

- Can introduce class-specific loss function: $\Delta(y, \hat{y})$

$$w^T \Phi(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) - w^T \Phi(x^{(i)}, y) \geq \Delta(y^{(i)}, y) - \epsilon^{(i)} \quad \forall y \neq y^{(i)}$$

- Reduces to earlier form for 0/1 loss: $\Delta(y, \hat{y}) = \mathbb{1}[y \neq \hat{y}]$
- Again, can optimize as QP (e.g., SMO) or hinge-like loss (e.g., SGD)

Support Vector Machines

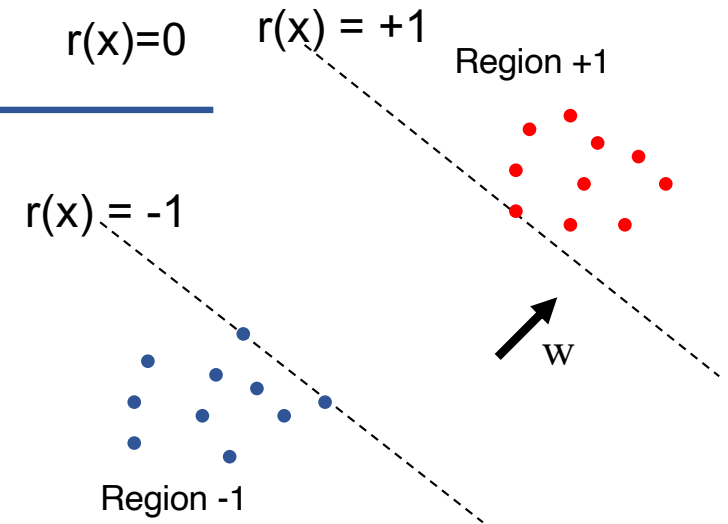
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The Kernel Trick

Linear SVMs

- So far, looked at linear SVMs:
 - Expressible as linear weights “w”
 - Linear decision boundary



- Dual optimization for a linear SVM:

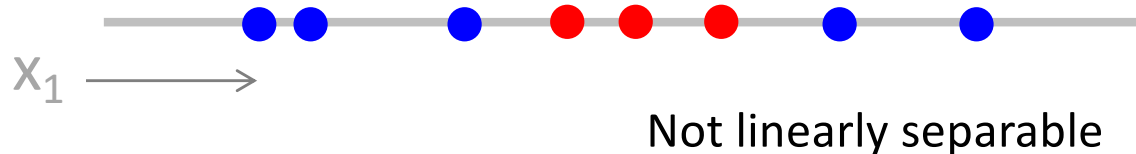
$$\max_{0 \leq \alpha \leq R} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j y^{(i)} y^{(j)} (x^{(i)} \cdot x^{(j)}) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$$

- Depend on pairwise dot products:
 - Kij measures “similarity”, e.g., 0 if orthogonal $K_{ij} = x^{(i)} \cdot x^{(j)}$

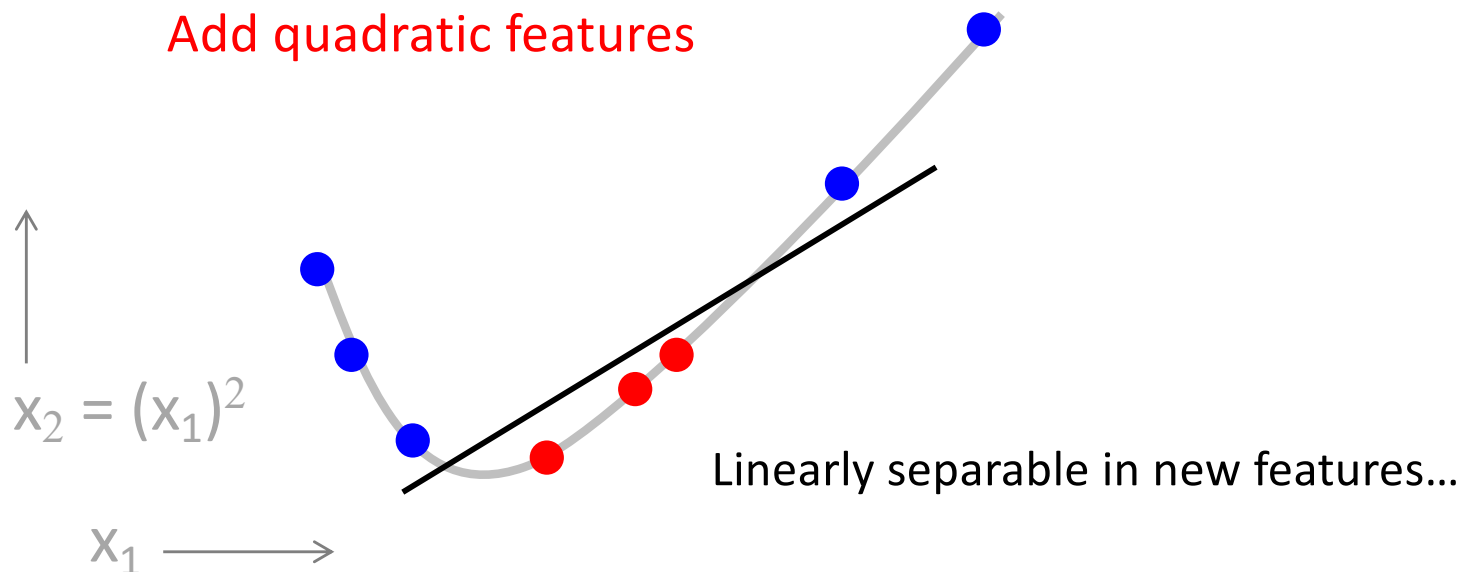
Adding features

- Linear classifier can't learn some functions

1D example:



Add quadratic features



Adding features

- Recall: feature function $\Phi(x)$
 - Predict using some transformation of original features

$$\hat{y}(x) = \text{sign}[w \cdot \Phi(x) + b]$$

- Dual form of SVM optimization is:

$$\max_{0 \leq \alpha \leq R} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \Phi(x^{(i)}) \Phi(x^{(j)})^T \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$$

- For example, quadratic (polynomial) features:

$$\Phi(x) = (1 \ \sqrt{2}x_1 \ \sqrt{2}x_2 \ \cdots \ x_1^2 \ x_2^2 \ \cdots \ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \ \sqrt{2}x_1x_3 \ \cdots)$$

- Ignore root-2 scaling for now...
- Expands “x” to length $O(n^2)$

Implicit features

- **Need** $\Phi(x^{(i)})\Phi(x^{(j)})^T$

$$\Phi(x) = (1 \ \sqrt{2}x_1 \ \sqrt{2}x_2 \ \cdots \ x_1^2 \ x_2^2 \ \cdots \ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \ \sqrt{2}x_1x_3 \ \cdots)$$

$$\Phi(a) = (1 \ \sqrt{2}a_1 \ \sqrt{2}a_2 \ \cdots \ a_1^2 \ a_2^2 \ \cdots \ \sqrt{2}a_1a_2 \ \sqrt{2}a_1a_3 \ \cdots)$$

$$\Phi(b) = (1 \ \sqrt{2}b_1 \ \sqrt{2}b_2 \ \cdots \ b_1^2 \ b_2^2 \ \cdots \ \sqrt{2}b_1b_2 \ \sqrt{2}b_1b_3 \ \cdots)$$

$$\Phi(a)^T \Phi(b) = 1 + \sum_j 2a_j b_j + \sum_j a_j^2 b_j^2 + \sum_j \sum_{k>j} 2a_j a_k b_j b_k + \dots$$

$$= (1 + \sum_j a_j b_j)^2$$

$$= K(a, b)$$

Can evaluate dot product in
only $O(n)$ computations!

Mercer Kernels

- If $K(x, x')$ satisfies Mercer's condition:

$$\int_a \int_b K(a, b) g(a) g(b) da db \geq 0$$

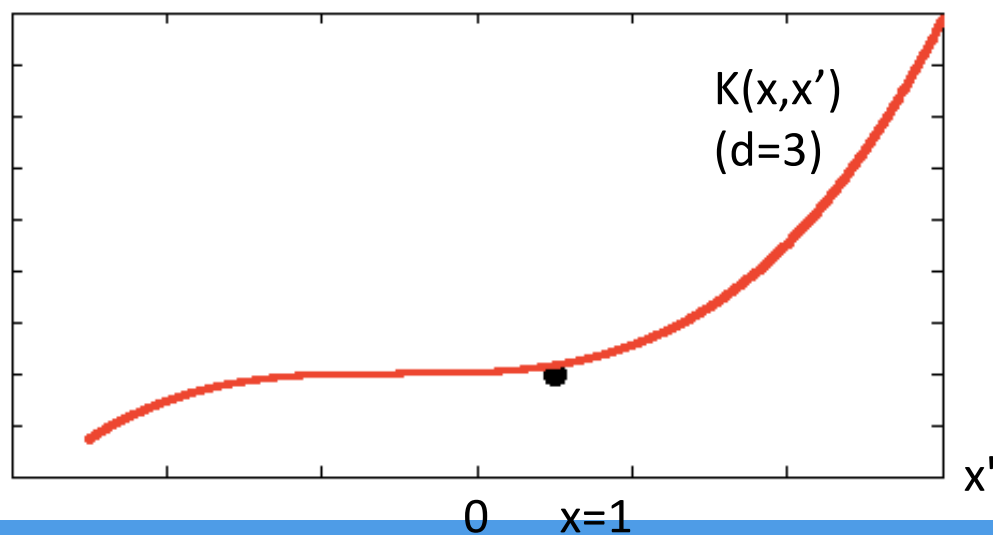
For all datasets X :

$$g^T \cdot K \cdot g \geq 0$$

- Then, $K(a, b) = \Phi(a) \cdot \Phi(b)$ for some $\Phi(x)$
- Notably, Φ may be hard to calculate
 - May even be infinite dimensional!
 - Only matters that $K(x, x')$ is easy to compute:
 - Computation always stays $O(m^2)$

Common kernel functions

- Some commonly used kernel functions & their shape:
- Polynomial $K(a, b) = (1 + \sum_j a_j b_j)^d$



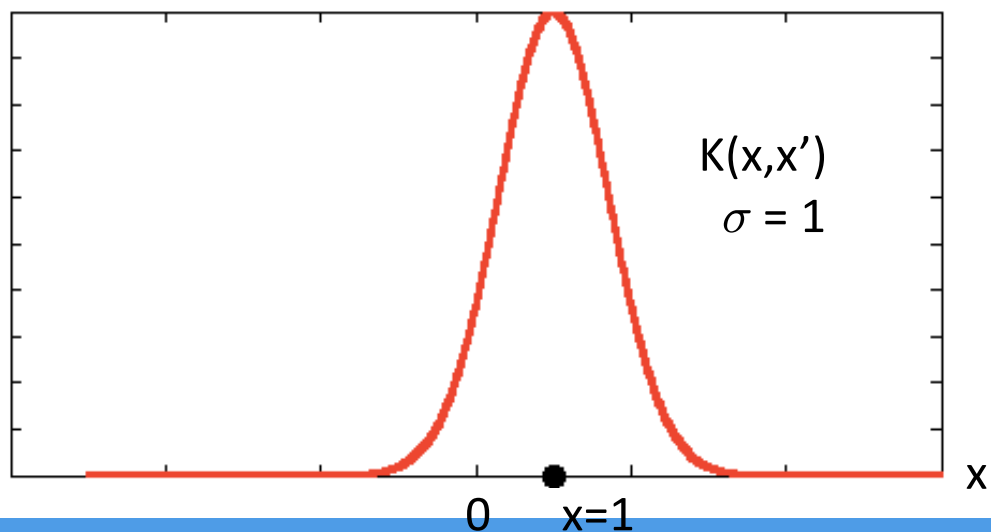
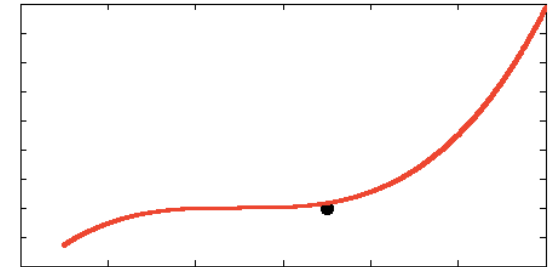
Common kernel functions

- Some commonly used kernel functions & their shape:

- Polynomial $K(a, b) = (1 + \sum_j a_j b_j)^d$

- Radial Basis Functions

$$K(a, b) = \exp(-(a - b)^2 / 2\sigma^2)$$



Common kernel functions

- Some commonly used kernel functions & their shape:

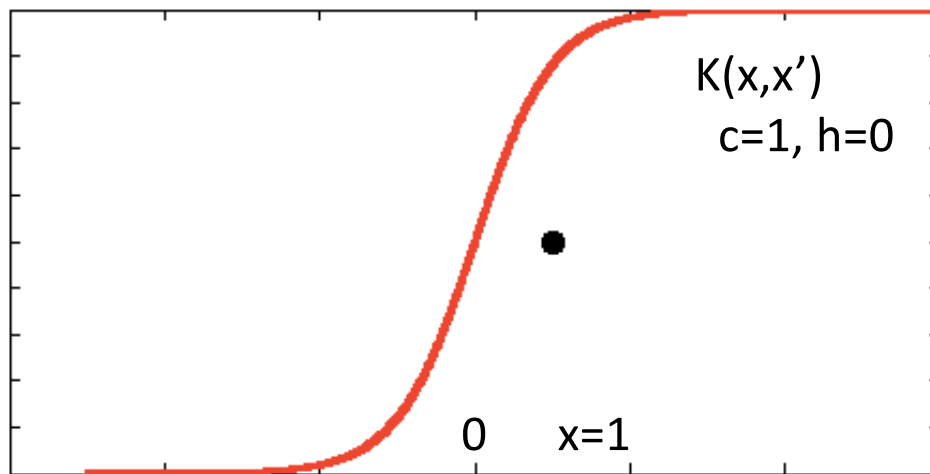
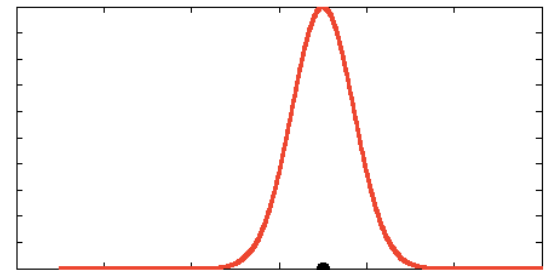
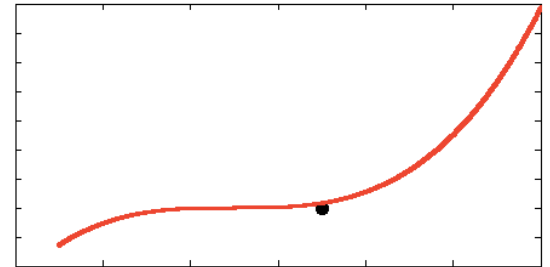
- Polynomial $K(a, b) = (1 + \sum_j a_j b_j)^d$

- Radial Basis Functions

$$K(a, b) = \exp(-(a - b)^2 / 2\sigma^2)$$

- Saturating, sigmoid-like:

$$K(a, b) = \tanh(ca^T b + h)$$



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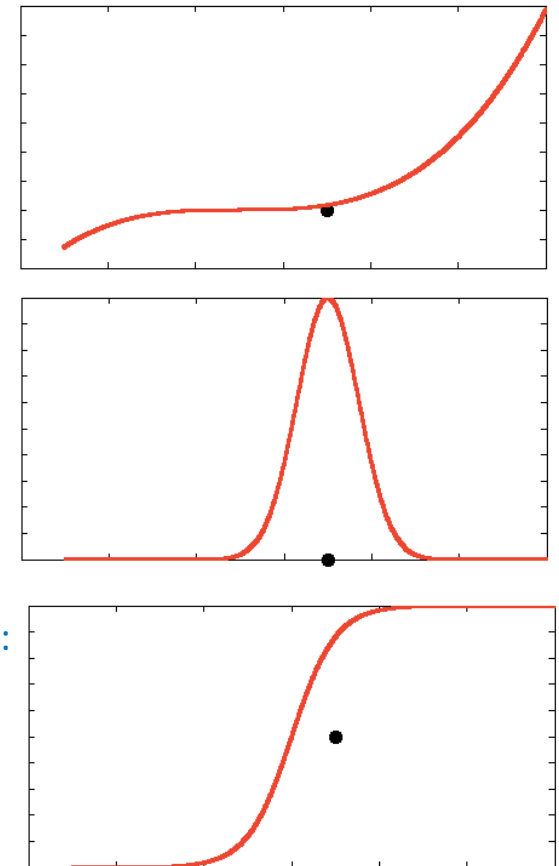
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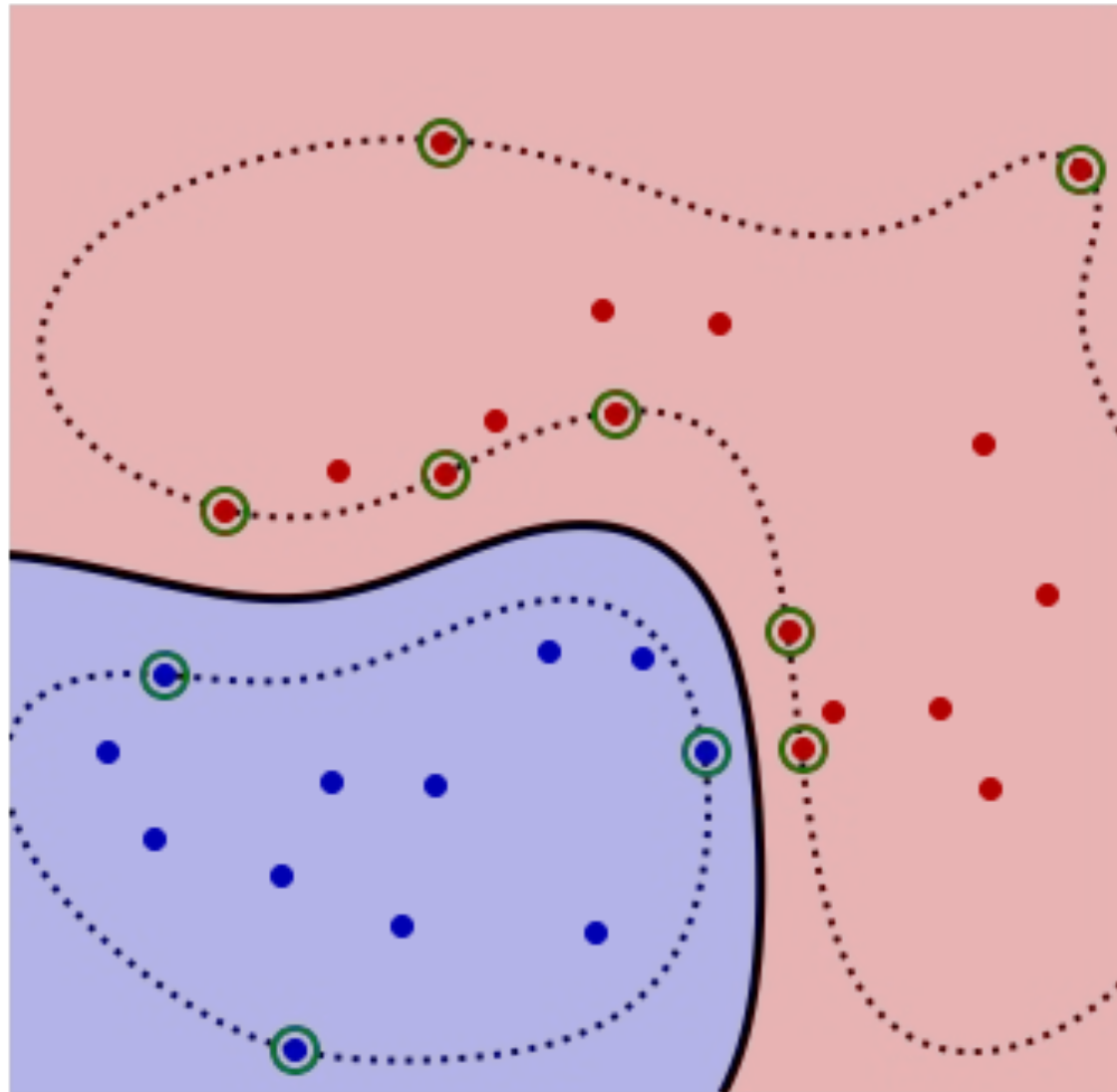
Here, $d / \sigma / \{c, h\}$ are **hyperparameters**:
influence the meaning of “similarity”

- Many for special data types:
 - String similarity for text, genetics

- In practice, may not even be Mercer kernels...



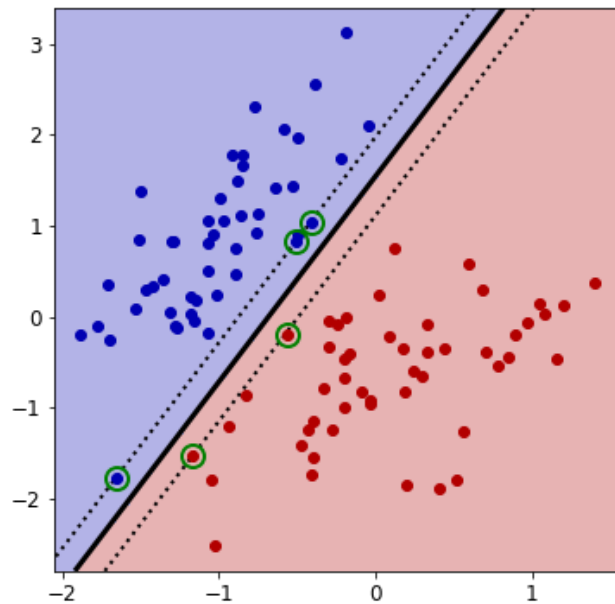
Support Vectors for Kernel SVMs



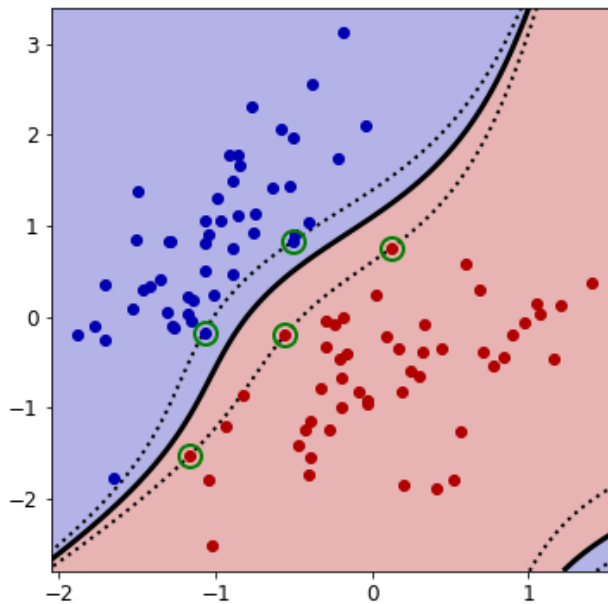
*Support vectors
(green) for data
separable by radial
basis function
kernels, and non-
linear margin
boundaries*

Support Vectors for Kernel SVMs

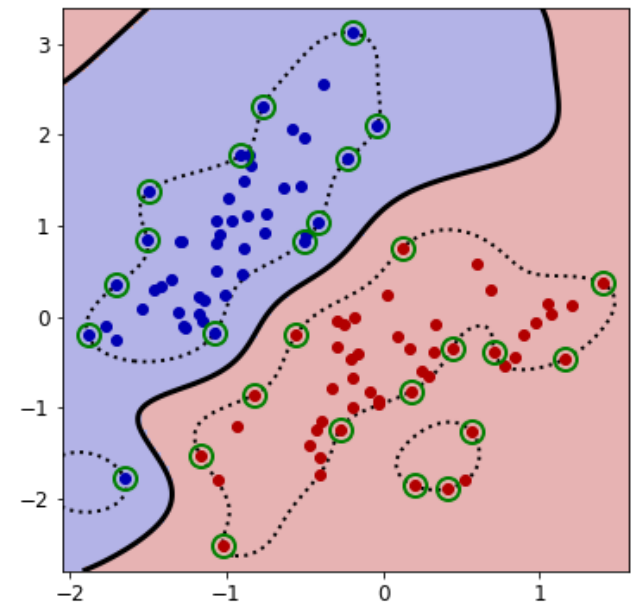
- Separable data



Linear Kernel



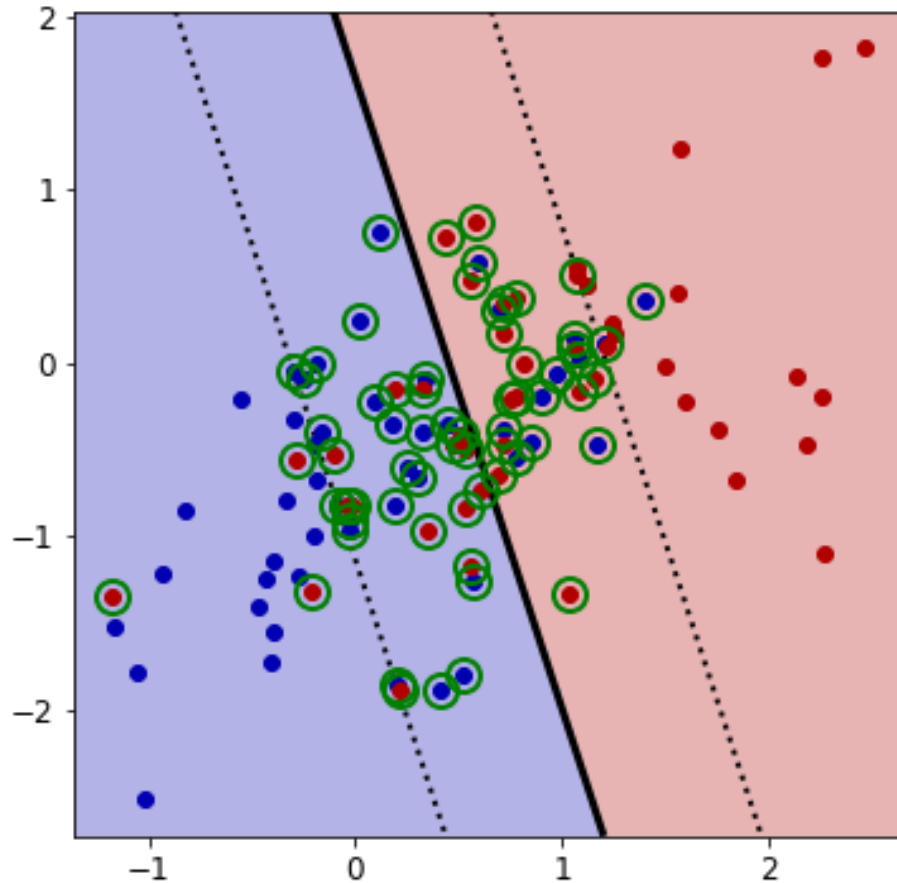
Degree-4 Polynomial



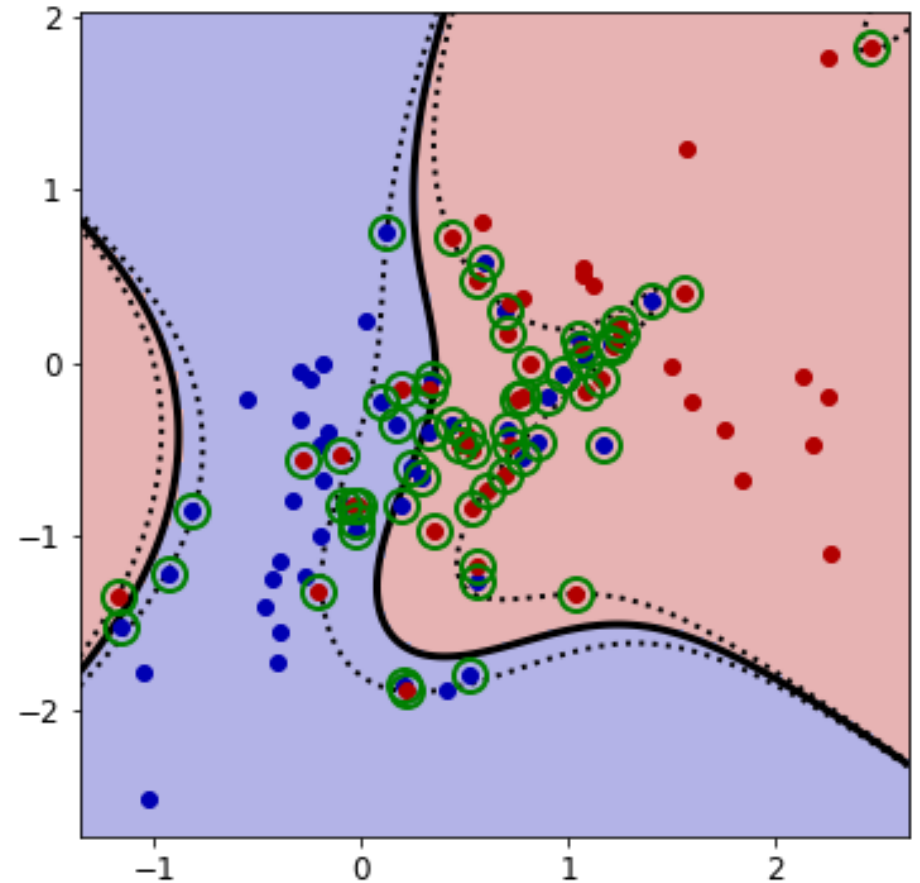
Gaussian Kernel

*Support vectors (green) for separable data,
along with margin boundaries*

How many support vectors?



Linear Kernel



Degree-4 Polynomial

*Only need to evaluate the kernel at the support vectors
... but there may be a lot of support vectors*

Kernel SVMs

- Linear SVMs
 - Can represent classifier using $(w, b) = n+1$ parameters
 - Or, represent using support vectors, $x^{(i)}$
- Kernelized?
 - $K(x, x')$ may correspond to high (infinite?) dimensional $\Phi(x)$
 - Typically more efficient to remember the SVs
 - “Instance based” – save data, rather than parameters
- Contrast:
 - Linear SVM: identify *features* with linear relationship to target
 - Kernel SVM: identify *similarity measure* between data(Sometimes one may be easier; sometimes the other!)

Kernel Least-squares Linear Regression

- Recall L2-regularized linear regression:

$$\theta = y X (X^T X + \alpha I)^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta (X^T X + \alpha I) = y X \xrightarrow{\text{Rearranging,}} \alpha \theta = (y - \theta X^T) X$$

Define:

$$r = \frac{1}{\alpha} (y - \theta X^T) \xrightarrow{\quad} \underline{\theta} = r X$$

$$\alpha r = \underline{y} - \underline{\theta} \underline{X}^T = \underline{y} - r X X^T$$

Gram matrix: $m \times m$,

$$K_{ij} = \langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle$$

Rearrange & solve for r :

$$r = (X X^T + \alpha I)^{-1} y = (\mathbf{K} + \alpha I)^{-1} y$$

Linear prediction:

$$\tilde{y} = \langle \theta, \tilde{x} \rangle = r X (\tilde{x})^T = \sum_j r_j \langle x^{(j)}, \tilde{x} \rangle = \sum_j r_j \mathbf{K}(x^{(j)}, \tilde{x})$$

Now just replace $K(x, x')$ with your desired kernel function!

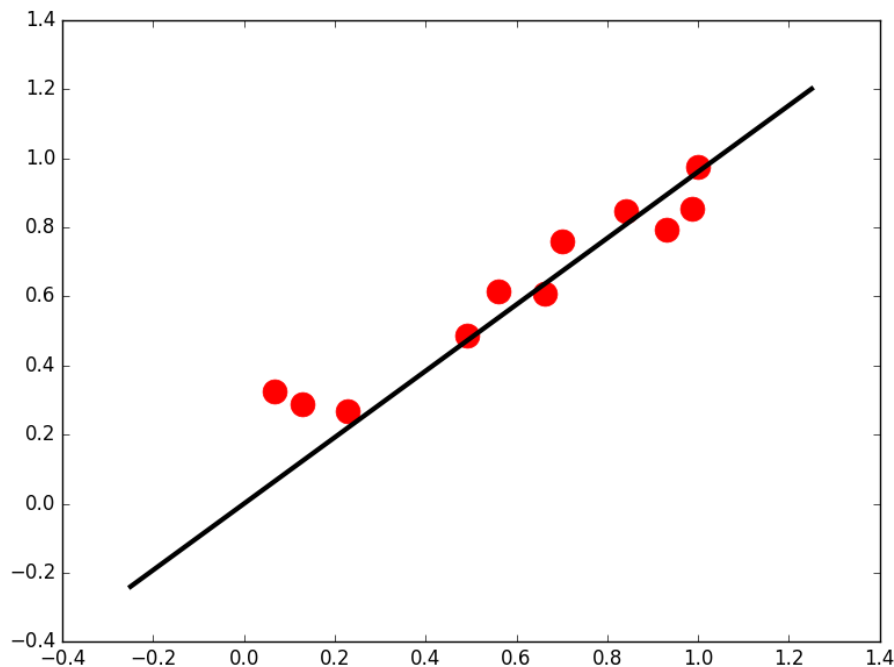
Example: Kernel Linear Regression

- K : $M \times M$

$$r = (K + \alpha I)^{-1} y \quad \tilde{y} = \sum_j r_j K(x^{(j)}, \tilde{x})$$

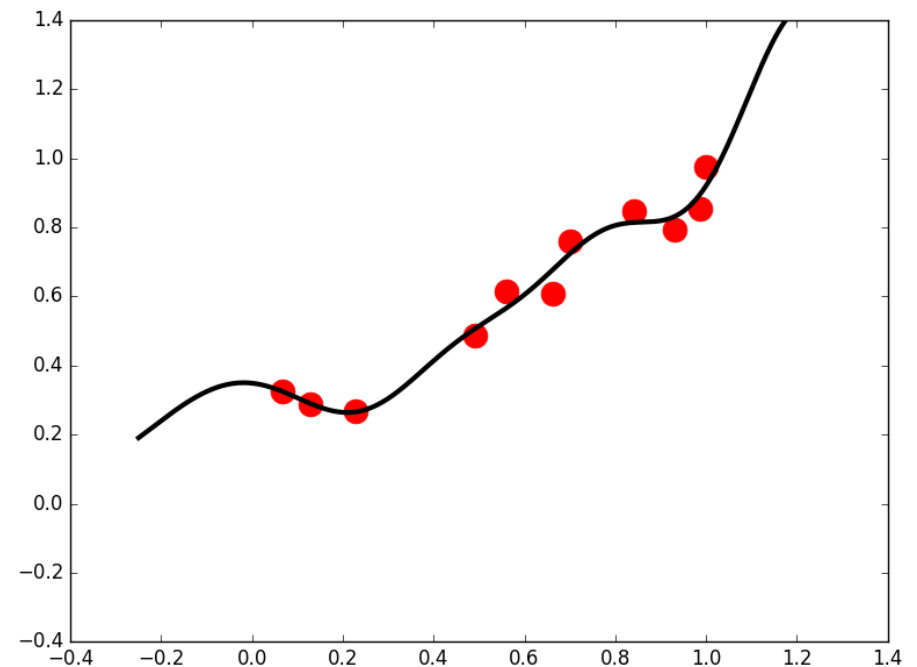
Linear kernel:

$$K(x, x') = x^T \cdot x'$$



Gaussian (RBF) kernel:

$$K(x, x') = \exp(-\gamma(x - x')^2)$$



Summary

- Support vector machines
- “Large margin” for separable data
 - Primal QP: maximize margin subject to linear constraints
 - Lagrangian optimization simplifies constraints
 - Dual QP: m variables; involves m^2 dot product
- “Soft margin” for non-separable data
 - Primal form: regularized hinge loss
 - Dual form: m -dimensional QP
- Kernels
 - Dual form involves only pairwise similarity
 - Mercer kernels: dot products in implicit high-dimensional space