Learning From Data Lecture 5: Support Vector Machines

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Today's Lecture

Supervised Learning (Part IV)

- Review: Perceptron Algorithm
- ► Support Vector Machines (SVM) ← another discriminative algorithm for learning linear classifiers
- ► Kernel SVM ← non-linear extension of SVM

The perceptron learning algorithm

- Invented in 1956 by Rosenblatt (Cornell University)
- One of the earliest learning algorithm, the first artificial neural network



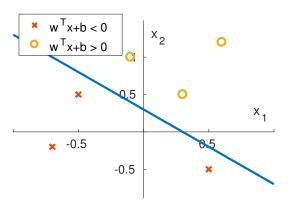


Hardware implementation: Mark I Perceptron

The perceptron learning algorithm

Given x, predict $y \in \{0, 1\}$

$$h_{w,b}(x) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } w^T x + b \geq 0 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



The perceptron learning algorithm

Perceptron hypothesis function:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \theta^T x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

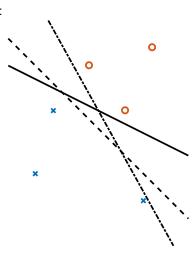
Parameter update rule:

$$\theta_j = \theta_j + \alpha \left(y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \right) x_j^{(i)}$$
 for all $j = 0, \dots, n$

- ▶ When prediction is correct: $\theta_j = \theta_j$
- When prediction is incorrect:
 - predicted "1": $\theta_j = \theta_j \alpha x_j$
 - predicted "0": $\theta_j = \theta_j + \alpha x_j$

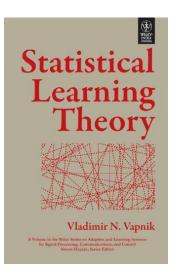
Issues with linear hyperplane perceptron:

- Infinitely many solutions if data are separable
- ► Can not express "confidence" of the prediction



Support Vector Machines in History

- Theoretical algorithm: developed from Statistical Learning Theory (Vapnik & Chervonenkis) since 60s
- Modern SVM was introduced in COLT 92 by Boser, Guyon & Vapnik



Support Vector Machines in History

- ▶ 1995 paper by Corte & Vapnik titled "Support-Vector Networks"
- Gained popularity in 90s for giving accuracy comparable to neural networks with elaborated features in a handwriting task

Machine Learning, 20, 273–297 (1995) © 1995 Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston. Manufactured in The Netherlands.

Support-Vector Networks

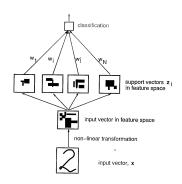
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Abstract. The support-vector network is a new learning machine for two-group classification problems. The machine conceptually implements the following idea: input vectors are non-linearly mapped to a very high-dimension feature space. In this feature space a linear decision surface is constructed. Special properties of the decision surface ensures high generalization ability of the learning machine. The idea behind the support-vector network was previously implemented for the restricted case where the training data can be separated without errors. We here extend this result to non-senanble training data.

High generalization ability of support-vector networks utilizing polynomial input transformations is demonstrated. We also compare the performance of the support-vector network to various classical learning algorithms that all took part in a benchmark study of Optical Character Recognition.

Keywords: pattern recognition, efficient learning algorithms, neural networks, radial basis function classifiers, polynomial classifiers.



Functional margins

Class labels: $y \in \{-1, 1\}$

$$h_{w,b}(x) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } w^T x + b \geq 0 \ -1 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Functional Margin

Given training sample $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$

$$\hat{\gamma}^{(i)} = y^{(i)} \left(w^T x^{(i)} + b \right)$$

 $sign(\hat{\gamma}^{(i)})$: whether the hypothesis is correct

- $\blacktriangleright \ \hat{\gamma}^{(i)} >> 0$: prediction is correct with high confidence
- $ightharpoonup \hat{\gamma}^{(i)} << 0$: prediction is incorrect with high confidence

Function Margins

Functional margin of (w, b) with respect to training data S:

$$\hat{\gamma} = \min_{i=1,..,m} \hat{\gamma}^{(i)} = \min_{i=1,..,m} y^{(i)} \left(w^T x^{(i)} + b \right)$$

Issue: $\hat{\gamma}$ depends on ||w|| and ||b||

e.g. Let w' = 2w, b' = 2b. The decision boundary parameterized by (w', b') and (w, b) are the same. However,

$$\hat{\gamma}^{\prime(i)} = y^{(i)} \left(2w^T x^{(i)} + 2b \right) = 2y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) = 2\hat{\gamma}^{(i)}$$

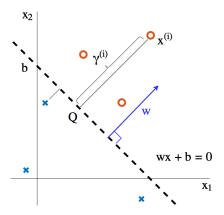
Can we express the margin so that it is invariant to ||w|| and ||b||?

Geometric Margins

The **geometric margin** $\gamma^{(i)}$ of a training example $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ is the signed distance from the hyperplane

$$\gamma^{(i)} = y^{(i)} \left(\frac{w}{||w||}^T x^{(i)} + \frac{b}{||w||} \right)$$

• w is normal to hyperplane $w^T x + b = 0$



Geometric Margins

The **geometric margin** of (w, b) with respect to training data S is the minimum distance from any point to the hyperplane:

$$\gamma = \min_{i=1,...,m} \gamma^{(i)} = \min_{i=1,...,m} y^{(i)} \left(\frac{w}{||w||}^T x^{(i)} + \frac{b}{||w||} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{||w||} \min_{i=1,...,m} y^{(i)} \left(w^T x^{(i)} + b \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{||w||} \hat{\gamma}$$

- $\hat{\gamma} = \gamma$ when ||w|| = 1
- ▶ Geometric margins are invariant to parameter scaling

Optimal Margin Classifier

Assume data is linearly separable

Find (w,b) that maximize geometric margin $\gamma=\frac{\hat{\gamma}}{||w||}$ of the training data

$$\max_{\gamma,w,b} \frac{\gamma}{||w||}$$
s.t. $y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \ge \hat{\gamma}, i = 1,..., m$

There exists some $\delta\in\mathbb{R}$ such that the functional margin of $(\delta w,\delta b)$ is $\hat{\gamma}=1$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \delta b) \text{ is } \hat{\gamma} = 1 \\ \max_{\gamma, w, b} & \frac{1}{||w||} \\ \text{s.t. } y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq 1 \text{ } i = 1, \dots, m \\ \\ \iff \min_{\gamma, w, b} & \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 \\ \text{s.t. } y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq 1 \text{ } i = 1, \dots, m \end{array}$$

can be solved using QP software

Review: Lagrange Duality

The **primal** optimization problem:

$$\min_{w} f(w)$$
s.t. $g_i(w) \le 0, i, ..., k$

$$h_i(w) = 0, i = 1, ..., l$$

Define the **generalized Lagrange function**:

$$L(w,\alpha,\beta) = f(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i g_i(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \beta_i h_i(w)$$

 α_i and β_i are called the **Lagrange multipliers**

For a given w,

$$\theta_{P}(w) = \max_{\alpha, \beta: \alpha_{i} \geq 0} L(w, \alpha, \beta)$$

$$= \max_{\alpha, \beta: \alpha_{i} \geq 0} f(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} g_{i}(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \beta_{i} h_{i}(w)$$

Recall the primal constraints: $g_i(w) \le 0$ and $h_i(w) = 0$:

- $\theta_P(w) = f(w)$ if w satisfies primal constraints
- $\theta_P(w) = \infty$ otherwise

The primal problem (alternative form)
$$\min_{w} \theta_{P}(w) = \min_{w} \max_{\alpha, \beta: \alpha_{i} \geq 0} L(w, \alpha, \beta)$$

The primal problem (P)
$$p^* = \min_{w} \theta_P(w) = \min_{w} \max_{\alpha, \beta: \alpha_i \ge 0} L(w, \alpha, \beta)$$

The dual problem (D)

$$d^* = \max_{\alpha, \beta: \alpha_i \ge 0} \theta_D(\alpha, \beta) = \max_{\alpha, \beta: \alpha_i \ge 0} \min_{w} L(w, \alpha, \beta)$$

In general, $d^* \leq p^*$ (max-min inequality)

Theorem (Lagrange Duality)

Suppose f and all g_i 's are convex, all h_i 's are affine, and there exists some w such that $g_i(w) < 0$ for all i (strictly feasible).

There must exists w^*, α^*, β^* so that w^* is the solution to P and α^*, β^* are the solution to D, and

$$p^* = d^* = L(w^*, \alpha^*, \beta^*)$$

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions

Under previous conditions, w^*, α^*, β^* are solutions of P and D if and only if they statisty the following conditions:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta w_i} L(w^*, \alpha^*, \beta^*) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots n$$
 (1)

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta\beta_i}L(w^*,\alpha^*,\beta^*)=0,\ i=1,\ldots I$$
 (2)

$$\alpha_i^* g_i(w^*) = 0, \ i = 1, \dots, k$$
 (3)

$$g_i(w^*) \leq 0, \ i = 1, \dots, k$$
 (4)

$$\alpha^* \ge 0, \ i = 1, \dots, k \tag{5}$$

Equation 3 is called the **complementary slackness condition**.

Optimal Margin Classifier

Optimal margin classifier

$$\min_{\gamma, w, b} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2$$
s.t. $y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \ge 1$ $i = 1, ..., m$

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2}||w||^2$$

$$g_i(w) = -(y^{(i)}(w^Tx^{(i)} + b) - 1)$$

Generalized Lagrangian function:

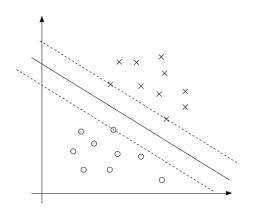
$$L(w, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 - \sum_{i}^{m} \alpha_i \left[y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) - 1 \right]$$

By the complementary slackness condition in KKT:

$$\alpha_i^* g_i(w^*) = 0, \ i = 1, ..., k$$

 $\alpha_i^* > 0 \iff g_i(w^*) = -y^{(i)}(w^{*T}x^{(i)} + b) + 1 = 0$

Training examples $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ such that $y^{(i)}(w^{*T}x^{(i)} + b) = 1$ are called **support vectors**



Support vectors lie on hyperplane ${w^*}^Tx+b=1$ when $y^{(i)}=1$, or ${w^*}^Tx+b=-1$ when $y^{(i)}=-1$ Constraints $g_i(w)\leq 0$ is only

Constraints $g_i(w) \le 0$ is on active on support vectors

Dual optimization problem: (Check derivation)

$$\max_{\alpha} W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle$$

$$s.t. \ \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, \dots, m$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$$

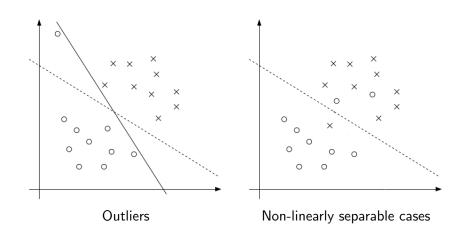
Solution to the primal problem:

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

$$b^* = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\max_{i:y^{(i)} = -1} w^{*T} x^{(i)} + \min_{i:y^{(i)} = 1} w^{*T} x^{(i)} \right)$$

For a new sample z, the SVM prediction is sign $\left[w^{*T}z + b\right]$ $w^{T}z + b = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i}y^{(i)}\langle x^{(i)}, z\rangle + b$

Limitations of the basic SVM



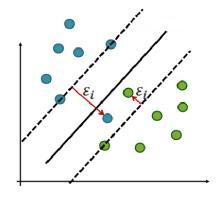
Soft Margin SVM

Functional margin
$$1 - \xi_i \leq 1$$
:
$$\min_{w,b,\xi} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \xi$$

$$s.t. \ y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i$$

$$\xi_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, m$$

- C: relative weight on the regularizer
- ▶ L_1 regularization let most $\xi_i = 0$, such that their functional margins $1 \xi_i = 1$



Soft Margin SVM

The generalized Lagrangian function:

$$L(w, b, \xi, \alpha, r) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{m} \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \left[y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) - 1 + \xi_i \right]$$
$$- \sum_{i=1}^{m} r_i \xi_i$$

Dual problem:

$$\max_{\alpha} W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle$$

$$s.t. \ 0 \le \alpha_i \le C, i = 1, \dots, m$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$$

 w^* is the same as the non-regularizing case, but b^* has changed.

Soft Margin SVM

Dual problem:

$$\max_{\alpha} W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle$$

$$s.t. \ 0 \le \alpha_{i} \le C, i = 1, \dots, m$$

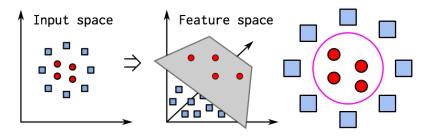
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} y^{(i)} = 0$$

By the KKT dual-complentary conditions, for all i, $\alpha_i^* g_i(w^*) = 0$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \alpha_i = 0 & \iff & y^{(i)}(w^Tx^{(i)} + b) \geq 1 & \text{correct side of margin} \\ \alpha_i = C & \iff & y^{(i)}(w^Tx^{(i)} + b) \leq 1 & \text{wrong side of margin} \\ 0 < \alpha_i < C & \iff & y^{(i)}(w^Tx^{(i)} + b) = 1 & \text{at margin} \end{array}$$

Non-linear SVM

For non-separable data, we can use the **kernel trick**: Map input values $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to a higher dimension $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{R}^D$, such that the data becomes separable.



- $ightharpoonup \phi$ is called a **feature mapping**.
- ► The classification function $w^T x + b$ becomes nonlinear: $w^T \phi(x) + b$

Kernel Function

Given a feature mapping ϕ , we define the **kernel function** to be

$$K(x,z) = \phi(x)^T \phi(z)$$

Some kernel functions are easier to compute than $\phi(x)$, e.g.

$$K(x,z) = (x^{T}z)^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}, z_{i} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}, z_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{i}, x_{j}, z_{i}, z_{j}$$
$$= \phi(x)^{T} \phi(z)$$

where
$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1x_1 \\ x_1x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_nx_{n-1} \\ x_nx_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 takes $O(n^2)$ operations to compute, while $(x^Tz)^2$ only takes $O(n)$

Kernel SVM

In the dual problem, replace $\langle x_i, y_j \rangle$ with $\langle \phi(x_i), \phi(y_i) \rangle = K(x_i, x_j)$

$$\max_{\alpha} W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

s.t. $\alpha_i \geq 0, i = 1, ..., m$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$$

No need to compute $w^* = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i^* y^{(i)} \phi(x^{(i)})$ explicitly since

$$w^{T}x + b = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} y^{(i)} \phi(x^{(i)})\right)^{T} \phi(x) + b$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} y^{(i)} \langle \phi(x^{(i)}), \phi(x) \rangle + b$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} y^{(i)} K(x^{(i)}, x) + b$$

Kernel Matrix

Intuitively, kernel functions measures the similarity between samples \boldsymbol{x} and \boldsymbol{z} .

Examples:

- Linear kernel: $K(x,z) = (x^Tz + c)^n$
- Gaussian or radial basis function (RBF) kernel:

$$K(x,z) = \exp\left(-\frac{||x-z||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Can any function K(x, y) be a kernel function?

Kernel Matrix

Represent kernel function as a matrix $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ where $K_{i,j} = K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)\phi(x_j)$.

Theorem (Mercer)

Let $K : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ Then K is a valid (Mercer) kernel if and only if for any finite training set $\{x^{(i)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\}$, K is symmetric positive semi-definite.

i.e.
$$K_{i,j} = K_{j,i}$$
 and $x^T K x \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

SVM in Practice

Sequential Minimal Optimization: a fast algorithm for training soft margin kernel SVM

- ▶ Break a large SVM problem into smaller chunks, update two α_i 's at a time
- Implemented by most SVM libraries.

Other related algorithms

- Support Vector Regression (SVR)
- Multi-class SVM (Koby Crammer and Yoram Singer. 2002.
 On the algorithmic implementation of multiclass kernel-based vector machines. J. Mach. Learn. Res. 2 (March 2002), 265-292.)