

# Introduction to Statistical Learning and Machine Learning

Chap 5 & Chap6 – SVM and Kernel Methods

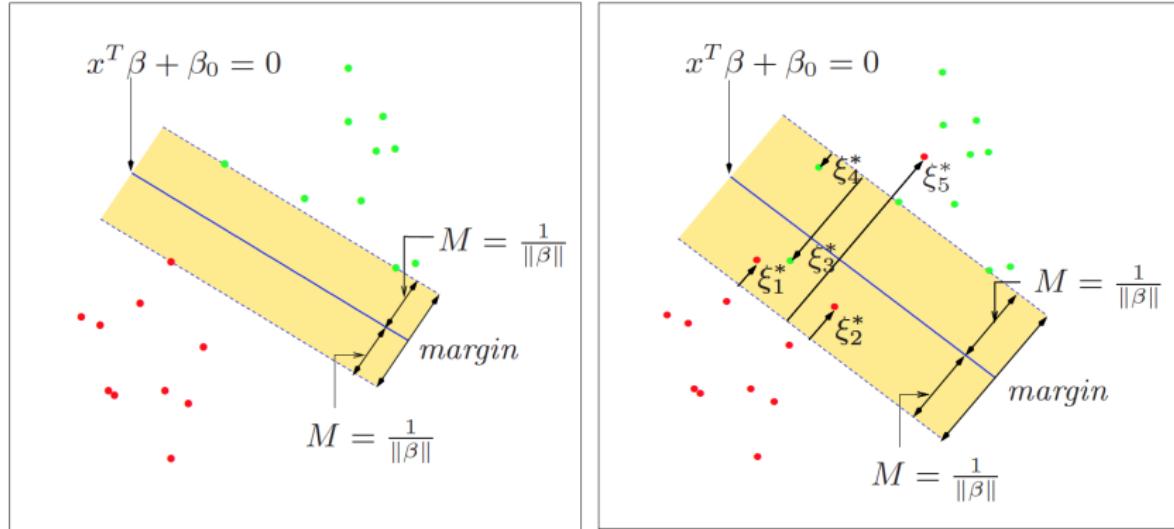
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- ① Recap of SVM and how to do the optimisation of SVM
- ② Advanced issues of Dual form and Kernels of SVM
- ③ Appendix—Practical Issues in Machine Learning Experiments





**FIGURE 12.1.** Support vector classifiers. The left panel shows the separable case. The decision boundary is the solid line, while broken lines bound the shaded maximal margin of width  $2M = 2/\|\beta\|$ . The right panel shows the nonseparable (overlap) case. The points labeled  $\xi_j^*$  are on the wrong side of their margin by an amount  $\xi_j^* = M\xi_j$ ; points on the correct side have  $\xi_j^* = 0$ . The margin is maximized subject to a total budget  $\sum \xi_i \leq \text{constant}$ . Hence  $\sum \xi_j^*$  is the total distance of points on the wrong side of their margin.

# Different Forms of SVM (seperated cases)

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\beta, \beta_0, \|\beta\|_2=1} M \\ & s.t. y_i (x_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

which is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \| \beta \|_2 \\ & s.t. y_i (x_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

A natural way to modify the constraint in Eq(1) is by introducing the slack variable  $\xi = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)$ :

$$y_i (x_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M (1 - \xi_i)$$

$$\forall i, \xi_i \geq 0, \sum_i \xi_i \leq constant$$

Remark:  $M \sum_i \xi_i$  measures the total amount distance of points on the wrong side of their margin.



# Different Forms of SVM (non-seperatable cases)

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \| \beta \|_2^2 \\ & s.t. y_i (x_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

$$\xi_i \geq 0, \sum_i \xi_i \leq constant$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \frac{1}{2} \| \beta \|_2^2 + C \sum_i \xi_i \\ & s.t. y_i (x_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \xi_i \geq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^n [1 - y_i (x_i^T \beta + \beta_0)]_+ + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| \beta \|_2^2 \quad (4)$$

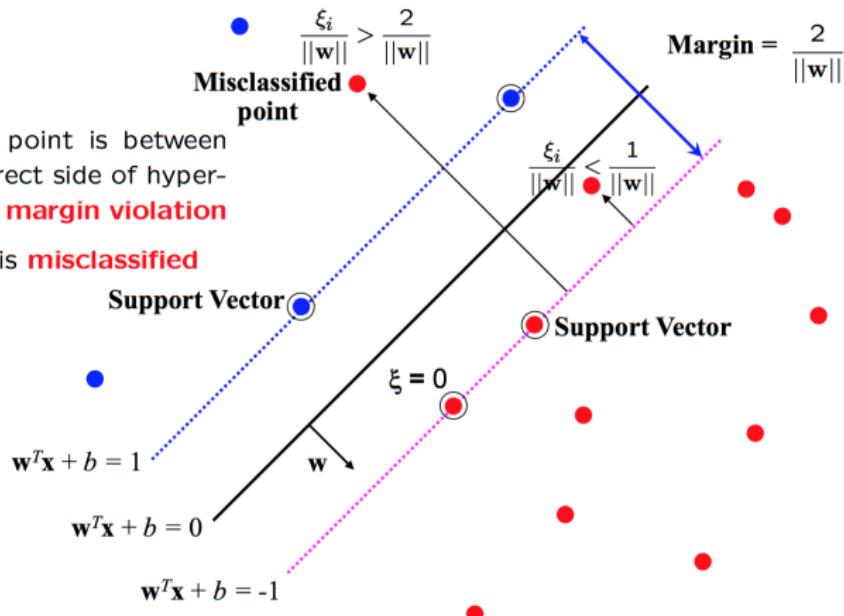
where  $x_+$  indicates the positive part of  $x$ . If  $\lambda = C/2$ , then Eq(3) and Eq(4) are equivalent.



# Introduce “slack” variables

$$\xi_i \geq 0$$

- for  $0 < \xi \leq 1$  point is between margin and correct side of hyperplane. This is a **margin violation**
- for  $\xi > 1$  point is **misclassified**



# Optimization

Learning an SVM has been formulated as a **constrained** optimization problem over  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\xi$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \xi_i \in \mathbb{R}^+} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_i^N \xi_i \text{ subject to } y_i (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \text{ for } i = 1 \dots N$$

The constraint  $y_i (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i$ , can be written more concisely as

$$y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i) \geq 1 - \xi_i$$

which, together with  $\xi_i \geq 0$ , is equivalent to

$$\xi_i = \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

Hence the learning problem is equivalent to the **unconstrained** optimization problem over  $\mathbf{w}$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \underbrace{\|\mathbf{w}\|^2}_{\text{regularization}} + C \sum_i^N \underbrace{\max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))}_{\text{loss function}}$$

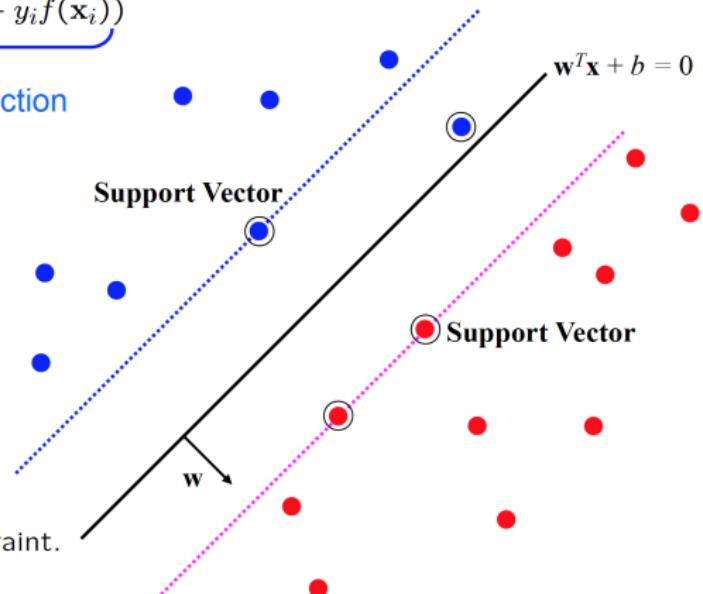


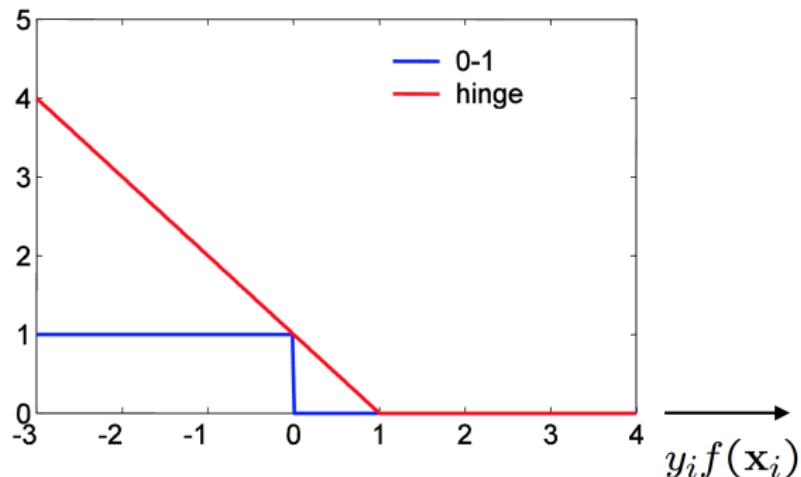
$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

loss function

Points are in three categories:

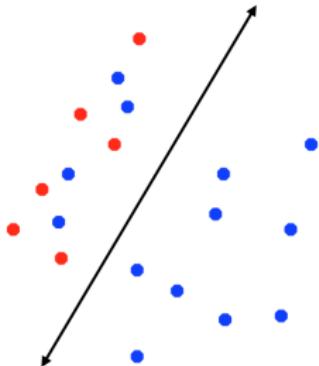
1.  $y_i f(x_i) > 1$   
Point is outside margin.  
No contribution to loss
2.  $y_i f(x_i) = 1$   
Point is on margin.  
No contribution to loss.  
As in hard margin case.
3.  $y_i f(x_i) < 1$   
Point violates margin constraint.  
Contributes to loss





- SVM uses “hinge” loss  $\max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))$
- an approximation to the 0-1 loss

# How to deal with imbalanced data?



- In many practical applications we may have **imbalanced** data sets
- We may want errors to be equally distributed between the positive and negative classes
- A slight modification to the SVM objective does the trick!

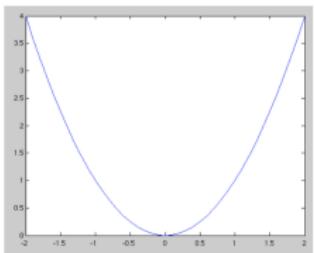
$$\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_2^2 + \frac{C}{N_+} \sum_{j : y_j=+1} \xi_j + \frac{C}{N_-} \sum_{j : y_j=-1} \xi_j$$

Class-specific weighting of the slack variables

## Constrained optimization

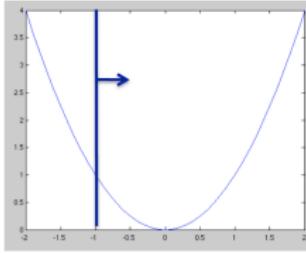
$$\begin{aligned} & \min_x \quad x^2 \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & x \geq b \end{aligned}$$

No Constraint



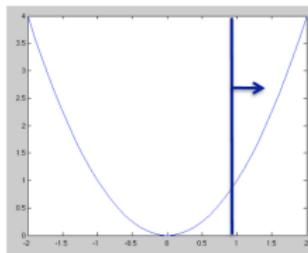
$$x^* = 0$$

$x \geq -1$



$$x^* = 0$$

$x \geq 1$

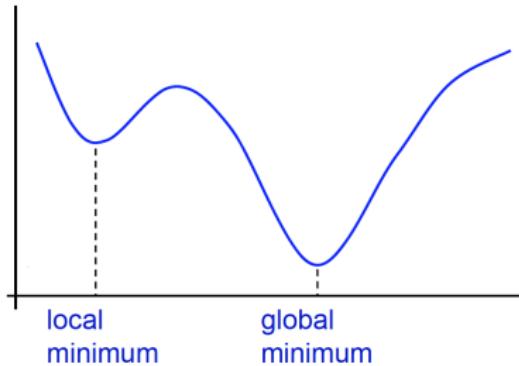


$$x^* = 1$$

How do we solve with constraints?  
→ Lagrange Multipliers!!!

# Optimization continued

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

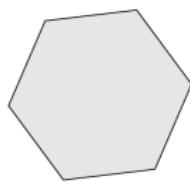


- Does this cost function have a unique solution?
- Does the solution depend on the starting point of an iterative optimization algorithm (such as gradient descent)?

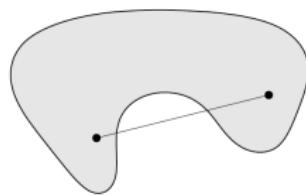
If the cost function is **convex**, then a locally optimal point is globally optimal (provided the optimization is over a convex set, which it is in our case)

contains the line segment between any two points in the set

$$x_1, x_2 \in C, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta x_1 + (1 - \theta) x_2 \in C$$



convex



not convex



not convex

**Affine set:** solution set of linear equations  $Ax = b$

**Halfspace:** solution of one linear inequality  $a^T x \leq b$  ( $a \neq 0$ )

**Polyhedron:** solution of finitely many linear inequalities  $Ax \leq b$

**Ellipsoid:** solution of positive definite quadratic inequality

$$(x - x_c)^T A(x - x_c) \leq 1 \quad (A \text{ positive definite})$$

**Norm ball:** solution of  $\|x\| \leq R$  (for any norm)

**Positive semidefinite cone:**  $\mathbf{S}_+^n = \{X \in \mathbf{S}^n \mid X \succeq 0\}$

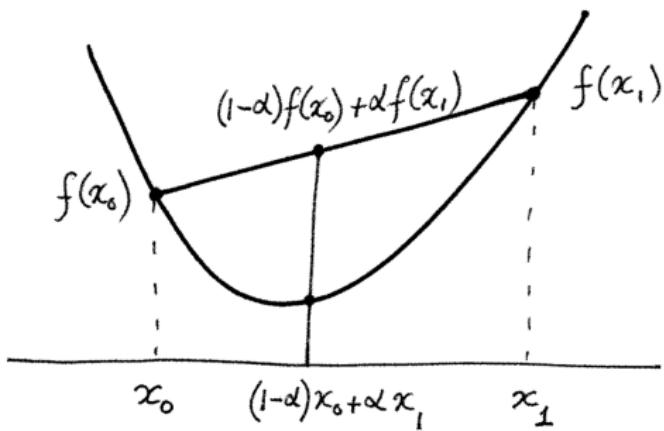
the **intersection** of any number of convex sets is convex

$D$  – a domain in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

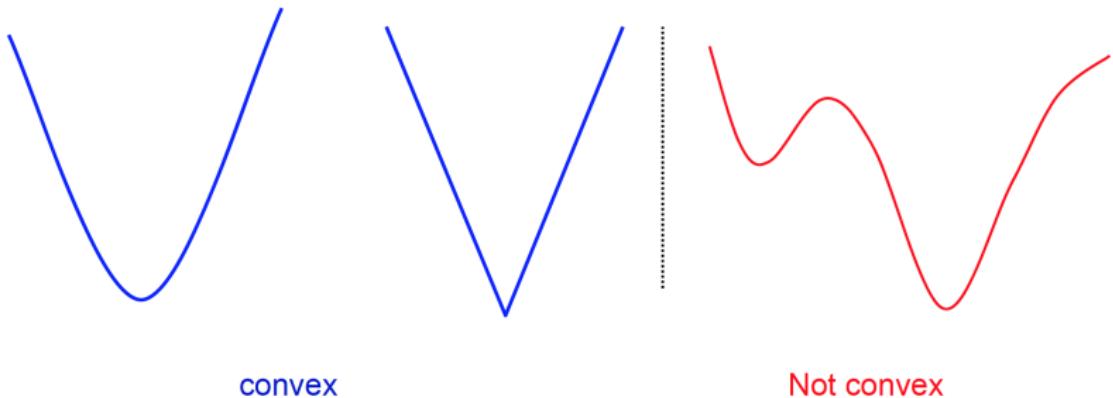
A **convex function**  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is one that satisfies, for any  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  in  $D$ :

$$f((1 - \alpha)x_0 + \alpha x_1) \leq (1 - \alpha)f(x_0) + \alpha f(x_1).$$

Line joining  $(x_0, f(x_0))$  and  $(x_1, f(x_1))$  lies above the function graph.



# Convex function examples



A non-negative sum of convex functions is convex

- linear and affine functions are convex and concave
- $\exp x$ ,  $-\log x$ ,  $x \log x$  are convex
- $x^\alpha$  is convex for  $x > 0$  and  $\alpha \geq 1$  or  $\alpha \leq 0$ ;  $|x|^\alpha$  is convex for  $\alpha \geq 1$
- norms are convex
- quadratic-over-linear function  $x^T x/t$  is convex in  $x$ ,  $t$  for  $t > 0$
- geometric mean  $(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n)^{1/n}$  is concave for  $x \geq 0$
- $\log \det X$  is concave on set of positive definite matrices
- $\log(e^{x_1} + \cdots e^{x_n})$  is convex



As for SVM, we have ...



SVM

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \quad \text{convex}$$



# Gradient (or steepest) descent algorithm for SVM

To minimize a cost function  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{w})$  use the iterative update

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t - \eta_t \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{w}_t)$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate.

First, rewrite the optimization problem as an [average](#)

$$\begin{aligned}\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N \left( \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)) \right)\end{aligned}$$

(with  $\lambda = 2/(NC)$  up to an overall scale of the problem) and  
 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b$

Because the hinge loss is not differentiable, a [sub-gradient](#) is computed

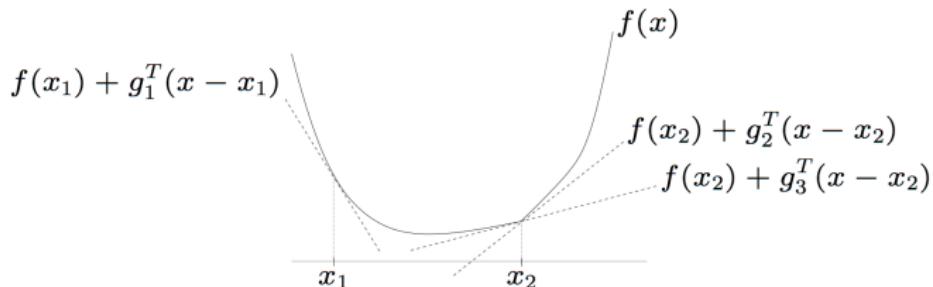


# Subgradient of a function

$g$  is a **subgradient** of  $f$  (not necessarily convex) at  $x$  if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + g^T(y - x) \quad \text{for all } y$$

( $\iff$   $(g, -1)$  supports **epi**  $f$  at  $(x, f(x))$ )



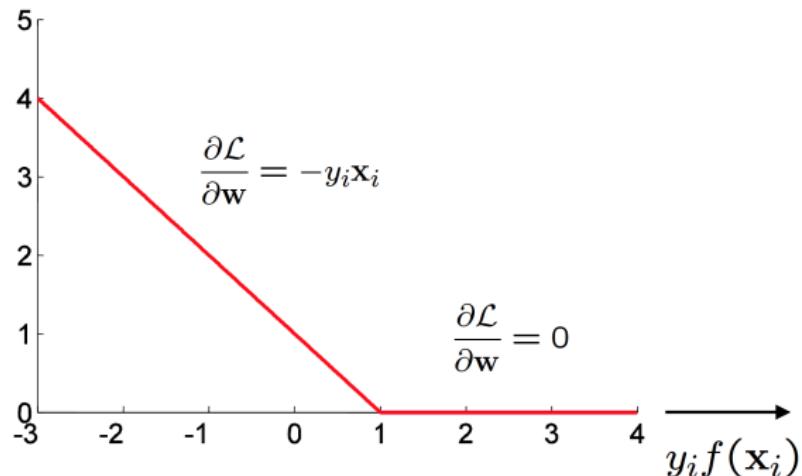
$g_2, g_3$  are subgradients at  $x_2$ ;  $g_1$  is a subgradient at  $x_1$

Prof. S. Boyd, EE392o, Stanford University



# Sub-gradient for hinge loss

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i; \mathbf{w}) = \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)) \quad f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b$$



# Sub-gradient descent algorithm for SVM

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N \left( \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i; \mathbf{w}) \right)$$

The iterative update is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}_{t+1} &\leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_t} \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{w}_t) \\ &\leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t - \eta \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N (\lambda \mathbf{w}_t + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i; \mathbf{w}_t)) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate.

Then each iteration  $t$  involves cycling through the training data with the updates:

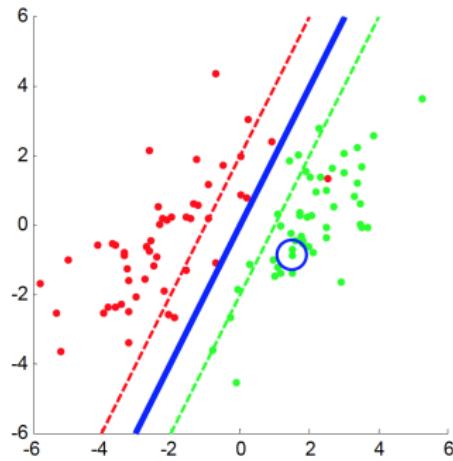
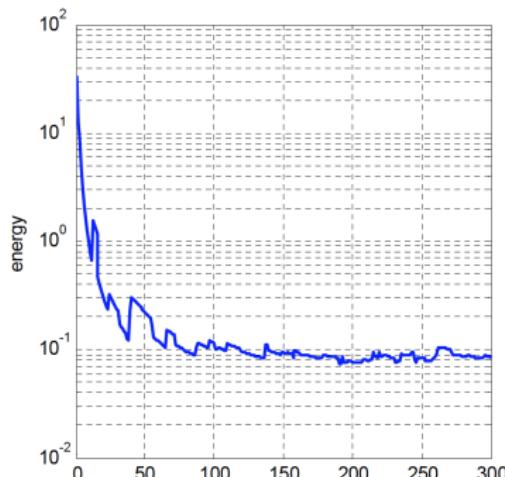
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}_{t+1} &\leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t - \eta (\lambda \mathbf{w}_t - y_i \mathbf{x}_i) && \text{if } y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i) < 1 \\ &\leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t - \eta \lambda \mathbf{w}_t && \text{otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

In the Pegasos algorithm the learning rate is set at  $\eta_t = \frac{1}{\lambda t}$



# Pegasos – Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithm

Randomly sample from the training data



Pegasos: Primal Estimated sub-GrAdient SOLver for SVM (ICML 2007)



Advanced issues of Dual form and Kernels of SVM

Detailed duality, please refer to Page 215 – 229, (Chap 5), Stephen  
Byod et al. “Convex Optimization” 2004, Cambridge University  
Press



- We have seen that for an SVM learning a linear classifier

$$f(x) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b$$

is formulated as solving an optimization problem over  $\mathbf{w}$  :

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

- This quadratic optimization problem is known as the **primal** problem.
- Instead, the SVM can be formulated to learn a linear classifier

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i^N \alpha_i y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}) + b$$

by solving an optimization problem over  $\alpha_i$ .

- This is known as the **dual** problem, and we will look at the advantages of this formulation.



# Sketch derivation of dual form

The [Representer Theorem](#) states that the solution  $\mathbf{w}$  can always be written as a linear combination of the training data:

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j$$

Now, substitute for  $\mathbf{w}$  in  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \left( \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j \right)^\top \mathbf{x} + b = \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j (\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}) + b$$

and for  $\mathbf{w}$  in the cost function  $\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$  subject to  $y_i (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1, \forall i$

$$\|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = \left\{ \sum_j \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j \right\}^\top \left\{ \sum_k \alpha_k y_k \mathbf{x}_k \right\} = \sum_{jk} \alpha_j \alpha_k y_j y_k (\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_k)$$

Hence, an equivalent optimization problem is over  $\alpha_j$

$$\min_{\alpha_j} \sum_{jk} \alpha_j \alpha_k y_j y_k (\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_k) \text{ subject to } y_i \left( \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j (\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_i) + b \right) \geq 1, \forall i$$

and a few more steps are required to complete the derivation.



# Primal and dual formulations (1)

$N$  is number of training points, and  $d$  is dimension of feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Primal problem: for  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

Dual problem: for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^N$  (stated without proof):

$$\max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{jk} \alpha_j \alpha_k y_j y_k (\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_k) \text{ subject to } 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C \text{ for } \forall i, \text{ and } \sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

- Need to learn  $d$  parameters for primal, and  $N$  for dual
- If  $N \ll d$  then more efficient to solve for  $\alpha$  than  $\mathbf{w}$
- Dual form only involves  $(\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_k)$ . We will return to why this is an advantage when we look at kernels.



# Primal and dual formulations (2)

Primal version of classifier:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b$$

Dual version of classifier:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i^N \alpha_i y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}) + b$$

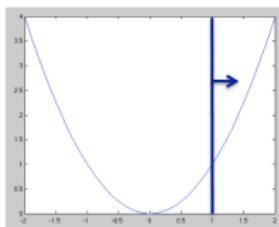
At first sight the dual form appears to have the disadvantage of a K-NN classifier – it requires the training data points  $\mathbf{x}_i$ . However, many of the  $\alpha_i$ 's are zero. The ones that are non-zero define the support vectors  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .



OK! Let's prove it by Lagrange multipliers.



# Lagrange multipliers – Dual variables



$$\begin{aligned} \min_x \quad & x^2 && \text{Add Lagrange multiplier} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & x \geq b && \text{Rewrite Constraint} \\ \text{Introduce Lagrangian (objective):} \quad & L(x, \alpha) = x^2 - \alpha(x - b) \end{aligned}$$

Why is this equivalent?

- min is fighting max!

$$x < b \rightarrow (x-b) < 0 \rightarrow \max_{\alpha} -\alpha(x-b) = \infty$$

- min won't let this happen!

$$x > b, \alpha \geq 0 \rightarrow (x-b) > 0 \rightarrow \max_{\alpha} -\alpha(x-b) = 0, \alpha^* = 0$$

- min is cool with 0, and  $L(x, \alpha) = x^2$  (original objective)

$x=b \rightarrow \alpha$  can be anything, and  $L(x, \alpha) = x^2$  (original objective)

We will solve:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_x \max_{\alpha} \quad & L(x, \alpha) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \alpha \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Add new constraint

The *min* on the outside forces *max* to behave, so constraints will be satisfied.



# Dual SVM derivation (1) – the linearly separable case

Original optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize}_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w} \\ & (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + b) y_j \geq 1, \quad \forall j \end{aligned}$$

Rewrite constraints      One Lagrange multiplier per example

Lagrangian:

$$\begin{aligned} L(\mathbf{w}, \alpha) &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w} - \sum_j \alpha_j [(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + b) y_j - 1] \\ \alpha_j &\geq 0, \quad \forall j \end{aligned}$$

Our goal now is to solve:  $\min_{\vec{w}, b} \max_{\vec{\alpha} \geq 0} L(\vec{w}, \vec{\alpha})$



# Dual SVM derivation (2) – the linearly separable case

$$\text{(Primal)} \quad \min_{\vec{w}, b} \max_{\vec{\alpha} \geq 0} \frac{1}{2} \|\vec{w}\|^2 - \sum_j \alpha_j [(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) y_j - 1]$$



Swap min and max

$$\text{(Dual)} \quad \max_{\vec{\alpha} \geq 0} \min_{\vec{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \|\vec{w}\|^2 - \sum_j \alpha_j [(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) y_j - 1]$$

Slater's condition from convex optimization guarantees that these two optimization problems are equivalent!



# Dual SVM derivation (3) – the linearly separable case

$$(\text{Dual}) \quad \max_{\vec{w} \geq 0} \min_{\vec{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \|\vec{w}\|^2 - \sum_j \alpha_j [(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) y_j - 1]$$

Can solve for optimal  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $b$  as function of  $\alpha$ :

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = w - \sum_j \alpha_j y_j x_j \rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_j \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = - \sum_j \alpha_j y_j \rightarrow \sum_j \alpha_j y_j = 0$$

Substituting these values back in (and simplifying), we obtain:

$$(\text{Dual}) \quad \max_{\vec{w} \geq 0, \sum_j \alpha_j y_j = 0} \sum_j \alpha_j - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} y_i y_j \alpha_i \alpha_j (\vec{x}_i \cdot \vec{x}_j)$$

Sums over all training examples      scalars      dot product



# Dual SVM derivation (3) – the linearly separable case

$$(\text{Dual}) \quad \max_{\vec{\alpha} \geq 0} \quad \min_{\vec{w}, b} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|\vec{w}\|^2 - \sum_j \alpha_j [(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) y_j - 1]$$

Can solve for optimal  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $b$  as function of  $\alpha$ :

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = w - \sum_j \alpha_j y_j x_j \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w} = \sum_j \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = - \sum_j \alpha_j y_j \quad \rightarrow \quad \sum_j \alpha_j y_j = 0$$

Substituting these values back in (and simplifying), we obtain:

$$(\text{Dual}) \quad \max_{\vec{\alpha} \geq 0, \sum_j \alpha_j y_j = 0} \quad \sum_j \alpha_j - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} y_i y_j \alpha_i \alpha_j (\vec{x}_i \cdot \vec{x}_j)$$

So, in dual formulation we will solve for  $\alpha$  directly!

- $\mathbf{w}$  and  $b$  are computed from  $\alpha$  (if needed)



# Dual SVM derivation (3) – the linearly separable case

Lagrangian:

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w} - \sum_j \alpha_j [(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + b) y_j - 1]$$
$$\alpha_j \geq 0, \quad \forall j$$



$\alpha_j > 0$  for some  $j$  implies constraint is tight. We use this to obtain  $b$ :

$$y_j (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$y_j y_j (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) = y_j \quad (2)$$

$$(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_j + b) = y_j \quad (3)$$



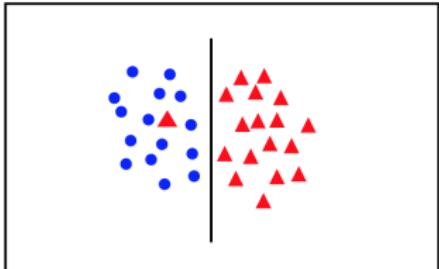
$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$b = y_k - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_k$$

for any  $k$  where  $\alpha_k > 0$

# Handling data that is not linearly separable

motivation for introducing the dual form of SVM

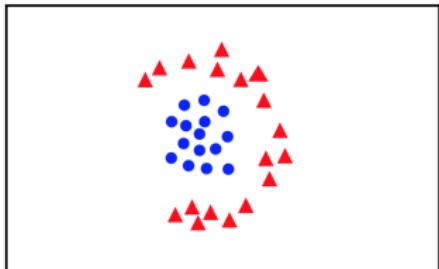


- introduce slack variables

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \xi_i \in \mathbb{R}^+} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_i^N \xi_i$$

subject to

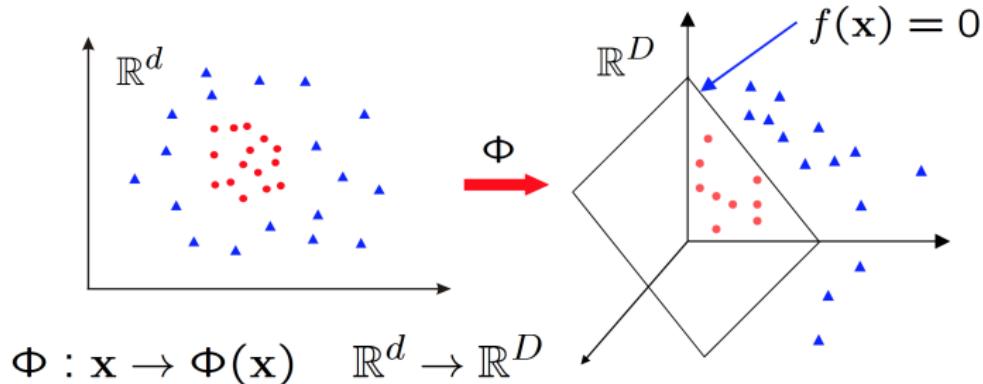
$$y_i (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \text{ for } i = 1 \dots N$$



- linear classifier not appropriate

??

# SVM classifiers in a transformed feature space



Learn classifier linear in  $\mathbf{w}$  for  $\mathbb{R}^D$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

$\Phi(\mathbf{x})$  is a **feature map**

# Primal Classifier in transformed feature space

Classifier, with  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

Learning, for  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

- Simply map  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$  where data is separable
- Solve for  $\mathbf{w}$  in high dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^D$
- If  $D \gg d$  then there are many more parameters to learn for  $\mathbf{w}$ . Can this be avoided?



# Dual Classifier in transformed feature space

Classifier:

$$\begin{aligned}f(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_i^N \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x} + b \\ \rightarrow f(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_i^N \alpha_i y_i \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + b\end{aligned}$$

Learning:

$$\begin{aligned}\max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{jk} \alpha_j \alpha_k y_j y_k \mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_k \\ \rightarrow \max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{jk} \alpha_j \alpha_k y_j y_k \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j)^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}_k)\end{aligned}$$

subject to

$$0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C \text{ for } \forall i, \text{ and } \sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$



# Dual Classifier in transformed feature space

- Note, that  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$  only occurs in pairs  $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_j)^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- Once the scalar products are computed, only the  $N$  dimensional vector  $\alpha$  needs to be learnt; it is not necessary to learn in the  $D$  dimensional space, as it is for the primal
- Write  $k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j)^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ . This is known as a **Kernel**

**Classifier:**

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i^N \alpha_i y_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) + b$$

**Learning:**

$$\max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{jk} \alpha_j \alpha_k y_j y_k k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_k)$$

subject to

$$0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C \text{ for } \forall i, \text{ and } \sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$



$$\Phi : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \Phi(\mathbf{z}) &= (x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2) \begin{pmatrix} z_1^2 \\ z_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}z_1z_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1^2 z_1^2 + x_2^2 z_2^2 + 2x_1 x_2 z_1 z_2 \\ &= (x_1 z_1 + x_2 z_2)^2 \\ &= (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2\end{aligned}$$

## Kernel Trick

- Classifier can be learnt and applied without explicitly computing  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$
- All that is required is the kernel  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2$
- Complexity of learning depends on  $N$



- **Linear** kernels  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}'$
- **Polynomial** kernels  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (1 + \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}')^d$  for any  $d > 0$ 
  - Contains all polynomials terms up to degree  $d$
- **Gaussian** kernels  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2 / 2\sigma^2)$  for  $\sigma > 0$ 
  - Infinite dimensional feature space



# SVM classifier with Gaussian kernel

$N$  = size of training data

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i^N \alpha_i y_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) + b$$

↑                      ↗  
weight (may be zero) support vector

$$\text{Gaussian kernel } k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2/2\sigma^2\right)$$

## Radial Basis Function (RBF) SVM

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \exp\left(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|^2/2\sigma^2\right) + b$$



# Constructing Kernels

Checking if a given function  $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a kernel can be hard.

- $k(x, \bar{x}) = \tanh(1 + \langle x, \bar{x} \rangle)$  ?
- $k(x, \bar{x}) = \exp(-\text{edit distance between two strings } x \text{ and } \bar{x})$  ?
- $k(x, \bar{x}) = 1 - \|x - \bar{x}\|^2$  ?

Easier: construct functions that are guaranteed to be kernels:

Construct explicitly:

- any  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  induces a kernel  $k(x, \bar{x}) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(\bar{x}) \rangle$ .  
in particular any  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $k(x, \bar{x}) = f(x)f(\bar{x})$

Construction from other kernels:

- If  $k$  is a kernel and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , then  $k + \alpha$  and  $\alpha k$  are kernels.
- if  $k_1, k_2$  are kernels, then  $k_1 + k_2$  and  $k_1 \cdot k_2$  are kernels.
- if  $k$  is a kernel, then  $\exp(k)$  is a kernel.



**kernel composition**

- a)  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) = k_a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) + k_b(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v})$
- b)  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) = fk_a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}), f > 0$
- c)  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) = k_a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v})k_b(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v})$
- d)  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{v}, A$  positive semi-definite
- e)  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) = f(\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{v})k_a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v})$

**feature composition**

- $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_a(\mathbf{x}), \phi_b(\mathbf{x})),$
- $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \sqrt{f}\phi_a(\mathbf{x})$
- $\phi_m(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_{ai}(\mathbf{x})\phi_{bj}(\mathbf{x})$
- $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = L^T \mathbf{x}$ , where  $A = LL^T$ .
- $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})\phi_a(\mathbf{x})$

Q: How would you prove that the “Gaussian kernel” is a valid kernel?

A: Expand the Euclidean norm as follows:

$$\exp\left(-\frac{\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\vec{u}\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{\|\vec{v}\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(\frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\sigma^2}\right)$$



Then, apply (e) from above

To see that this is a kernel, use the Taylor series expansion of the exponential, together with repeated application of (a), (b), and (c):

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

The feature mapping is infinite dimensional!

- Huge feature space with kernels: should we worry about overfitting?
  - SVM objective seeks a solution with large margin
    - Theory says that large margin leads to good generalization.
  - But everything overfits sometimes!!!
  - Can control by:
    - Setting C
    - Choosing a better Kernel
    - Varying parameters of the Kernel (width of Gaussian, etc.)



## Appendix—Practical Issues in Machine Learning Experiments



# Optimizing the SVM Dual (kernelized)

How to solve the QP

$$\max_{\alpha^1, \dots, \alpha^n \in \mathbb{R}} -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha^i \alpha^j y^i y^j k(x^i, x^j) + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha^i$$

subject to  $\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$  and  $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Observations:

- Kernel matrix  $K$  (with entries  $k_{ij} = k(x^i, x^j)$ ) might be too big to fit into memory.
- In the optimum, many of the  $\alpha_i$  are 0 and do not contribute.  
If we knew which ones, we would save a lot of work



# Optimizing the SVM Dual (kernelized)

## Working set training [Osuna 1997]

```
1:  $S = \emptyset$ 
2: repeat
3:    $\alpha \leftarrow$  solve QP with variables  $\alpha_i$  for  $i \in S$  and  $\alpha_i = 0$  for  $i \notin S$ 
4:   for  $i = 1 \dots, n$  do
5:     if if  $i \in S$  and  $\alpha_i = 0$  then remove  $i$  from  $S$ 
6:     if if  $i \notin S$  and  $\alpha_i$  not optimal then add  $i$  to  $S$ 
7:   end for
8: until convergence
```

Advantages:

- objective value increases monotonously
- converges to global optimum

Disadvantages:

- each step is computationally costly, since  $S$  can become large



## Sequential Minimal Optimization (SMO) [Platt 1998]

- 1:  $\alpha \leftarrow 0$
- 2: **repeat**
- 3:   pick index  $i$  such that  $\alpha_i$  is not optimal
- 4:   pick index  $j \neq i$  arbitrarily (usually based on some heuristic)
- 5:    $\alpha_i, \alpha_j \leftarrow$  solve QP for  $\alpha_i, \alpha_j$  and all other  $\alpha_k$  fixed
- 6: **until** convergence

Advantages:

- converges monotonously to global optimum
- each step optimizes a subproblem of smallest possible size:  
2 unknowns (1 doesn't work because of constraint  $\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$ )
- subproblems have a closed-form solution

Disadvantages:

- many iterations are required
- many kernel values  $k(x^i, x^j)$  are computed more than once  
(unless  $K$  is stored as matrix)



# SVMs Without Bias Term– Optimization

For optimization, the *bias term* is an annoyance

- In primal optimization, it often requires a different stepsize.
- In dual optimization, it is not straight-forward to recover.
- It couples the dual variables by an equality constraint:  $\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$ .

We can get rid of the bias by the **augmentation trick**.

Original:

- $f(x) = \langle w, x \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^d} + b$ , with  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

New augmented:

- linear:  $f(x) = \langle \tilde{w}, \tilde{x} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^{d+1}}$ , with  $\tilde{w} = (w, b)$ ,  $\tilde{x} = (x, 1)$ .
- generalized:  $f(x) = \langle \tilde{w}, \tilde{\phi}(x) \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}$  with  $\tilde{w} = (w, b)$ ,  $\tilde{\phi}(x) = (\phi(x), 1)$ .
- kernelize:  $\tilde{k}(x, \bar{x}) = \langle \tilde{\phi}(x), \tilde{\phi}(\bar{x}) \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}} = k(x, \bar{x}) + 1$ .



# SVMs Without Bias Term– Optimization

## SVM without bias term – primal optimization problem

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d, \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi^i$$

subject to, for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,

$$y^i \langle w, x^i \rangle \geq 1 - \xi^i, \quad \text{and} \quad \xi^i \geq 0.$$

Difference: no  $b$  variable to optimize over



# SVMs Without Bias Term– Optimization

## SVM without bias term – primal optimization problem

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d, \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi^i$$

subject to, for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,

$$y^i \langle w, x^i \rangle \geq 1 - \xi^i, \quad \text{and} \quad \xi^i \geq 0.$$

Difference: no  $b$  variable to optimize over

## SVM without bias term – dual optimization problem

$$\max_{\alpha} -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^i y^j k(x^i, x^j) + \sum_i \alpha_i$$

subject to,  $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Difference: no constraint  $\sum_i y_i \alpha_i = 0$ .



# Linear SVM Optimization in the Dual

## Stochastic Coordinate Dual Ascent

```
 $\alpha \leftarrow \mathbf{0}.$ 
for  $t = 1, \dots, T$  do
     $i \leftarrow$  random index (uniformly random or in epochs)
    solve QP w.r.t.  $\alpha_i$  with all  $\alpha_j$  for  $j \neq i$  fixed.
end for
return  $\alpha$ 
```

Properties:

- converges monotonically to global optimum
- each subproblem has smallest possible size

Open Problem:

- how to make each step efficient?



# SVM Optimization in the Dual

What's the complexity of the update step? Derive an explicit expression:

Original problem:  $\max_{\alpha \in [0, C]^n} -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^i y^j k(x^i, x^j) + \sum_i \alpha_i$



# SVM Optimization in the Dual

What's the complexity of the update step? Derive an explicit expression:

Original problem:  $\max_{\alpha \in [0, C]^n} -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^i y^j k(x^i, x^j) + \sum_i \alpha_i$

When all  $\alpha_j$  except  $\alpha_i$  are fixed:  $\max_{\alpha_i \in [0, C]} F(\alpha_i)$ , with

$$F(\alpha_i) = -\frac{1}{2} \alpha_i^2 k(x^i, x^i) + \alpha_i \left( 1 - y^i \sum_{j \neq i} \alpha_j y^j k(x^i, x^j) \right) + \text{const.}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_i} F(\alpha_i) = -\alpha_i k(x^i, x^i) + \left( 1 - y^i \sum_{j \neq i} \alpha_j y^j k(x^i, x^j) \right) + \text{const.}$$

$$\alpha_i^{\text{opt}} = \alpha_i + \frac{1 - y^i \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y^j k(x^i, x^j)}{k(x^i, x^i)}, \quad \alpha_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha_i^{\text{opt}} < 0, \\ C & \text{if } \alpha_i^{\text{opt}} > C, \\ \alpha_i^{\text{opt}} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(except if  $k(x^i, x^i) = 0$ , but then  $k(x^i, x^j) = 0$ , so  $\alpha_i$  has no influence)

Observation: each update has complexity  $O(n)$ .



# (Generalized) Linear SVM Optimization in the Dual

Let  $k(x, \bar{x}) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(\bar{x}) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  for explicitly known  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ .

$$\alpha_i^{\text{opt}} = \alpha_i + \frac{1 - y^i \sum_j \alpha_j y^j k(x^i, x^j)}{k(x^i, x^i)},$$

remember  $w = \sum_j \alpha_j y_j \phi(x^j)$

$$= \alpha_i + \frac{1 - y^i \langle w, \phi(x^i) \rangle}{\|\phi(x^i)\|^2},$$

- each update takes  $O(d)$ , independent of  $n$ 
  - ▶  $\langle w, \phi(x^i) \rangle$  takes at most  $O(d)$  for explicit  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d, \phi(x^i) \in \mathbb{R}^d$
  - ▶ we must also take care that  $w$  remains up to date (also at most  $O(d)$ )



# (Generalized) Linear SVM Optimization in the Dual

## SCDA for (Generalized) Linear SVMs [Hsieh, 2008]

```
initialize  $\alpha \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$ ,  $w \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$ 
for  $t = 1, \dots, T$  do
     $i \leftarrow$  random index (uniformly random or in epochs)
     $\delta \leftarrow \frac{1 - y^i \langle w, \phi(x^i) \rangle}{\|\phi(x^i)\|^2}$ 
     $\alpha_i \leftarrow \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \alpha_i + \delta < 0, \\ C, & \text{if } \alpha_i + \delta > C, \\ \alpha_i + \delta, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ 
     $w \leftarrow w + \delta y^i \phi(x^i)$ 
end for
return  $\alpha, w$ 
```

Properties:

- converges monotonically to global optimum
- complexity of each step is independent of  $n$
- resembles stochastic gradient method, but **automatic step size**



You've trained a new predictor,  $g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ , and you want to tell the world how good it is. How to measure this?

### Reminder:

- The average loss on the training set,  $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_{trn}|} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}_{trn}} \ell(y, g(x))$  tells us (almost) nothing about the future loss.  
Reporting it would be misleading at best.
- The relevant quantity is the expected risk,

$$\mathcal{R}(g) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim p(x,y)} \ell(y, g(x))$$

which unfortunately we cannot compute, since  $p(x, y)$  is unknown.

- If we have data  $\mathcal{D}_{tst} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p(x, y)$ , we have,

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_{tst}|} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}_{tst}} \ell(y, g(x)) \xrightarrow{|\mathcal{D}_{tst}| \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim p(x,y)} \ell(y, g(x))$$

- Problem: samples  $\ell(y, g(x))$  must be independent, otherwise law of large numbers doesn't hold.
- Make sure that  $g$  is independent of  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$ .

## Classifier Training (idealized)

**input** training data  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$

**input** learning procedure  $A$

$g \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D}]$  (apply  $A$  with  $\mathcal{D}$  as training set)

**output** resulting classifier  $g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$

## Classifier Evaluation

**input** trained classifier  $g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$

**input** test data  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$

apply  $g$  to  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  and measure performance  $R_{tst}$

**output** performance estimate  $R_{tst}$

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**Remark:** In commercial applications, this is realistic:

- given some training set one builds a single system,
- one deploys it to the customers,
- the customers use it on their own data, and complain if disappointed

In research, one typically has no customer, but only a fixed amount of data to work with, so one *simulates* the above protocol.

## Classifier Training and Evaluation

**input** data  $\mathcal{D}$

**input** learning method  $A$

split  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_{trn} \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_{tst}$  disjointly

set aside  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  to a safe place // do not look at it

$g \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D}_{trn}]$  // learn a predictor from  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$

apply  $g$  to  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  and measure performance  $R_{tst}$

**output** performance estimate  $R_{tst}$

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$g \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D}_{trn}]$  // learn a predictor from  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$

apply  $g$  to  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  and measure performance  $R_{tst}$

**output** performance estimate  $R_{tst}$

**Remark.**  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  should be as small as possible, to keep  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  as big as possible, but large enough to be convincing.

- sometimes: 50%/50% for small datasets
- more often: 80% training data, 20% test data
- for large datasets: 90% training, 10% test data.

**Remark:** The split because  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  must be absolute.

- Do not use  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  for anything except the very last step.
- Do not look at  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$ ! Even if the learning algorithm doesn't see it, you looking at it can and will influence your model design or parameter selection (human overfitting).
- In particular, this applies to datasets that come with predefined set of test data, such as MNIST, PASCAL VOC, ImageNet, etc.

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In practice we often want more: not just evaluate one classifier, but

- select the best algorithm or parameters amongst multiple ones

We simulate the classifier evaluation step during the training procedure.  
This needs (at least) one additional data split:

## Training and Selecting between Multiple Models

**input** data  $\mathcal{D}$

**input** set of method  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_K\}$

split  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_{trnval} \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_{tst}$  disjointly

set aside  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  to a safe place (do not look at it)

split  $\mathcal{D}_{trnval} = \mathcal{D}_{trn} \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_{val}$  disjointly

**for all** models  $A_i \in \mathcal{A}$  **do**

$g_i \leftarrow A_i[\mathcal{D}_{trn}]$

apply  $g_i$  to  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$  and measure performance  $E_{val}(A_i)$

**end for**

pick best performing  $A_i$

(optional)  $g_i \leftarrow A_i[\mathcal{D}_{trnval}]$  // retrain on larger dataset

apply  $g_i$  to  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  and measure performance  $R_{tst}$

**output** performance estimate  $R_{tst}$

How to split? For example 1/3–1/3–1/3 or 70%–10%–20%.

## Discussion.

- Each algorithm is trained on  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  and evaluated on disjoint  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$  ✓
- You select a predictor based on  $E_{val}$  (its performance on  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$ ), only afterwards  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  is used. ✓
- $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  is used to evaluate the final predictor and nothing else. ✓

## Discussion.

- Each algorithm is trained on  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  and evaluated on disjoint  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$  ✓
- You select a predictor based on  $E_{val}$  (its performance on  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$ ), only afterwards  $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  is used. ✓
- $\mathcal{D}_{tst}$  is used to evaluate the final predictor and nothing else. ✓

## Problems.

- small  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$  is bad:  $E_{val}$  could be bad estimate of  $g_A$ 's true performance, and we might pick a suboptimal method.
- large  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$  is bad:  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  is much smaller than  $\mathcal{D}_{trnval}$ , so the classifier learned on  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  might be much worse than necessary.
- retraining the best model on  $\mathcal{D}_{trnval}$  might overcome that, but it comes at a risk: just because a model worked well when trained on  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$ , this does not mean it'll also work well when trained on  $\mathcal{D}_{trnval}$ .

## Leave-one-out Evaluation (for a single model/algorithm)

```
input algorithm  $A$ 
input loss function  $\ell$ 
input data  $\mathcal{D}$       (trnval part only: test part set aside earlier)
for all  $(x^i, y^i) \in \mathcal{D}$  do
     $g^{\neg i} \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D} \setminus \{(x^i, y^i)\}]$     //  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$  is  $\mathcal{D}$  with  $i$ -th example removed
     $r^i \leftarrow \ell(y^i, g^{\neg i}(x^i))$            //  $\mathcal{D}_{val} = \{(x^i, y^i)\}$ , disjoint to  $\mathcal{D}_{trn}$ 
end for
output  $R_{loo} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n r^i$     (average leave-one-out risk)
```

### Properties.

- Each  $r^i$  is a unbiased (but noisy) estimate of the risk  $\mathcal{R}(g^{\neg i})$
- $\mathcal{D} \setminus \{(x^i, y^i)\}$  is almost the same as  $\mathcal{D}$ , so we can hope that each  $g^{\neg i}$  is almost the same as  $g = A[\mathcal{D}]$ .
- Therefore,  $R_{loo}$  can be expected a good estimate of  $\mathcal{R}(g)$

**Problem:** slow, trains  $n$  times on  $n - 1$  examples instead of once on  $n$

Compromise: use fixed number of small  $\mathcal{D}_{val}$

## K-fold Cross Validation (CV)

```
input algorithm  $A$ , loss function  $\ell$ , data  $\mathcal{D}$  (trnval part)
    split  $\mathcal{D} = \dot{\cup}_{k=1}^K \mathcal{D}_k$  into  $K$  equal sized disjoint parts
    for  $k = 1, \dots, K$  do
         $g^{-k} \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_k]$ 
         $r^k \leftarrow \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_k|} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}_k} \ell(y^i, g^{-k}(x))$ 
    end for
output  $R_{K\text{-cv}} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^n r^k$  ( $K$ -fold cross-validation risk)
```

### Observation.

- for  $K = |\mathcal{D}|$  same as leave-one-out error.
- approximately  $k$  times increase in runtime.
- most common:  $k = 10$  or  $k = 5$ .

**Problem:** training sets overlap, so the error estimates are correlated.

Exception:  $K = 2$

## $5 \times 2$ Cross Validation ( $5 \times 2\text{-CV}$ )

**input** algorithm  $A$ , loss function  $\ell$ , data  $\mathcal{D}$  (trnval part)

**for**  $k = 1, \dots, 5$  **do**

    Split  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_1 \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_2$

$g_1 \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D}_1]$ ,

$r_1^k \leftarrow \text{evaluate } g_1 \text{ on } \mathcal{D}_2$

$g_2 \leftarrow A[\mathcal{D}_2]$ ,

$r_2^k \leftarrow \text{evaluate } g_2 \text{ on } \mathcal{D}_1$

$r^k \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}(r_1^k + r_2^k)$

**end for**

**output**  $E_{5 \times 2} = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{k=1}^5 r^k$

### Observation.

- $5 \times 2\text{-CV}$  is really the average of 5 runs of 2-fold CV
- very easy to implement: shuffle the data and split into halves
- within each run the training sets are disjoint and the classifiers  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  are independent

**Problem:** training sets are smaller than in 5- or 10-fold CV.

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