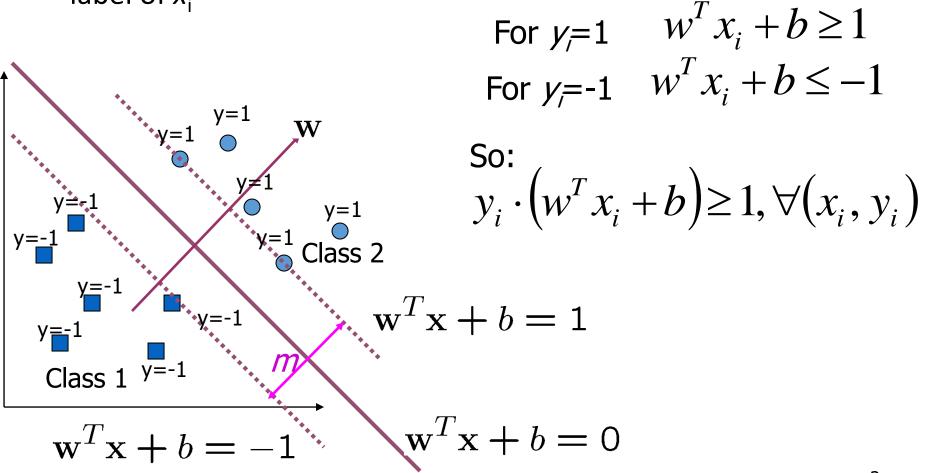
# Machine Learning

Sourangshu Bhattacharya

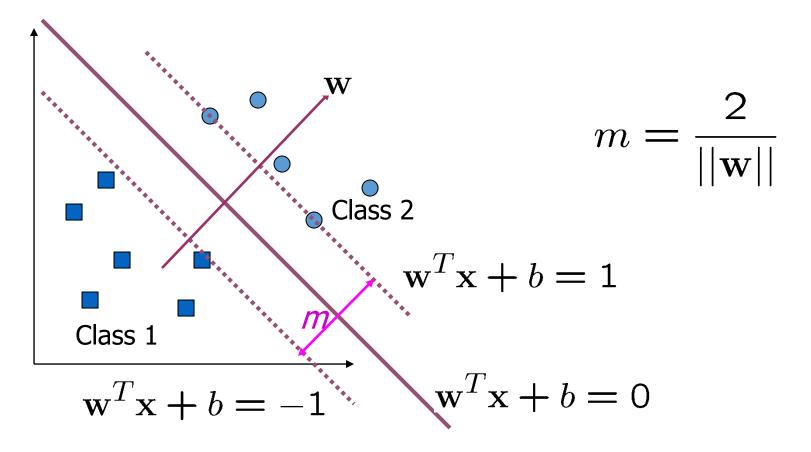
# Support vector machines

• Let  $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$  be our data set and let  $y_i \in \{1,-1\}$  be the class label of  $x_i$ 



## Large-margin Decision Boundary

- The decision boundary should be as far away from the data of both classes as possible
  - We should maximize the margin, m



# Finding the Decision Boundary

The decision boundary should classify all points correctly ⇒

$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1, \quad \forall i$$

 The decision boundary can be found by solving the following constrained optimization problem

Minimize 
$$\frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{w}||^2$$
 subject to  $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b)\geq 1$   $\forall i$ 

 This is a constrained optimization problem. Solving it requires to use Lagrange multipliers

#### KKT Conditions

• Problem:

$$\min_{x} f(x)$$
 sub. to:  $g_i(x) \le 0 \ \forall i$ 

- Lagrangian:  $L(x, \mu) = f(x) \sum_{i} \mu_{i} g_{i}(x)$
- Conditions:
  - Stationarity:  $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mu) = 0$ .
  - Primal feasibility:  $g_i(x) \leq 0 \quad \forall i$ .
  - Dual feasibility:  $\mu_i \geq 0$ .
  - Complementary slackness:  $\mu_i g_i(x) = 0$ .

# Finding the Decision Boundary

Minimize 
$$\frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{w}||^2$$
  
subject to  $1-y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b) \leq 0$  for  $i=1,\ldots,n$ 

The Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left( 1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \right)$$

- α<sub>i</sub>≥0
- Note that  $||\mathbf{w}||^2 = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{w}$

• Setting the gradient of  $\mathcal{L}$  w.r.t. w and b to zero, we have

$$L = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} w + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (1 - y_{i} (w^{T} x_{i} + b)) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} w^{k} w^{k} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (1 - y_{i} (\sum_{k=1}^{m} w^{k} x_{i}^{k} + b))$$

n: no of examples, m: dimension of the space

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w^k} = 0, \forall k & \mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (-y_i) \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \mathbf{0} & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = \mathbf{0} \end{cases}$$

• If we substitute  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}$  to  $\mathcal{L}$  , we have

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \left( 1 - y_i (\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i - b \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i$$

Since 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

• This is a function of  $\alpha_i$  only

- The new objective function is in terms of  $\alpha_i$  only
- It is known as the dual problem: if we know **w**, we know all  $\alpha_i$ ; if we know all  $\alpha_i$ , we know **w**
- The original problem is known as the primal problem.
- The objective function of the dual problem needs to be maximized (comes out from the KKT theory)
- The dual problem is therefore:

max. 
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1, j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

subject to 
$$\alpha_i \ge 0$$
,  $\sum_{i=1} \alpha_i y_i = 0$ 

Properties of  $\alpha_i$  when we introduce the Lagrange multipliers

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

The result when we differentiate the original Lagrangian w.r.t. b

max. 
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
 subject to  $\alpha_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$ 

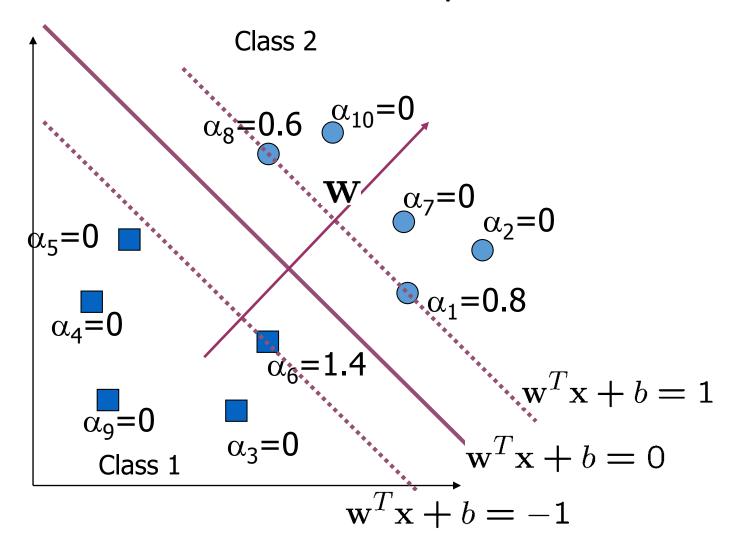
- This is a quadratic programming (QP) problem
  - A global maximum of  $\alpha_{\rm i}$  can always be found
- w can be recovered by

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

#### Characteristics of the Solution

- Many of the  $\alpha_i$  are zero
  - Complementary slackness:  $\alpha_i (1 y_i (w^T x_i + b)) = 0$
  - Sparse representation: w is a linear combination of a small number of data points
- $\mathbf{x}_{i}$  with non-zero  $\alpha_{i}$  are called support vectors (SV)
  - The decision boundary is determined only by the SV
  - Let  $t_j$  (j=1, ..., s) be the indices of the s support vectors. We can write  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}$

#### A Geometrical Interpretation

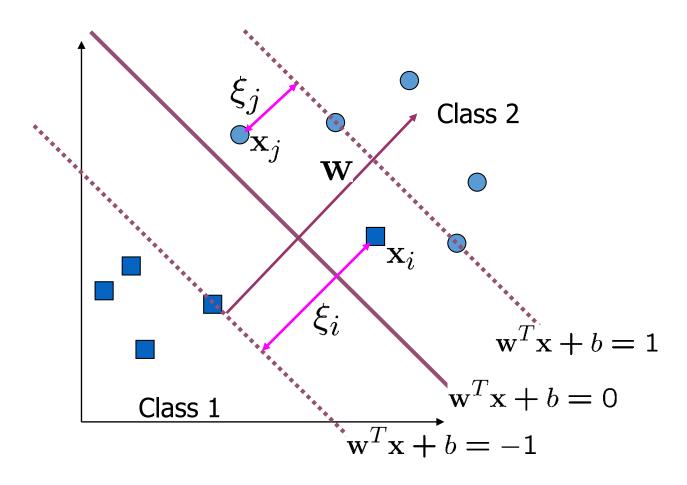


#### Characteristics of the Solution

- For testing with a new data z
  - Compute  $\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z} + b = \sum_{j=1}^s \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j}(\mathbf{x}_{t_j}^T\mathbf{z}) + b$  and classify  $\mathbf{z}$  as class 1 if the sum is positive, and class 2 otherwise
  - Note: w need not be formed explicitly

#### Non-linearly Separable Problems

- We allow "error"  $\xi_i$  in classification; it is based on the output of the discriminant function  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$
- $\xi_i$  approximates the number of misclassified samples



# Soft Margin Hyperplane

The new conditions become

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \ge 1 - \xi_i & y_i = 1 \\ \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \le -1 + \xi_i & y_i = -1 \\ \xi_i \ge 0 & \forall i \end{cases}$$

- $\xi_i$  are "slack variables" in optimization
- Note that  $\xi_i$ =0 if there is no error for  $\mathbf{x}_i$
- $\xi_i$  is an upper bound of the number of errors
- We want to minimize

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

subject to 
$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad \xi_i \geq 0$$

• C: tradeoff parameter between error and margin

# The Optimization Problem

$$L = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} w + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (1 - \xi_{i} - y_{i} (w^{T} x_{i} + b)) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i} \xi_{i}$$

#### With a and $\mu$ Lagrange multipliers, POSITIVE

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = w_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i x_{ij} = 0$$

$$\vec{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \vec{x}_i = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \xi_j} = C - \alpha_j - \mu_j = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i = 0$$

$$\begin{split} L &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \vec{x}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}_{j} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} + \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \left( 1 - \xi_{i} - y_{i} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} x_{j}^{T} x_{i} + b \right) \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i} \xi_{i} \end{split}$$

With 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i = 0$$
 and  $C = \alpha_j + \mu_j$ 

$$L = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \vec{x}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$

## The Optimization Problem

The dual of this new constrained optimization problem is

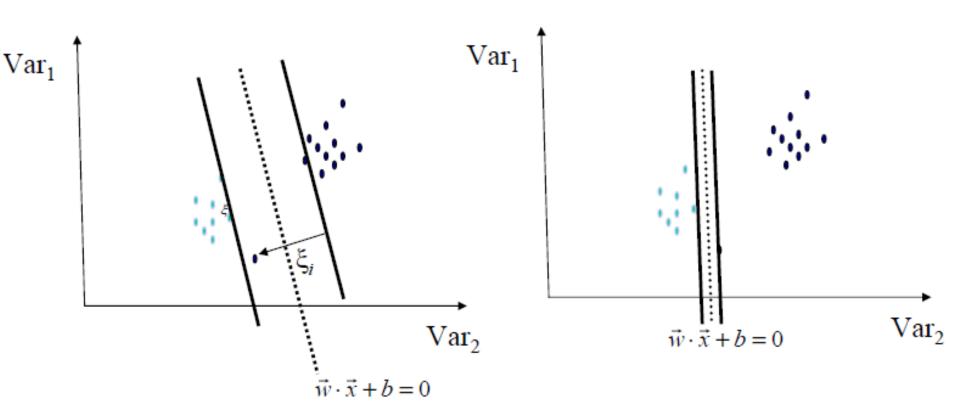
max. 
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
  
subject to  $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$ 

- New constraints derived from  $\,C = \alpha_j + \mu_j\,$  since  $\mu$  and  $\alpha$  are positive.
- **w** is recovered as  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^s lpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}$
- This is very similar to the optimization problem in the linear separable case, except that there is an upper bound  ${\it C}$  on  $\alpha_{\rm i}$  now
- Once again, a QP solver can be used to find  $\alpha_{\rm i}$

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

- The algorithm try to keep  $\xi$  low, maximizing the margin
- The algorithm does not minimize the number of error. Instead, it minimizes the sum of distances from the hyperplane.
- When C increases the number of errors tend to lower. At the limit of C tending to infinite, the solution tend to that given by the hard margin formulation, with 0 errors

# Soft margin is more robust to outliers



Soft Margin SVM

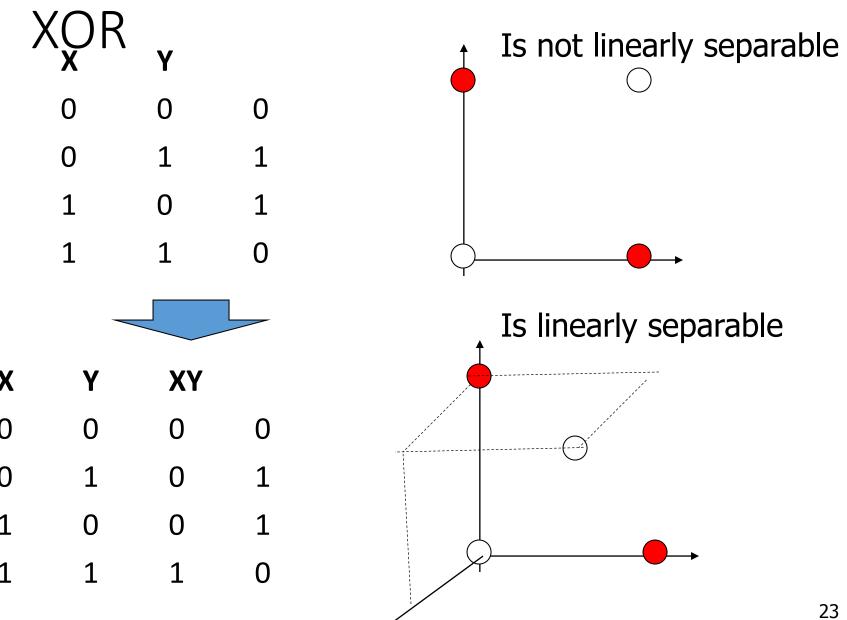
Hard Margin SVM

# Extension to Non-linear Decision Boundary

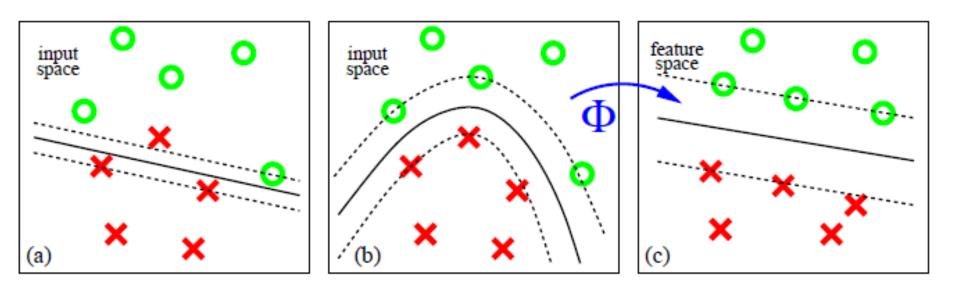
- So far, we have only considered large-margin classifier with a linear decision boundary
- How to generalize it to become nonlinear?
- Key idea: transform  $\mathbf{x}_i$  to a higher dimensional space to "make life easier"
  - Input space: the space the point x<sub>i</sub> are located
  - Feature space: the space of  $\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$  after transformation
- Why transform?
  - Linear operation in the feature space is equivalent to nonlinear operation in input space
  - Classification can become easier with a proper transformation. In the XOR problem, for example, adding a new feature of  $x_1x_2$  make the problem linearly separable

# Extension to Non-linear Decision Boundary

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# Find a feature space



# Transforming the Data $\phi(.)$ $\phi(.)$

Note: feature space is of higher dimension than the input space in practice

- Computation in the feature space can be costly because it is high dimensional
  - The feature space is typically infinite-dimensional!
- The kernel trick comes to rescue

#### The Kernel Trick

• Recall the SVM optimization problem

max. 
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
 subject to  $C \geq \alpha_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$ 

- The data points only appear as inner product
- As long as we can calculate the inner product in the feature space, we do not need the mapping explicitly
- Many common geometric operations (angles, distances) can be expressed by inner products
- Define the kernel function K by

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

# An Example for $\phi(.)$ and K(.,.)

• Suppose  $\phi(.)$  is given as follows

$$\phi(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}) = (1, \sqrt{2}x_1, \sqrt{2}x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2)$$

An inner product in the feature space is

$$\langle \phi(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}), \phi(\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}) \rangle = (1 + x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)^2$$

• So, if we define the kernel function as follows, there is no need to carry out  $\phi(.)$  explicitly

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (1 + x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)^2$$

• This use of kernel function to avoid carrying out  $\phi(.)$  explicitly is known as the kernel trick

#### Kernels

• Given a mapping:  $x \rightarrow \phi(x)$ 

a kernel is represented as the inner product

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \to \sum_{i} \varphi_{i}(\mathbf{x}) \varphi_{i}(\mathbf{y})$$

A kernel must satisfy the Mercer's condition:

$$\forall g(\mathbf{x}) \int K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) g(\mathbf{x}) g(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y} \ge 0$$

#### Modification Due to Kernel Function

- Change all inner products to kernel functions
- For training,

Original

max. 
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
  
subject to  $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$ 

With kernel max. 
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$
 function

subject to 
$$C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

#### Modification Due to Kernel Function

• For testing, the new data **z** is classified as class 1 if  $f \ge$ 0, and as class 2 if *f* < 0

Original

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}$$
$$f = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z} + b = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}^T \mathbf{z} + b$$

function

With kernel 
$$y = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{t_j})$$
 With kernel function 
$$f = \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{z}) \rangle + b = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} K(\mathbf{x}_{t_j}, \mathbf{z}) + b$$

#### More on Kernel Functions

- Since the training of SVM only requires the value of  $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ , there is no restriction of the form of  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{x}_j$ 
  - x<sub>i</sub> can be a sequence or a tree, instead of a feature vector
- $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  is just a similarity measure comparing  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{x}_j$
- For a test object z, the discriminant function essentially is a weighted sum of the similarity between z and a pre-selected set of objects (the support vectors)

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{S}} \alpha_i y_i K(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}_i) + b$$

 $\mathcal{S}$ : the set of support vectors

#### Kernel Functions

- In practical use of SVM, the user specifies the kernel function; the transformation  $\phi(.)$  is not explicitly stated
- Given a kernel function  $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ , the transformation  $\phi(.)$  is given by its eigenfunctions (a concept in functional analysis)
  - Eigenfunctions can be difficult to construct explicitly
  - This is why people only specify the kernel function without worrying about the exact transformation
- Another view: kernel function, being an inner product, is really a similarity measure between the objects

# A kernel is associated to a transformation

• Given a kernel, in principle it should be recovered the transformation in the feature space that originates it.

• 
$$K(x,y) = (xy+1)^2 = x^2y^2 + 2xy + 1$$

It corresponds the transformation

$$x \to \begin{pmatrix} x^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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#### Examples of Kernel Functions

Polynomial kernel of degree d

$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^d$$

Polynomial kernel up to degree d

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} + 1)^d$$

• Radial basis function kernel with width  $\sigma$ 

$$K(x, y) = \exp(-||x - y||^2/(2\sigma^2))$$

- The feature space is infinite-dimensional
- Sigmoid with parameter  $\kappa$  and  $\theta$

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \tanh(\kappa \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} + \theta)$$

• It does not satisfy the Mercer condition on all  $\kappa$  and  $\theta$ 

#### Building new kernels

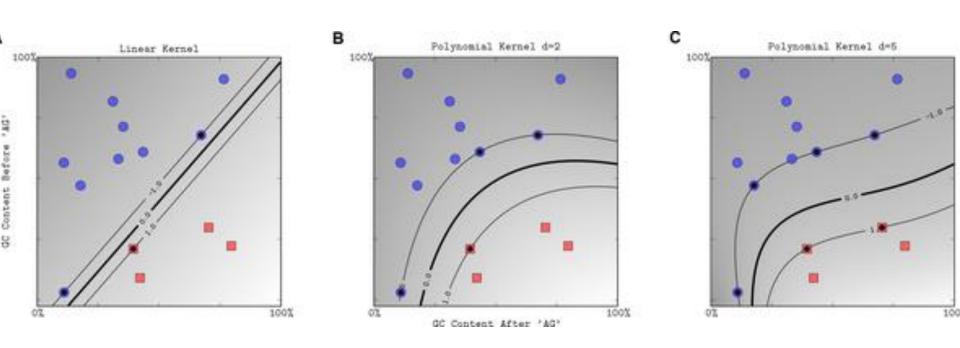
- If  $k_1(x,y)$  and  $k_2(x,y)$  are two valid kernels then the following kernels are valid
  - Linear Combination  $k(x, y) = c_1 k_1(x, y) + c_2 k_2(x, y)$
  - Exponential  $k(x, y) = \exp[k_1(x, y)]$
  - Product  $k(x, y) = k_1(x, y) \cdot k_2(x, y)$
  - Polynomial transformation (Q: polynomial with non negative coeffcients)

 $k(x, y) = Q[k_1(x, y)]$ 

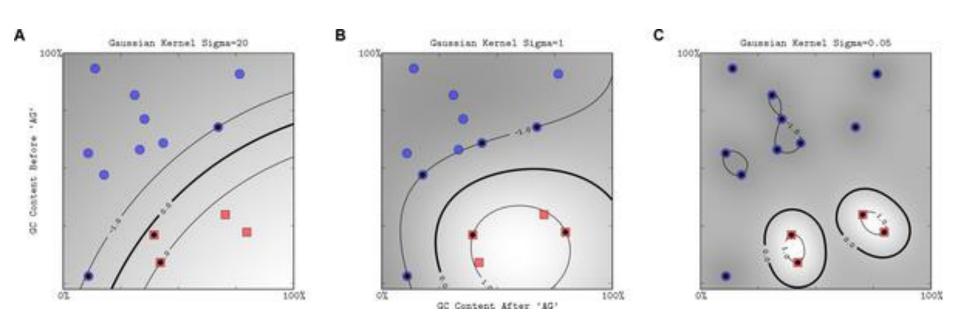
Function product (f: any function)

$$k(x, y) = f(x)k_1(x, y)f(y)$$

# Polynomial kernel



#### Gaussian RBF kernel



# V-C Theory

- Let there be n training examples,  $x_i$ , i = 1, ..., n.  $y_i \in \{+1, -1\}$ .
- Let there be a probability distribution P(x, y), from which  $(x_i, y_i)$  are drawn.
- Let  $f(x, \alpha) \in \{+1, -1\}$ , be a class of functions, where each function is for a specific  $\alpha$ .
- Expectation of test error:

$$R(\alpha) = \int \frac{1}{2} |y - f(x, \alpha)| dP(x, y)$$

Also called the "total risk".

# V-C Theory

• Empirical Risk:

$$R_{emp}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} |y_i - f(x_i, \alpha)|$$

•  $\frac{1}{2}|y-f(x,\alpha)|$  is the error function, and takes values +1,-1.

#### V-C Bound

• For any  $0 \le \eta \le 1$ , with probability  $1 - \eta$ :

$$R(\alpha) \le R_{emp}(\alpha) + \sqrt{\frac{h\left(\log\left(\frac{2n}{h}\right) + 1\right) - \log(\eta/4)}{n}}$$

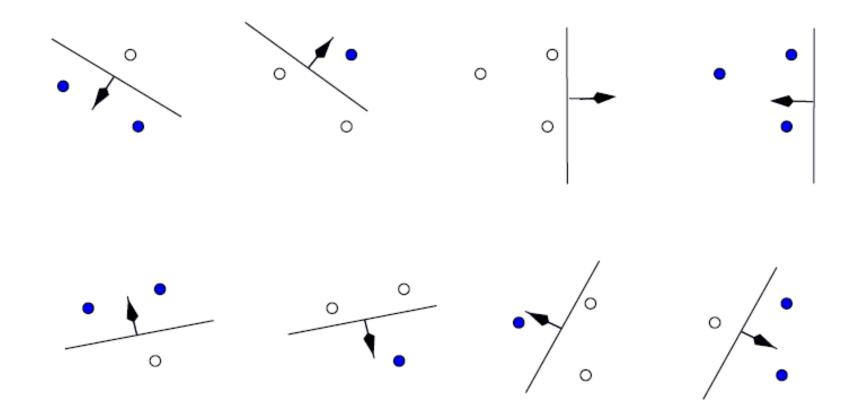
$$V-C Confidence$$

• h is a non-negative integer called VC dimension.

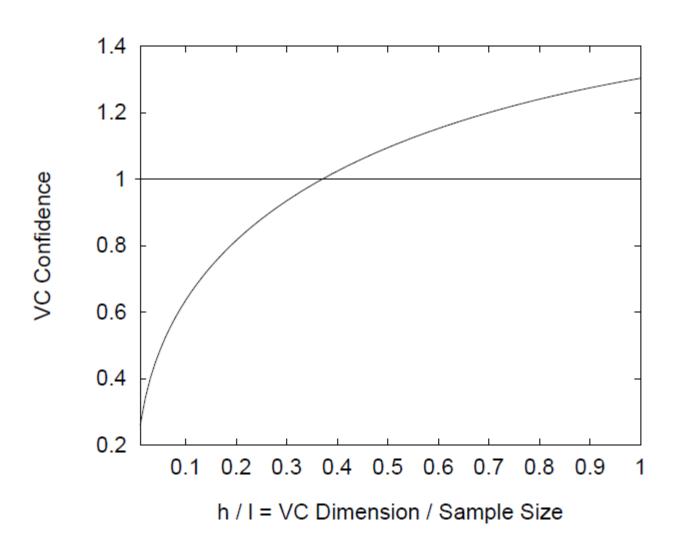
#### **VC** Dimension

- A set of n points, say  $\mathcal{D}$ , can be labelled in  $2^n$  ways.
- Function class  $\{f(\alpha)\}$  shatters  $\mathcal{D}$ , if for every possible labelling of points in  $\mathcal{D}$ , there is a function in  $\{f(\alpha)\}$  which correctly classifies the points.
- VC dimension of a function class  $\{f(\alpha)\}$  is the maximum number of points which can be shattered by the function class.

# Example



#### VC confidence



# V-C dimension of hyperplanes

• **Theorem**: Consider m points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Choose any one of the points as origin. Then the m points can be shattered by hyperplanes if and only if the positions of remaining points are linearly independent.

• Corollary: VC dimension of hyperplanes in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is n+1.

# V-C Dimension of hyperplanes

• Lemma: Two sets of points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  may be separated by a hyperplane if and only if intersection of their convex hulls is empty.

# V-C Dimension of hyperplanes

- Proof: linearly independent => shattering
- Wlog: a point O is the origin,  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$  two subsets to be shattered,  $S_1$  has O.
- Point in  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ :

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} \alpha_i \mathbf{s}_{1i}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} \alpha_i = 1, \quad \alpha_i \ge 0 \qquad \quad \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{m_2} \beta_i \mathbf{s}_{2i}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m_2} \beta_i = 1, \quad \beta_i \ge 0$$

• If there was a common point,  $\mathbf{x}$ :  $\sum_{i=1}^{m_1} \alpha_i s_{1i} = \sum_{j=1}^{m_2} \beta_j s_{2j}$ . Hence, linear dependence => contradiction.

# V-C Dimension of hyperplanes

- Proof: not linearly independent => not shattered
- Assume linearly independent.  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_i \mathbf{s}_i = 0$
- All  $\gamma_i$  are same sign. Origin lies in the convex hull of points. Hence cannot be shattered.
- Separate  $\gamma_i$ s in positive and negative ones  $I_1$ ,  $I_2$ :

$$\sum_{j \in I_1} |\gamma_j| \mathbf{s}_j = \sum_{k \in I_2} |\gamma_k| \mathbf{s}_k$$