

## Week 7: Support Vector Machines

### Large Margin Classification

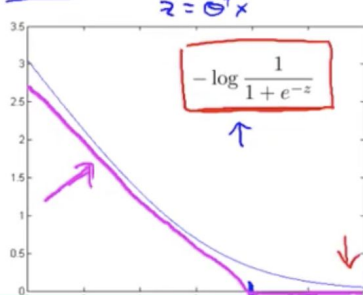
#### Optimization Objective

Alternative view of logistic regression

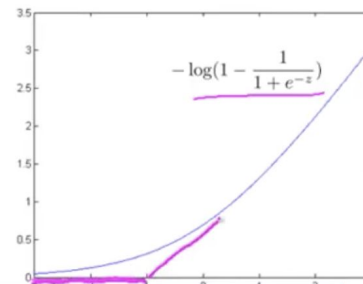
Cost of example:  $-(y \log h_{\theta}(x) + (1 - y) \log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)))$   $\leftarrow$

$$= -y \log \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}} - (1 - y) \log \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}\right) \leftarrow$$

If  $y = 1$  (want  $\theta^T x \gg 0$ ):



If  $y = 0$  (want  $\theta^T x \ll 0$ ):

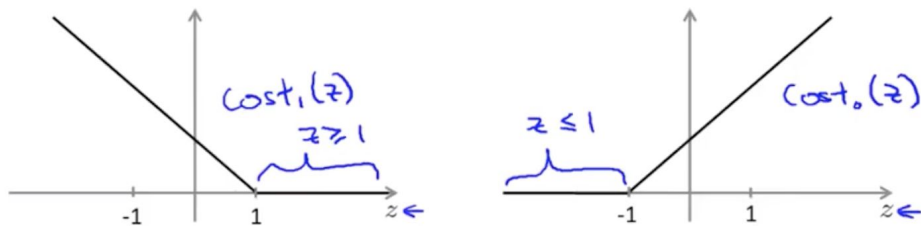


$$\min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y^{(i)} \text{cost}_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \text{cost}_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2$$

## Large Margin Intuition

### Support Vector Machine

$$\rightarrow \min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y^{(i)} \text{cost}_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \text{cost}_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2$$



$\rightarrow$  If  $y = 1$ , we want  $\theta^T x \geq 1$  (not just  $\geq 0$ )

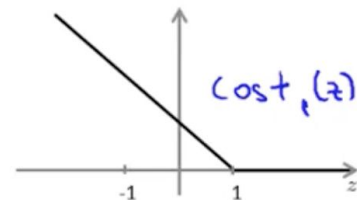
$\rightarrow$  If  $y = 0$ , we want  $\theta^T x \leq -1$  (not just  $< 0$ )

### SVM Decision Boundary

$$\min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y^{(i)} \text{cost}_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \text{cost}_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2$$

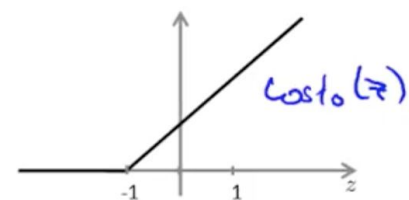
Whenever  $y^{(i)} = 1$ :

$$\theta^T x^{(i)} \geq 1$$



Whenever  $y^{(i)} = 0$ :

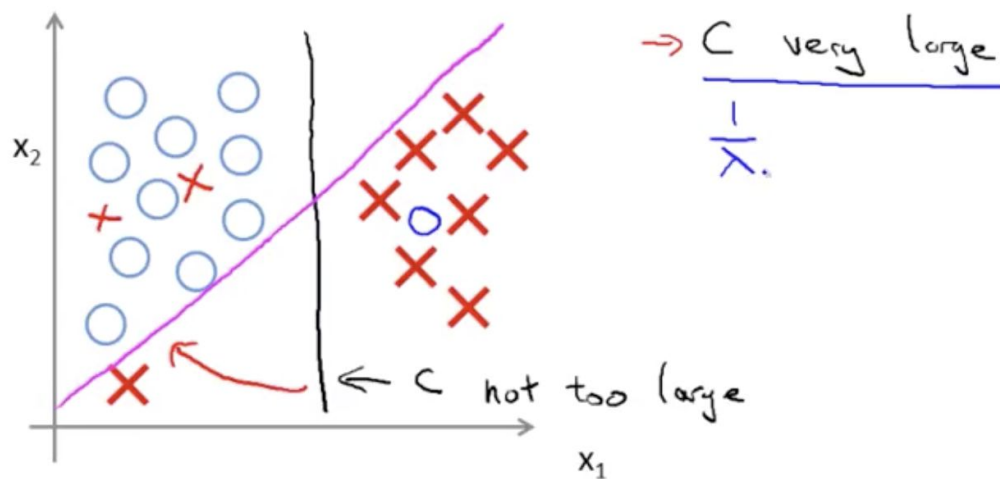
$$\theta^T x^{(i)} \leq -1$$



$$\min_{\theta} \cancel{C \times 0} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2$$

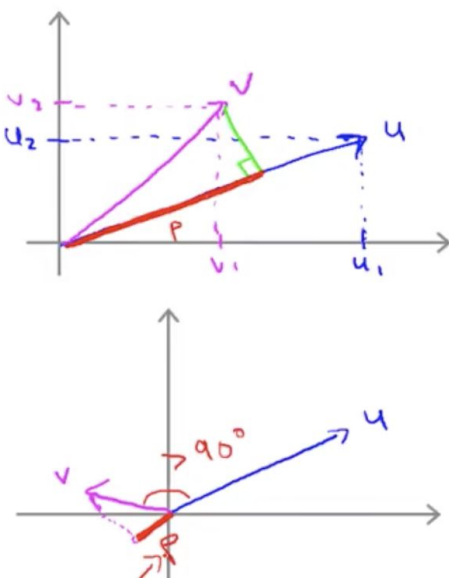
$$\text{s.t. } \theta^T x^{(i)} \geq 1 \quad \text{if } y^{(i)} = 1$$

$$\theta^T x^{(i)} \leq -1 \quad \text{if } y^{(i)} = 0.$$



## Mathematics Behind Large Margin Classification

### Vector Inner Product



$$\rightarrow u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \rightarrow v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u^T v = ? \quad [u_1 \ u_2] \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|u\| = \text{length of vector } u$$

$$= \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$p = \text{length of projection of } v \text{ onto } u.$$

$$\begin{aligned} u^T v &= p \cdot \|u\| \leftarrow = v^T u \\ \text{signed} \quad &= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 \leftarrow p \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$u^T v = p \cdot \|u\|$$

$$p < 0$$

## SVM Decision Boundary

$$\omega = (\sqrt{\omega})^2$$

$$\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 = \frac{1}{2} (\theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2) = \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{\theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2})^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|\theta\|^2$$

s.t.  $\theta^T x^{(i)} \geq 1$  if  $y^{(i)} = 1$   
 $\rightarrow \theta^T x^{(i)} \leq -1$  if  $y^{(i)} = 0$

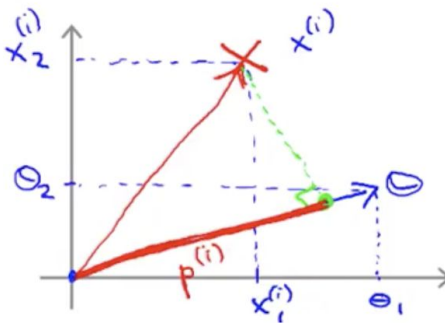
Simplification:  $\theta_0 = 0$ .  $n=2$

$$= \|\theta\|$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} \theta_0 = 0$$

$$\theta^T x^{(i)} = ?$$

$\uparrow \quad \uparrow$   
 $u^T v$



$$\theta^T x^{(i)} = p^{(i)} \cdot \|\theta\|$$

$$= \theta_1 x_1^{(i)} + \theta_2 x_2^{(i)}$$

Andrew Ng

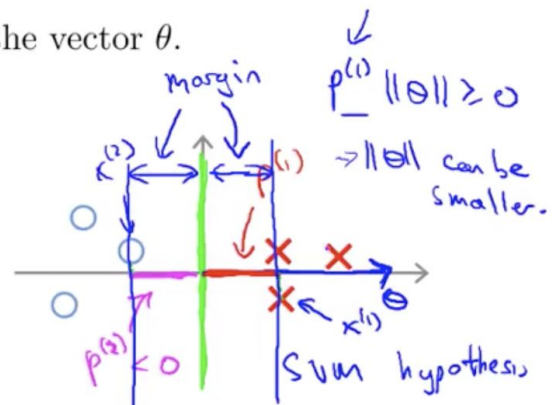
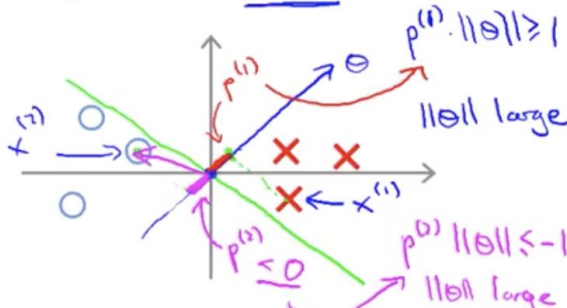
## SVM Decision Boundary

$$\rightarrow \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|\theta\|^2$$

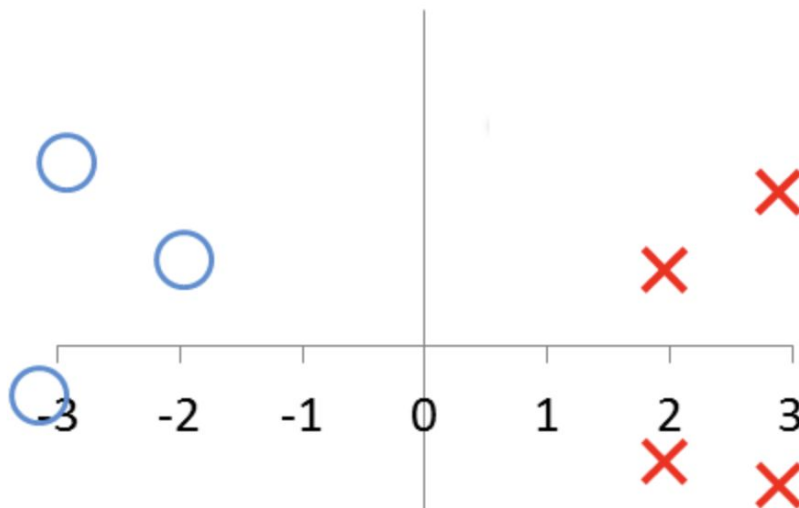
s.t.  $p^{(i)} \cdot \|\theta\| \geq 1$  if  $y^{(i)} = 1$   
 $p^{(i)} \cdot \|\theta\| \leq -1$  if  $y^{(i)} = -1$

where  $p^{(i)}$  is the projection of  $x^{(i)}$  onto the vector  $\theta$ .

Simplification:  $\theta_0 = 0$



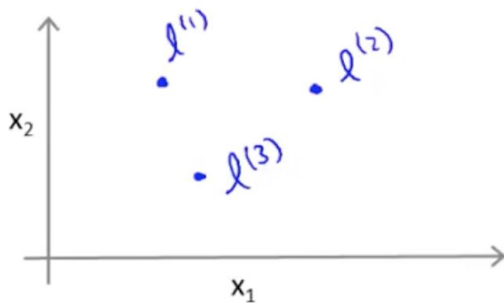
$\theta_0 = 0$ : decision boundary passes the origin.



$$\|\theta\| = \frac{1}{2}$$

## Kernels

### Kernel



Given  $x$ , compute new feature depending on proximity to landmarks  $l^{(1)}, l^{(2)}, l^{(3)}$

Given  $x$ :

$$f_1 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(1)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$f_2 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(2)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(2)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

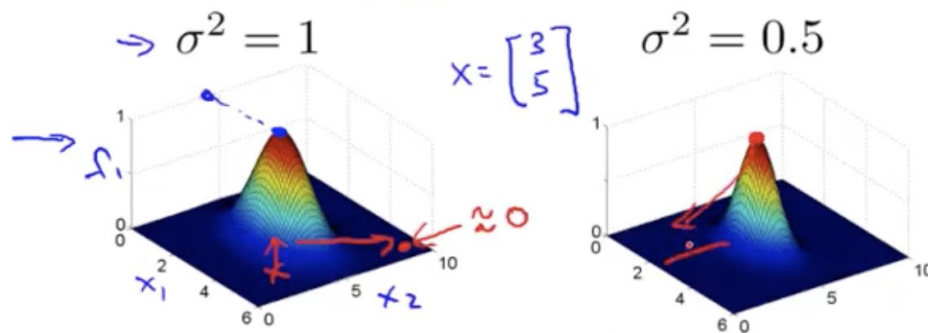
$$f_3 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(3)}) = \exp(\dots)$$

kernel (Gaussian kernels)  $k(x, l^{(i)})$

Handwritten notes in red:  $\|w\|$  with an arrow pointing to  $\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2$ , and  $\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2$  with an arrow pointing to the exponent in the first equation.

**Example:**

$$\rightarrow l^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f_1 = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$



When  $\sigma$  is small, the height does not change while it narrows down.

**SVM with Kernels**

- $\rightarrow$  Given  $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$ ,
- $\rightarrow$  choose  $l^{(1)} = x^{(1)}, l^{(2)} = x^{(2)}, \dots, l^{(m)} = x^{(m)}$ .

Given example  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow f_1 &= \text{similarity}(x, l^{(1)}) \\ \rightarrow f_2 &= \text{similarity}(x, l^{(2)}) \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

$$f = \begin{bmatrix} f_0 \\ f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_m \end{bmatrix} \quad f_0 = 1$$

For training example  $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ :

$$\begin{aligned} x^{(i)} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} f_1^{(i)} \\ f_2^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ f_m^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(1)}) \\ \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(2)}) \\ \vdots \\ \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(m)}) \end{bmatrix} \\ &\leftarrow f_i^{(i)} = \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(i)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{0}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \quad (\text{or } \mathbb{R}^n) \\ \rightarrow f^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} f_0^{(i)} \\ f_1^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ f_m^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \\ f_0^{(i)} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

## SVM with Kernels

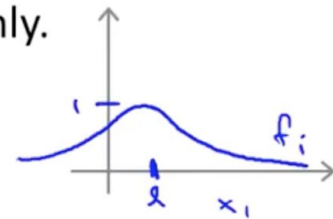
Hypothesis: Given  $x$ , compute features  $f \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$   $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$   
 $\rightarrow$  Predict "y=1" if  $\theta^T f \geq 0$   $\theta_0 f_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \dots + \theta_m f_m$   
 Training:  
 $\rightarrow \min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \text{cost}_1(\theta^T f^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \text{cost}_0(\theta^T f^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m \theta_j^2$   
 $\theta^{(i)}$   $\theta^T f^{(i)}$   $\sum_{j=1}^m \theta_j^2$   $n=m$

Using kernels for logistic regression is very slow, because it runs very slowly.

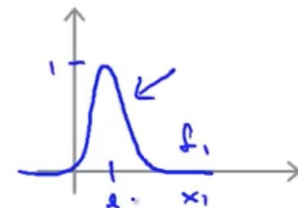
## SVM parameters:

$C (= \frac{1}{\lambda})$ .  $\rightarrow$  Large C: Lower bias, high variance. (small  $\lambda$ )  
 $\rightarrow$  Small C: Higher bias, low variance. (large  $\lambda$ )

$\sigma^2$  Large  $\sigma^2$ : Features  $f_i$  vary more smoothly.  
 $\rightarrow$  Higher bias, lower variance.  
 $\exp\left(-\frac{\|x - \mu^{(i)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$



Small  $\sigma^2$ : Features  $f_i$  vary less smoothly.  
 Lower bias, higher variance.



Suppose you train an SVM and find it overfits your training data. Which of these would be a reasonable next step?

Decrease C and/or Increase sigma square

## SVM in Practice

Package: liblinear, libsvm,

Specify:



parameter  $C$ ;

kernel (similarity function);

E.g. No kernel ("linear kernel")

Predict " $y = 1$ " if  $\theta^T x \geq 0$

$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_n x_n$   
 $\rightarrow n$  large,

Gaussian kernel:

$$f_i = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(i)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \text{ where } l^{(i)} = x^{(i)}.$$

Need to choose  $\sigma^2$ .

Other kernels: polynomial kernel, string kernel, chi-square kernel, histogram intersection kernel...

Note: not all similarity functions make valid kernel, need to satisfy "Mercer's theorem" to make sure SVM packages' optimizations run correctly, and do not diverge.

## Logistic regression vs. SVMs

$n$  = number of features ( $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ ),  $m$  = number of training examples

> If  $n$  is large (relative to  $m$ ): (e.g.  $n \geq m$ ,  $n = 10,000$ ,  $m = 10 \dots 1,000$ )

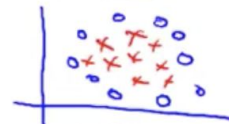
> Use logistic regression, or SVM without a kernel ("linear kernel")

> If  $n$  is small,  $m$  is intermediate: ( $n = 1-1,000$ ,  $m = 10-10,000$ )

$\rightarrow$  Use SVM with Gaussian kernel

If  $n$  is small,  $m$  is large: ( $n = 1-1,000$ ,  $m = 50,000+$ )

$\rightarrow$  Create/add more features, then use logistic regression or SVM without a kernel



Neural network likely to work well for most of these settings, but may be slower to train; SVM does not need to worry about local minimum.

Quiz:



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Suppose you have 2D input examples (ie,  $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ). The decision boundary of the SVM (with the linear kernel) is a straight line.



Week 8:

## Clustering

Application: market segmentation; Social network analysis; organize computing clusters; astronomical data analysis

## K-Means Algorithm

## K-means algorithm

Input:

- $K$  (number of clusters)  $\leftarrow$
- Training set  $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\}$

$x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (drop  $x_0 = 1$  convention)

## K-means algorithm

$\mu_1$   $\mu_2$   
x x

Randomly initialize  $K$  cluster centroids  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_K \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Repeat {

Cluster assignment step  
for  $i = 1$  to  $m$   
     $c^{(i)} := \text{index (from 1 to } K \text{) of cluster centroid closest to } x^{(i)}$   
Move centroid  
for  $k = 1$  to  $K$   
     $\rightarrow \mu_k := \text{average (mean) of points assigned to cluster } k$   
     $x^{(1)}, x^{(5)}, x^{(6)}, x^{(10)} \rightarrow c^{(1)}=2, c^{(5)}=2, c^{(6)}=2, c^{(10)}=2$   
     $\min_k \|x^{(i)} - \mu_k\|^2$   
     $\mu_2 = \frac{1}{4} [x^{(1)} + x^{(5)} + x^{(6)} + x^{(10)}] \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$K$ : total number of clusters;  $k$ : the index of cluster

## Optimization Objective

Usage:

debug the learning algorithm to ensure the K-Means is running correctly;

Find better costs for this and avoid the local minima

## Random Initialization

- Should have  $K < m$
- Randomly pick  $K$  training examples
- Set  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K$  equal to these  $K$  examples.  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K$  equal to these  $K$  examples.

## Random initialization

For  $i = 1$  to 100 { 50 - 1000

→ Randomly initialize K-means.  
 Run K-means. Get  $c^{(1)}, \dots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_K$ .  
 Compute cost function (distortion)  
→  $J(c^{(1)}, \dots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_K)$

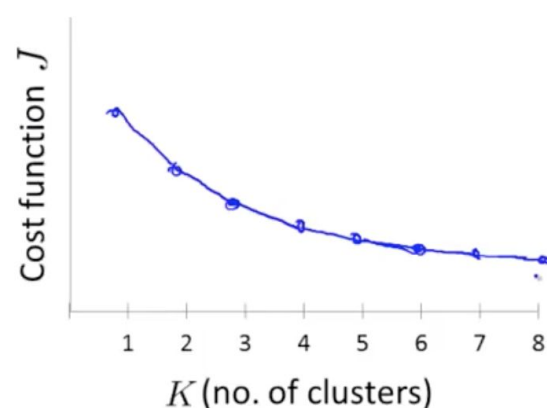
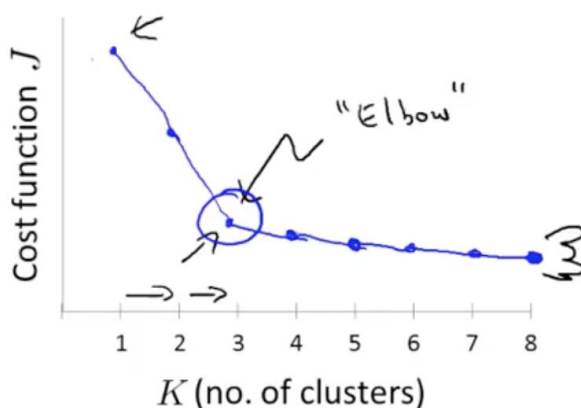
}

Pick clustering that gave lowest cost  $J(c^{(1)}, \dots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_K)$

## Choosing the number of Clusters

### Choosing the value of K

Elbow method:



## Dimensionality Reduction Motivation

### Data Compression

- Reduce memory/disk needed to store data
- Speed up learning algorithm

## Visualization

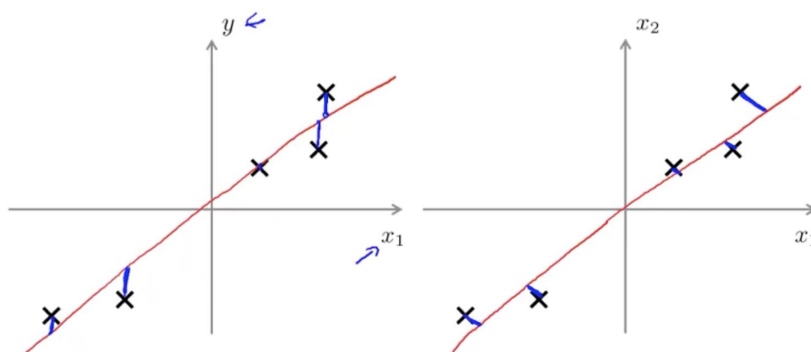
## Principal Component Analysis

### PCA Problem Formulation

Minimize the projection error

The left is linear regression; and the right is PCA

**PCA is not linear regression**



### Data preprocessing

Training set:  $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(m)}$  ←

Preprocessing (feature scaling/mean normalization):

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_j^{(i)}$$

Replace each  $x_j^{(i)}$  with  $x_j - \mu_j$ .

If different features on different scales (e.g.,  $x_1$  = size of house,  $x_2$  = number of bedrooms), scale features to have comparable range of values.

## PCA Algorithm

### Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm

Reduce data from  $n$ -dimensions to  $k$ -dimensions

Compute "covariance matrix":

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{(x^{(i)})}_{n \times 1} \underbrace{(x^{(i)})^T}_{1 \times n} \quad \text{--- } n \times n \quad \text{Sigma}$$

Compute "eigenvectors" of matrix  $\Sigma$ :

$$\rightarrow [U, S, V] = \text{svd}(\text{Sigma}); \quad \rightarrow \text{Singular value decomposition} \quad \text{eig}(\text{Sigma})$$

---  $n \times n$  matrix.

Since  $\Sigma$  is symmetrical, we can get the same answer from both svd and eig.

## Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm

From  $[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(\text{Sigma})$ , we get:

$$\rightarrow U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u^{(1)} & u^{(2)} & \dots & u^{(n)} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow z \in \mathbb{R}^k$

$$z = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u^{(1)} & u^{(2)} & \dots & u^{(k)} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}}_{\substack{n \times k \\ U_{\text{reduce}}}}^T x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -(u^{(1)})^T \\ \vdots \\ -(u^{(k)})^T \end{bmatrix}}_{\substack{k \times n \\ k \times 1}} \underbrace{x}_{\substack{n \times 1}}$$

$z \in \mathbb{R}^k$

## Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm summary

→ After mean normalization (ensure every feature has zero mean) and optionally feature scaling:

$$\text{Sigma} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)})(x^{(i)})^T$$

→  $[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(\text{Sigma})$ ;

→  $U_{\text{reduce}} = U(:, 1:k)$ ;

→  $z = U_{\text{reduce}}' * x$ ;

↑

↑

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

~~$x_0 = 1$~~

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -x^{(1)T} \\ \vdots \\ -x^{(m)T} \end{bmatrix}$$

→  $\text{Sigma} = (1/m) * X' * X$

## Applying PCA

### Reconstruction from Compressed Representation

$$z \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{x}^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \underset{\mathbb{R}^n}{X_{approx}} = \underbrace{U_{reduce}}_{n \times k} \cdot \underbrace{z^{(1)} \dots z^{(m)}}_{k \times 1} \underset{n \times 1}{}$$

## Choosing the Number of Principal Components

### Choosing $k$ (number of principal components)

Average squared projection error:  $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^{(i)} - x_{approx}^{(i)}\|^2$

Total variation in the data:  $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^{(i)}\|^2$

Typically, choose  $k$  to be smallest value so that

$$\frac{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^{(i)} - x_{approx}^{(i)}\|^2}{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^{(i)}\|^2} \leq 0.01 \quad (1\%)$$

"99% of variance is retained"

### Choosing $k$ (number of principal components)

Algorithm:

Try PCA with  $k=1$   ~~$k=2$~~   ~~$k=3$~~   $k=4$   $\dots$

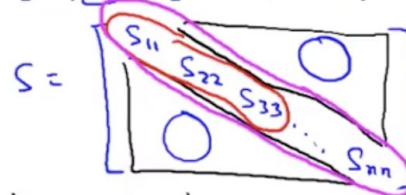
Compute  $U_{reduce}, z^{(1)}, z^{(2)}, \dots, z^{(m)}, x_{approx}^{(1)}, \dots, x_{approx}^{(m)}$

Check if

$$\frac{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^{(i)} - x_{approx}^{(i)}\|^2}{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^{(i)}\|^2} \leq 0.01?$$

$k=17$

$\rightarrow [U, S, V] = \text{svd}(\text{Sigma})$



For given  $k$

$$1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k S_{ii}}{\sum_{i=1}^n S_{ii}} \leq 0.01$$



## Advice for Applying PCA

### Bad use of PCA: To prevent overfitting

- Use  $z^{(i)}$  instead of  $x^{(i)}$  to reduce the number of features to  $k < n$ . — 1000

Thus, fewer features, less likely to overfit.

*Bad!*

This might work OK, but isn't a good way to address overfitting. Use regularization instead.

$$\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \boxed{\frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2}$$

### PCA is sometimes used where it shouldn't be

Design of ML system:

- - Get training set  $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
- - Run PCA to reduce  $x^{(i)}$  in dimension to get  $z^{(i)}$
- - Train logistic regression on  $\{(z^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (z^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
- - Test on test set: Map  $x_{test}^{(i)}$  to  $z_{test}^{(i)}$ . Run  $h_{\theta}(z)$  on  $\{(z_{test}^{(1)}, y_{test}^{(1)}), \dots, (z_{test}^{(m)}, y_{test}^{(m)})\}$

- How about doing the whole thing without using PCA?
- Before implementing PCA, first try running whatever you want to do with the original/raw data  $x^{(i)}$ . Only if that doesn't do what you want, then implement PCA and consider using  $z^{(i)}$ .

Quiz:

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If the input features are on very different scales, it is a good idea to perform feature scaling before PCA



