# Optimization (Wrap-up), and Hyperplane based Classifiers (Perceptron and Support Vector Machines)

Piyush Rai

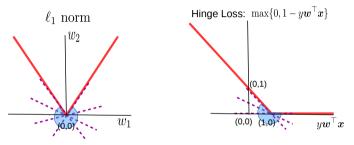
#### Introduction to Machine Learning (CS771A)

August 30, 2018



#### **Recap: Subgradient Descent**

• Use subgradient at non-differentiable points, use gradient elsewhere



• Left: each entry of (sub)gradient vector for  $||\boldsymbol{w}||_1$ , Right: (sub)gradient vector for hinge loss

$$t_{d} = \begin{cases} -1, & \text{for } w_{d} < 0 \\ [-1,+1] & \text{for } w_{d} = 0 \\ +1 & \text{for } w_{d} > 0 \end{cases} \quad t = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } y_{n} \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} > 1 \\ -y_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} & \text{for } y_{n} \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} < 1 \\ ky_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} & \text{for } y_{n} \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} = 1 \end{cases} \text{ (where } k \in [-1,0])$$

#### **Recap: Constrained Optimization via Lagrangian**

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} f(\boldsymbol{w}), \quad \text{s.t.} \quad g(\boldsymbol{w}) \leq 0$$

$$c(\boldsymbol{w}) = \max_{\alpha \geq 0} \alpha g(\boldsymbol{w}) = \begin{cases} \infty, & \text{if } g(\boldsymbol{w}) > 0 & (\text{constraint violated}) \\ 0 & \text{if } g(\boldsymbol{w}) \leq 0 & (\text{constraint satisfied}) \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} f(\boldsymbol{w}) + c(\boldsymbol{w}) \overset{\text{Same as } f(\boldsymbol{w}) \text{ when } constraint \text{ satisfied}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left\{ f(\boldsymbol{w}) + \max_{\alpha \geq 0} \alpha g(\boldsymbol{w}) \right\}$$
Lagrangian: 
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, \alpha) = f(\boldsymbol{w}) + \alpha g(\boldsymbol{w})$$

# **Recap: Constrained Optimization via Lagrangian**

 $\bullet$  We minimize the Lagrangian  $\mathcal{L}(\textit{\textbf{w}},\alpha)$  w.r.t.  $\textit{\textbf{w}}$  and maximize w.r.t.  $\alpha$ 

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w},\alpha) = f(\boldsymbol{w}) + \alpha g(\boldsymbol{w})$$

- For certain problems, the order of maximization and minimization does not matter
- $\bullet$  Approach 1: Can first maximize w.r.t.  $\alpha$  and then minimize w.r.t.  $\textbf{\textit{w}}$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left\{ \max_{\alpha} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, \alpha) \right\}$$

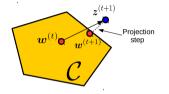
 $\bullet$  Approach 2: Can first minimize w.r.t.  $\textbf{\textit{w}}$  and then maximize w.r.t.  $\alpha$ 

$$\hat{\alpha} = rg\max_{lpha} \left\{ \min_{oldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{w}, lpha) 
ight\}$$

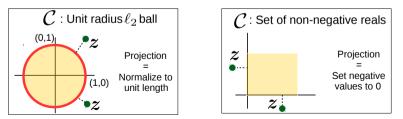
- Approach 2 is known as optimizing via the dual (popular in SVM solvers; will see today!)
- KKT condition: At the optimal solution  $\hat{\alpha}g(\hat{\mathbf{w}}) = 0$
- Multiple constraints (inequality/equality) can also be handled likewise

#### **Recap: Projected Gradient Descent**

 $\bullet\,$  Same as GD  $+\,$  extra projection step we step out of the constraint set



• In some cases, the projection step is very easy



#### **Co-ordinate Descent (CD)**

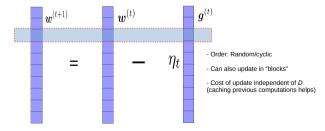
• Standard GD update for  $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  at each step

$$oldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = oldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta_t oldsymbol{g}^{(t)}$$

• CD: Each step updates one component (co-ordinate) at a time, keeping all others fixed

L

$$w_d^{(t+1)} = w_d^{(t)} - \eta_t g_d^{(t)}$$





# **Alternating Optimization**

• Consider an optimization problems with several variables, say 2 variables  $w_1$  and  $w_2$ 

$$\{\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}_1, \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}_2\} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}_1, \boldsymbol{w}_2} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_1, \boldsymbol{w}_2)$$

• Often, this "joint" optimization is hard/impossible. We can consider an alternating scheme

#### ALT-OPT

• Initialize one of the variables, e.g., 
$$w_2 = w_2^{(0)}, t = 0$$

- **2** Solve  $w_1^{(t+1)} = \arg\min_{w_1} \mathcal{L}(w_1, w_2^{(t)}) / w_2$  "fixed" at its most recent value  $w_2^{(t)}$
- Solve  $\boldsymbol{w}_2^{(t+1)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}_2} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_1^{(t+1)}, \boldsymbol{w}_2) / / \boldsymbol{w}_1$  "fixed" at its most recent value  $\boldsymbol{w}_1^{(t+1)}$

• t = t + 1. Go to step 2 if not converged yet.

- Usually converges to a local optima of  $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_1, \boldsymbol{w}_2)$ . Also connections to EM (will see later)
- VERY VERY useful!!! Also extends to more than 2 variables. CD is somewhat like ALT-OPT.

- Newton's method uses second-order information (second derivative a.k.a. Hessian)
- At each point  $w^{(t)}$ , minimize the quadratic (second-order) approximation of the function

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left\{ f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} \nabla^{2} f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \right\}$$

• Exercise: Verify that  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - (\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}))^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ . Also no learning rate needed!

- Converges much faster than GD. But also expensive due to Hessian computation/inversion.
- Many ways to approximate the Hessian (e.g., using previous gradients); also look at L-BFGS etc.

- Newton's method uses second-order information (second derivative a.k.a. Hessian)
- At each point  $w^{(t)}$ , minimize the quadratic (second-order) approximation of the function

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left\{ f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} \nabla^{2} f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \right\}$$

• Exercise: Verify that  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - (\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}))^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ . Also no learning rate needed!

- Converges much faster than GD. But also expensive due to Hessian computation/inversion.
- Many ways to approximate the Hessian (e.g., using previous gradients); also look at L-BFGS etc.

- Newton's method uses second-order information (second derivative a.k.a. Hessian)
- At each point  $w^{(t)}$ , minimize the quadratic (second-order) approximation of the function

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left\{ f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} \nabla^{2} f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \right\}$$

• Exercise: Verify that  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - (\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}))^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ . Also no learning rate needed!

- Converges much faster than GD. But also expensive due to Hessian computation/inversion.
- Many ways to approximate the Hessian (e.g., using previous gradients); also look at L-BFGS etc.

- Newton's method uses second-order information (second derivative a.k.a. Hessian)
- At each point  $w^{(t)}$ , minimize the quadratic (second-order) approximation of the function

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left\{ f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\top} \nabla^{2} f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \right\}$$

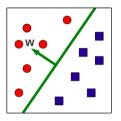
• Exercise: Verify that  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - (\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}))^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ . Also no learning rate needed!

- Converges much faster than GD. But also expensive due to Hessian computation/inversion.
- Many ways to approximate the Hessian (e.g., using previous gradients); also look at L-BFGS etc.

# Summary

- Gradient methods are simple to understand and implement
- More sophisticated optimization methods often use gradient methods
  - Backpropagation algorithm used in deep neural nets is GD + chain rule of differentiation
- Use subgradient methods if function not differentiable
- Constrained optimization require methods such as Lagrangian or projected gradient
- Second order methods such as Newton's method are much faster but computationally expensive
- But computing all this gradient related stuff looks scary to me. Any help?
  - Don't worry. Automatic Differentiation (AD) methods available now
  - AD only requires specifying the loss function (useful for complex models like deep neural nets)
  - Many packages such as Tensorflow, PyTorch, etc. provide AD support
  - But having a good understanding of optimization is still helpful

# Hyperplane based Classification



All linear models for classification are basically about learning hyperplanes!

Already saw logistic regression (probabilistic linear classifier).

Will look at some more today - Perceptron, SVM (also how some of the optimization methods we saw can be applied in these cases)

#### **Hyperplanes**

• Separates a *D*-dimensional space into two half-spaces (positive and negative)

- Defined by normal vector  $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  (pointing towards positive half-space)
- Equation of the hyperplane:  $\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} = 0$
- ullet Assumption: The hyperplane passes through origin. If not, add a bias term  $b\in\mathbb{R}$

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{ op}\boldsymbol{x} + b = 0$$

- b > 0 means moving it parallely in the direction of w (b < 0 means moving in opposite direction)
- Distance of a point  $x_n$  from a hyperplane (can be +ve/-ve)

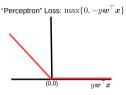
$$\gamma_n = \frac{\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + \boldsymbol{b}}{||\boldsymbol{w}||}$$





#### A Mistake-Driven Method for Learning Hyperplanes

- Let's ignore the bias term b for now. So the hyperplane is simply  $\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} = 0$
- Consider SGD to learn a hyperplane based model with loss:  $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \max\{0, -y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n\}$



• Loss not differentiable at  $y_n \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n = 0$ , so we will use subgradients there. The (sub)gradient will be

$$\boldsymbol{g}_{n} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } y_{n} \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} > 0 \\ -y_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} & \text{for } y_{n} \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} < 0 \\ ky_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} & \text{for } y_{n} \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} = 0 \quad (\text{where } k \in [-1, 0]) \end{cases}$$

• If we use k = 0 then  $\boldsymbol{g}_n = 0$  for  $y_n \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n \ge 0$ , and  $\boldsymbol{g}_n = -y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n$  if  $y_n \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n < 0$ 

• Thus  $\boldsymbol{g}_n$  nonzero only when  $y_n \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n < 0$  (mistake). SGD will update  $\boldsymbol{w}$  only in these cases!

# **Mistake-Driven Learning of Hyperplanes**

• The complete SGD algorithm for a model with this loss function will be

#### Stochastic SubGD

- Initialize  $\boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}, t = 0$ , set  $\eta_t = 1, \forall t$
- 2 Pick some  $(x_n, y_n)$  randomly.

If current  $\boldsymbol{w}$  makes a mistake on  $(\boldsymbol{x}_n, y_n)$ , i.e.,  $y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n < 0$ 

If not converged, go to step 2.

- This is the Perceptron algorithm. An example of an online learning algorithm
- Note: Assuming  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)} = 0$ , easy to see the final  $\boldsymbol{w}$  has the form  $\boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n$ 
  - ... where  $\alpha_n$  is total number of mistakes made by the algorithm on example  $(x_n, y_n)$
  - As we'll see, many other models will also lead to  $\boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n$  (for some suitable  $\alpha_n$ 's)

#### **Perceptron: Corrective Updates and Convergence**

- Suppose true  $y_n = +1$  (positive example) and the model mispredicts, i.e.,  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)^{\top}}\boldsymbol{x}_n < 0$
- After the update  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} + y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} + \boldsymbol{x}_n$

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)^{\top}}\boldsymbol{x}_{n} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)^{\top}}\boldsymbol{x}_{n} + \boldsymbol{x}_{n}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$$

.. which is less negative than  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)^{\top}}\boldsymbol{x}_n$  (so the model has improved)

- Exercise: Verify that the model also improves after updating on a mistake on negative example
- Note: If training data is linearly separable, Perceptron converges in finite iterations
  - Proof: Block & Novikoff theorem (will provide the proof in a separate note)
  - What this means: It will eventually classify every training example correctly
  - Speed of convergence depends on the margin of separation (and on nothing else, such as N, D)
  - Note: In practice, we might want to stop sooner (to avoid overfitting)

# Perceptron and (Lack of) Margins

• Perceptron learns a hyperplane (of many possible) that separates the classes



- $\bullet\,$  The one learned will depend on the initial  ${\it w}$
- Standard Perceptron doesn't guarantee any "margin" around the hyperplane
- Note: Possible to "artificially" introduce a margin in the Perceptron
  - Simply change the Perceptron mistake condition to

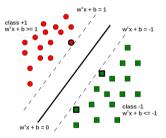
$$y_n \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n < \gamma$$

where  $\gamma > 0$  is a pre-specified margin. For standard Perceptron,  $\gamma = 0$ 

• Support Vector Machine (SVM) does this directly by learning the maximum margin hyperplane

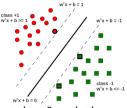
# Support Vector Machine (SVM)

- SVM is a hyperplane based (linear) classifier that ensures a large margin around the hyperplane
- Note: We will assume the hyperplane to be of the form  $\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} + b = 0$  (will keep the bias term b)



- Note: SVMs can also learn nonlinear decision boundaries using kernel methods (will see later)
- Reason behind the name "Support Vector Machine"?
  - SVM optimization discovers the most important examples (called "support vectors") in training data
  - These examples act as "balancing" the margin boundaries (hence called "support")

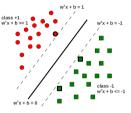
# Learning a Maximum Margin Hyperplane



- Suppose we want a hyperplane  $\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} + b = 0$  such that
  - $\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b \geq 1$  for  $y_n = +1$
  - $\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b \leq -1$  for  $y_n = -1$
  - Equivalently,  $y_n(w^T x_n + b) \ge 1 \quad \forall n$
  - Define the margin on each side:  $\gamma = \min_{1 \le n \le N} \frac{|\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n + b|}{||\mathbf{w}||} = \frac{1}{||\mathbf{w}||}$
  - Total margin =  $2\gamma = \frac{2}{||w||}$
- Want the hyperplane (w, b) that gives the largest possible margin
- Note: Can replace  $y_n(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n + b) \ge 1$  by  $y_n(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n + b) \ge m$  for some m > 0. It won't change the solution for  $\mathbf{w}$ , will just scale it by a constant, without changing the direction of  $\mathbf{w}$  (exercise)

## Hard-Margin SVM

• Hard-Margin: Every training example has to fulfil the margin condition  $y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{x}_n+b) \geq 1$ 



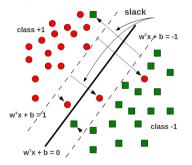
- Also want to maximize the margin  $\gamma \propto \frac{1}{||\boldsymbol{w}||}$ . Equivalent to minimizing  $||\boldsymbol{w}||^2$  or  $\frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2}$
- The objective for hard-margin SVM

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b} f(\boldsymbol{w},b) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2}$$
subject to  $y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) \ge 1, \quad n = 1, \dots, N$ 

• Constrained optimization with N inequality constraints (note: function and constraints are convex)

# Soft-Margin SVM (More Commonly Used)

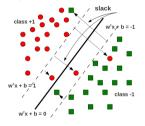
• Allow some training examples to fall **within** the margin region, or be even misclassified (i.e., fall on the wrong side). Preferable if training data is noisy



- Each training example  $(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$  given a "slack"  $\xi_n \ge 0$  (distance by which it "violates" the margin). If  $\xi_n > 1$  then  $\mathbf{x}_n$  is totally on the wrong side
  - Basically, we want a soft-margin condition:  $y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{x}_n+b) \ge 1-\xi_n, \quad \xi_n \ge 0$

# Soft-Margin SVM (More Commonly Used)

• Goal: Maximize the margin, while also minimizing the sum of slacks (don't want too many training examples violating the margin condition)

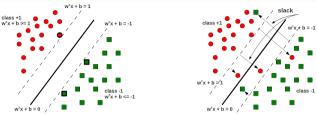


• The primal objective for soft-margin SVM can thus be written as

$$\begin{split} \min_{\boldsymbol{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}} & f(\boldsymbol{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2} + C \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_n \\ \text{subject to} & y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) \geq 1 - \xi_n, \quad \xi_n \geq 0 \qquad n = 1, \dots, N \end{split}$$

- Constrained optimization with 2N inequality constraints
- Parameter C controls the trade-off between large margin vs small training error

## Summary: Hard-Margin SVM vs Soft-Margin SVM



• Objective for the hard-margin SVM (unknowns are  $\boldsymbol{w}$  and  $\boldsymbol{b}$ )

$$\begin{split} \min_{\boldsymbol{w}, b} \quad f(\boldsymbol{w}, b) &= \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2} \\ \text{subject to} \quad y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) \geq 1, \qquad n = 1, \dots, N \end{split}$$

• Objective for the soft-margin SVM (unknowns are  $\boldsymbol{w}, b$ , and  $\{\xi_n\}_{n=1}^N$ )

$$\begin{split} \min_{\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}} & f(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2} + C \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_n \\ \text{subject to} & y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) \ge 1 - \xi_n, \quad \xi_n \ge 0 \qquad n = 1, \dots, N \end{split}$$

• In either case, we have to solve a constrained, convex optimization problem





• The hard-margin SVM optimization problem is:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b} f(\boldsymbol{w},b) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2}$$
subject to  $1 - y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) \leq 0, \quad n = 1, \dots, N$ 

- A constrained optimization problem. Can solve using Lagrange's method
- Introduce Lagrange Multipliers  $\alpha_n$  ( $n = \{1, ..., N\}$ ), one for each constraint, and solve

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{b}} \max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \geq 0} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \{1 - y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + \boldsymbol{b})\}$$

- Note:  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N]$  is the vector of Lagrange multipliers
- Note: It is easier (and helpful; we will soon see why) to solve the dual problem: min and then max

• The dual problem (min then max) is

$$\max_{\alpha \geq 0} \min_{\boldsymbol{w}, b} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \{1 - y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n + b)\}$$

• Take (partial) derivatives of  $\mathcal L$  w.r.t.  $\pmb w$ , b and set them to zero

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} = \boldsymbol{0} \Rightarrow \boxed{\boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n} \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{b}} = \boldsymbol{0} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n = \boldsymbol{0}$$

- Important: Note the form of the solution  $\boldsymbol{w}$  it is simply a weighted sum of all the training inputs  $\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N$  (and  $\alpha_n$  is like the "importance" of  $\boldsymbol{x}_n$ )
- Substituting  $\boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n$  in Lagrangian, we get the dual problem as (verify)

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \geq 0} \mathcal{L}_{D}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_{n} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m,n=1}^{N} \alpha_{m} \alpha_{n} y_{m} y_{n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{m}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n})$$

• Can write the objective more compactly in vector/matrix form as

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \geq 0} \ \mathcal{L}_{D}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\top} \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\top} \mathbf{G} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

where **G** is an  $N \times N$  matrix with  $G_{mn} = y_m y_n \mathbf{x}_m^\top \mathbf{x}_n$ , and **1** is a vector of 1s

- **Good news:** This is maximizing a concave function (or minimizing a convex function verify that the Hessian is **G**, which is p.s.d.). Note that our original SVM objective was also convex
- Important: Inputs x's only appear as inner products (helps to "kernelize"; more when we see kernel methods)
- ullet Can solve  $^{\dagger}$  the above objective function for  $\alpha$  using various methods, e.g.,
  - Treating the objective as a Quadratic Program (QP) and running some off-the-shelf QP solver such as quadprog (MATLAB), CVXOPT, CPLEX, etc.
  - Using (projected) gradient methods (projection needed because the α's are constrained). Gradient methods will usually be much faster than QP methods.

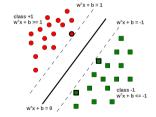
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> If interested in more details of the solver, see: "Support Vector Machine Solvers" by Bottou and Lin

#### Hard-Margin SVM: The Solution

• Once we have the  $\alpha_n$ 's, **w** and **b** can be computed as:

 $\boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n \quad \text{(we already saw this)}$  $\boldsymbol{b} = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \min_{n: y_n = +1} \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + \max_{n: y_n = -1} \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n \right) \quad \text{(exercise)}$ 

• A nice property: Most  $\alpha_n$ 's in the solution will be zero (sparse solution)



- Reason: Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions
- For the optimal  $\alpha_n$ 's

 $\alpha_n\{1-y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{x}_n+\boldsymbol{b})\}=0$ 

- $\alpha_n$  is non-zero only if  $x_n$  lies on one of the two margin boundaries, i.e., for which  $y_n(w^T x_n + b) = 1$
- These examples are called support vectors
- Recall the support vectors "support" the margin boundaries



• Recall the soft-margin SVM optimization problem:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}} f(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2} + C \sum_{n=1}^N \xi_n$$
  
subject to  $1 \le y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) + \xi_n, \quad -\xi_n \le 0 \qquad n = 1, \dots, N$ 

• Note:  $\boldsymbol{\xi} = [\xi_1, \dots, \xi_N]$  is the vector of slack variables

• Introduce Lagrange Multipliers  $\alpha_n, \beta_n$  ( $n = \{1, ..., N\}$ ), for constraints, and solve the Lagrangian:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}} \max_{\alpha \ge 0,\boldsymbol{\beta} \ge 0} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi},\alpha,\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2}{2} + C\sum_{n=1}^N \xi_n + \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \{1 - y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) - \xi_n\} - \sum_{n=1}^N \beta_n \xi_n$$

- Note: The terms in red above were not present in the hard-margin SVM
- Two sets of dual variables  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N]$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [\beta_1, \dots, \beta_N]$ . We'll eliminate the primal variables  $\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\xi}$  to get dual problem containing the dual variables (just like in the hard margin case)

• The Lagrangian problem to solve

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}} \max_{\alpha \ge 0, \beta \ge 0} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}}{2} + C \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_n + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \{1 - y_n(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n + b) - \xi_n\} - \sum_{n=1}^{N} \beta_n \xi_n$$

• Take (partial) derivatives of  $\mathcal{L}$  w.r.t.  $\boldsymbol{w}$ , b,  $\xi_n$  and set them to zero

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} = 0 \Rightarrow \left[ \boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n \right], \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{b}} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \xi_n} = 0 \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{C} - \alpha_n - \beta_n = 0$$

- Note: Solution of *w* again has the same form as in the hard-margin case (weighted sum of all inputs with α<sub>n</sub> being the importance of input *x<sub>n</sub>*)
- Note: Using  $C \alpha_n \beta_n = 0$  and  $\beta_n \ge 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_n \le C$  (recall that, for the hard-margin case,  $\alpha \ge 0$ )
- $\bullet$  Substituting these in the Lagrangian  ${\cal L}$  gives the Dual problem

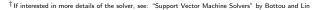
$$\max_{\alpha \leq C, \beta \geq 0} \mathcal{L}_D(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N \alpha_m \alpha_n y_m y_n(\mathbf{x}_m^T \mathbf{x}_n) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n y_n = 0$$

- $\bullet$  Interestingly, the dual variables  $\beta$  don't appear in the objective!
- Just like the hard-margin case, we can write the dual more compactly as

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \leq \boldsymbol{C}} \ \mathcal{L}_{\boldsymbol{D}}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\top} \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\top} \mathbf{G} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

where **G** is an  $N \times N$  matrix with  $G_{mn} = y_m y_n \mathbf{x}_m^\top \mathbf{x}_n$ , and **1** is a vector of 1s

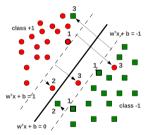
- Like hard-margin case, solving the dual requires concave maximization (or convex minimization)
- Can be solved<sup>†</sup> the same way as hard-margin SVM (except that  $\alpha \leq C$ )
  - Can solve for lpha using QP solvers or (projected) gradient methods
- Given  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ , the solution for  $\boldsymbol{w}, b$  has the same form as hard-margin case
- Note:  $\alpha$  is again sparse. Nonzero  $\alpha_n$ 's correspond to the support vectors





# Support Vectors in Soft-Margin SVM

- The hard-margin SVM solution had only one type of support vectors
  - .. ones that lie on the margin boundaries  $w^T x + b = -1$  and  $w^T x + b = +1$
- The soft-margin SVM solution has three types of support vectors



- Lying on the margin boundaries  $w^T x + b = -1$  and  $w^T x + b = +1$  ( $\xi_n = 0$ )
- 2 Lying within the margin region  $(0 < \xi_n < 1)$  but still on the correct side
- Using on the wrong side of the hyperplane  $(\xi_n \ge 1)$



## **SVMs via Dual Formulation: Some Comments**

• Recall the final dual objectives for hard-margin and soft-margin SVM

Hard-Margin SVM: 
$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \geq 0} \mathcal{L}_D(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^\top \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^\top \mathbf{G} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

Soft-Margin SVM: 
$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \leq \boldsymbol{C}} \mathcal{L}_D(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^\top \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^\top \mathbf{G} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

- The dual formulation is nice due to two primary reasons:
  - Allows conveniently handling the margin based constraint (via Lagrangians)
  - Important: Allows learning nonlinear separators by replacing inner products (e.g.,  $G_{mn} = y_m y_n \mathbf{x}_m^\top \mathbf{x}_n$ ) by kernelized similarities (kernelized SVMs)
- However, the dual formulation can be expensive if N is large. Have to solve for N variables  $\alpha = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N]$ , and also need to store an  $N \times N$  matrix **G**
- A lot of work<sup>†</sup> on speeding up SVM in these settings (e.g., can use co-ord. descent for  $\alpha$ )

 $<sup>^\</sup>dagger\,\text{See:}\,$  "Support Vector Machine Solvers" by Bottou and Lin

- A hugely (perhaps the most!) popular classification algorithm
- Reasonably mature, highly optimized SVM softwares freely available (perhaps the reason why it is more popular than various other competing algorithms)
  - Some popular ones: libSVM, LIBLINEAR, sklearn also provides SVM
- Lots of work on scaling up SVMs<sup>†</sup> (both large N and large D)
- Extensions beyond binary classification (e.g., multiclass, structured outputs)
- Can even be used for regression problems (Support Vector Regression)
- Nonlinear extensions possible via kernels



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>See: "Support Vector Machine Solvers" by Bottou and Lin