Syllabus



Fri. 27.10.	(1)	0. Introduction
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A. Supervised Learning: Linear Models & Fundamentals

- Fri. 3.11. (2) A.1 Linear Regression
- Fri. 10.11. (3) A.2 Linear Classification
- Fri. 17.11. (4) A.3 Regularization
- Fri. 24.11. (5) A.4 High-dimensional Data

B. Supervised Learning: Nonlinear Models

- Fri. 1.12. (6) B.1 Nearest-Neighbor Models
- Fri. 8.12. (7) B.4 Support Vector Machines
- Fri. 15.12. (8) B.3 Decision Trees
- Fri. 22.12. (9) B.2 Neural Networks
 - Christmas Break —
- Fri. 12.1. (10) B.5 A First Look at Bayesian and Markov Networks

C. Unsupervised Learning

- Fri. 19.1. (11) C.1 Clustering
- Fri. 26.1. (12) C.2 Dimensionality Reduction
- Fri. 2.2. (13) C.3 Frequent Pattern Mining
- Fri. 9.2. (14) Q&A

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Machine Learning

Outline



- 1. Separating Hyperplanes
- 2. Perceptron
- 3. Maximum Margin Separating Hyperplanes
- 4. Learning SVMs
- 5. Non-separable Problems
- 6. Support Vectors and Kernels

Outline



1. Separating Hyperplanes

- 2. Perceptron
- 3. Maximum Margin Separating Hyperplanes
- 4. Learning SVMs
- 5. Non-separable Problems
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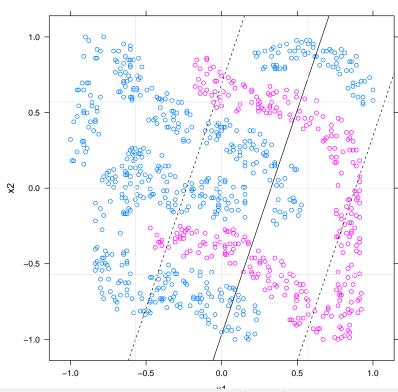
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Separating Hyperplanes

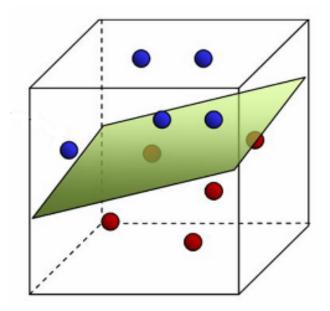
Logistic Regression & Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA):



Separating Hyperplanes



Logistic Regression & Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA):



linear decision boundary = separating hyperplane

source: http://fouryears.eu/2009/

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Hyperplanes

Hyperplanes can be modeled explicitly as

$$H_{\beta,\beta_0} := \{ x \mid \langle \beta, x \rangle = -\beta_0 \}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^p, \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$$

We will write H_{β} shortly for H_{β,β_0} (although β_0 is very relevant!).

For any two points $x, x' \in H_{\beta}$ we have

$$\langle \beta, x - x' \rangle = \langle \beta, x \rangle - \langle \beta, x' \rangle = -\beta_0 + \beta_0 = 0$$

thus β is orthogonal to all translation vectors in H_{β} , and thus $\beta/||\beta||$ is the **normal vector** of H_{β} .

Hyperplanes



The projection of a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ onto H_β , i.e., the closest point on H_β to x is given by

$$\pi_{H_{\beta}}(x) := x - \frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle} \beta$$

Proof:

(i) $\pi x := \pi_{H_{\beta}}(x) \in H_{\beta}$:

$$\langle \beta, \pi_{H_{\beta}}(x) \rangle = \langle \beta, x - \frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle} \beta \rangle$$
$$= \langle \beta, x \rangle - \frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle} \langle \beta, \beta \rangle = -\beta_0$$

(ii) $\pi_{H_{\beta}}(x)$ is the closest such point to x: For any other point $x' \in H_{\beta}$:

$$||x - x'||^{2} = \langle x - x', x - x' \rangle = \langle x - \pi x + \pi x - x', x - \pi x + \pi x - x' \rangle$$

$$= \langle x - \pi x, x - \pi x \rangle + 2\langle x - \pi x, \pi x - x' \rangle + \langle \pi x - x', \pi x - x' \rangle$$

$$= ||x - \pi x||^{2} + 0 + ||\pi x - x'||^{2}$$

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Hyperplanes

The **signed distance** of a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ to H_β is given by

$$\frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{||\beta||}$$

Proof:

$$x - \pi x = \frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle - \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle} \beta$$

Therefore

$$||x - \pi x||^2 = \langle \frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle} \beta, \frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle} \beta \rangle$$
$$= (\frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{\langle \beta, \beta \rangle})^2 \langle \beta, \beta \rangle$$
$$||x - \pi x|| = |\frac{\langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0}{||\beta||}|$$

Separating Hyperplanes



For given data

$$(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$$

with a binary class label $Y \in \{-1, +1\}$ a hyperplane H_{β} is called **separating** if

$$y_i h(x_i) > 0$$
, $i = 1, ..., n$, with $h(x) := \langle \beta, x \rangle + \beta_0$

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Linear Separable Data



The data is called **linear separable** if there exists such a separating hyperplane.

In general, if there is one, there are many.

If there is a choice, we need a criterion to narrow down which one we want / is the best.

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Perceptron as Linear Model

Perceptron is another name for a linear binary classification model (Rosenblatt 1958):

$$Y(X) = \operatorname{sign} h(X), \quad \text{with } \operatorname{sign} X = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} +1, & x>0 \\ 0, & x=0 \\ -1, & x<0 \end{array}
ight.$$
 $h(X) = eta_0 + \langle \beta, X \rangle + \epsilon$

that is very similar to the logistic regression model

$$Y(X) = \mathop{\arg\max}_{y} p(Y = y \mid X) = \mathop{\operatorname{sign}} p(Y = y \mid X) - 0.5$$

$$p(Y = +1 \mid X) = \mathop{\operatorname{logistic}}(\langle \beta, X \rangle) + \epsilon$$

$$p(Y = -1 \mid X) = 1 - p(Y = +1 \mid X)$$

as well as to linear discriminant analysis (LDA).

Perceptron as Linear Model



The perceptron does just provide class labels $\hat{y}(x)$ and unscaled certainty factors $\hat{h}(x)$, but no class probabilities $\hat{p}(Y | X)$.

Therefore, probabilistic fit/error criteria such as maximum likelihood cannot be applied.

For perceptrons, the sum of the certainty factors of misclassified points is used as error criterion:

$$q(\beta, \beta_0) := \sum_{i=1: \hat{y}_i \neq y_i}^n |h_{\beta}(x_i)| = -\sum_{i=1: \hat{y}_i \neq y_i}^n y_i h_{\beta}(x_i)$$

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Perceptron as Linear Model

For learning, gradient descent is used:



$$\frac{\partial q(\beta, \beta_0)}{\partial \beta} = -\sum_{i=1:\hat{y}_i \neq y_i}^n y_i x_i$$
$$\frac{\partial q(\beta, \beta_0)}{\partial \beta_0} = -\sum_{i=1:\hat{y}_i \neq y_i}^n y_i$$

Instead of looking at all points at the same time, stochastic gradient descent is applied where all points are looked at sequentially (in a random sequence).

The update for a single point (x_i, y_i) then is

$$\hat{\beta}^{(k+1)} := \hat{\beta}^{(k)} + \alpha y_i x_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}^{(k+1)} = \hat{\beta}^{(k)} + \alpha y_i x_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0^{(k+1)} := \hat{\beta}_0^{(k)} + \alpha y_i$$

with a step length α (often called **learning rate**).

Perceptron Learning Algorithm



```
\begin{array}{l} 1 \text{ learn-perceptron}(\text{training data } X, \text{ step length } \alpha): \\ 2 \hat{\beta} := \text{a random vector} \\ 3 \hat{\beta}_0 := \text{a random value} \\ 4 \ \underline{\mathbf{do}} \\ 5 \qquad \text{errors} := 0 \\ 6 \qquad \underline{\mathbf{for}} \left( x, y \right) \in X \text{ (in random order) } \underline{\mathbf{do}} \\ 7 \qquad \underline{\mathbf{if}} \ y(\hat{\beta}_0 + \langle \hat{\beta}, x \rangle) \leq 0 \\ 8 \qquad \qquad \text{errors} := \text{errors} + 1 \\ 9 \qquad \qquad \hat{\beta} := \hat{\beta} + \alpha y x \\ 11 \qquad \qquad \hat{\beta}_0 := \hat{\beta}_0 + \alpha y \\ 12 \qquad \underline{\mathbf{fi}} \\ 13 \qquad \underline{\mathbf{od}} \\ 14 \ \underline{\mathbf{while}} \ \text{errors} > 0 \\ 15 \ \underline{\mathbf{return}} \ (\hat{\beta}, \hat{\beta}_0) \\ \end{array}
```

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Perceptron Learning Algorithm: Properties



For linear separable data the perceptron learning algorithm can be shown to converge: it finds a separating hyperplane in a finite number of steps.

But there are many problems with this simple algorithm:

- ► If there are several separating hyperplanes, there is no control about which one is found (it depends on the starting values).
- ► If the gap between the classes is narrow, it may take many steps until convergence.
- ► If the data are not separable, the learning algorithm does not converge at all.

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Maximum Margin Separating Hyperplanes

Many of the problems of perceptrons can be overcome by designing a better fit/error criterion.

Maximum Margin Separating Hyperplanes use the width of the margin, i.e., the distance of the closest points to the hyperplane as criterion:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{maximize } C \\ \text{w.r.t. } y_i \frac{\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle}{||\beta||} \geq C, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \\ \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \\ \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

Maximum Margin Separating Hyperplanes



As for any solutions β , β_0 also all positive scalar multiples fullfil the equations, we can arbitrarily set

$$||\beta|| = \frac{1}{C}$$

Then the problem can be reformulated as

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{minimize } \frac{1}{2}||\beta||^2 \\ \text{w.r.t. } y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) \geq 1, \quad i=1,\ldots,n \\ \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \\ \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

This problem is a convex optimization problem (quadratic target function with linear inequality constraints).

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Quadratic Optimization

To get rid of the linear inequality constraints, one usually applies Lagrange multipliers.

The Lagrange (primal) function of this problem is

$$L := \frac{1}{2}||\beta||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) - 1)$$
 w.r.t. $\alpha_i > 0$

For an extremum it is required that

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta} = \beta - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{i} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_{0}} = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

and

Quadratic Optimization



Input

$$\beta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i x_i, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

into

$$L := \frac{1}{2} ||\beta||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (y_i (\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) - 1)$$

yields the dual problem

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} x_{j} \right\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \left(y_{i} \left(\beta_{0} + \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} x_{j}, x_{i} \right\rangle \right) - 1 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \left\langle x_{i}, x_{j} \right\rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \beta_{0} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \left\langle x_{i}, x_{j} \right\rangle$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \left\langle x_{i}, x_{j} \right\rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \left\langle x_{i}, x_{j} \right\rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$

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Quadratic Optimization

The dual problem is

maximize
$$L(\alpha) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i$$

w.r.t. $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$
 $\alpha_i > 0$

with much simpler constraints.

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Minimize a Quadratic Function with Linear Equality and Inequality Constraints

minimize
$$f(x) := x^T Cx - c^T x$$

w.r.t. $Ax - a = 0$
 $Bx - b \le 0$
 $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$

where

$$C \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}, c \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$$
 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}, a \in \mathbb{R}^{M}$
 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}, b \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$
 M equality constraints
 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}, b \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$
 K inequality constraints

Note: Each equality constraint can also be represented as two inequality constraints.

Submanifold Minimization Algorithm



```
1: procedure MINIMIZE-INEQ-CSTR-
         \text{SUBMANIFOLD}(\textit{\textbf{C}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{N}} \times \textit{\textbf{N}}, \textit{\textbf{c}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{N}}, \textit{\textbf{A}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{M}} \times \textit{\textbf{N}}, \textit{\textbf{a}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{M}}, \textit{\textbf{B}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{K}} \times \textit{\textbf{N}}, \textit{\textbf{b}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{K}}, \textit{\textbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^\textit{\textbf{N}})
                  K_0 := \{k \in \{1, \dots, K\} \mid (Bx - b)_k = 0\}
  2:
                  while true do
  3:
  4:
                          while true do
                                  	ilde{A} := \left( egin{array}{c} A \ (B_{k,.})_{k \in \mathcal{K}_0} \end{array} 
ight), 	ilde{a} := \left( egin{array}{c} a \ (b_{k,.})_{k \in \mathcal{K}_0} \end{array} 
ight)
  5:
                                  (x^*, \nu^*) := \text{solve}(\begin{pmatrix} C & \tilde{A}^T \\ \tilde{A} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \nu \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ \tilde{a} \end{pmatrix})
  6:
                                   if f(x^*) \ge f(x) then
  7:
  8:
                                            break
                                   \alpha := \max\{\alpha \in [0,1] \mid B(x + \alpha(x^* - x) - b \le 0\}
  9:
                                   x := x + \alpha(x^* - x)
10:
                                   K_0 := \{k \in \{1, \dots, K\} \mid (Bx - b)_k = 0\}
11:
                           if v^* \ge 0 then
12:
13:
                                   break
                           choose k \in K_0: v_k^* < 0
14:
                           K_0 := K_0 \setminus \{k\}
15:
16:
                  return x
```

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The dual problem for the maximum margin separating hyperplane is such a constrained quadratic optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize } L = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \\ & \text{w.r.t. } \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\ & \alpha_i \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Set
$$f := -L$$

$$C_{i,j} := y_i y_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$

$$c_i := 1$$

$$x_i := \alpha_i$$

$$A := (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N), \quad a = (0)$$

$$B_{i,.} := (0, 0, \dots, 0, -1, 0, \dots, 0) \quad \text{(with the -1 at column } i), i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$b_i := 0$$

Learning SVMs by Submanifold Minimization



1: **procedure** LEARN-SVM(
$$\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}} := \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\})$$
2: $C := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} \alpha_n \alpha_m y_n y_m \langle x_n, x_m \rangle$
3: $c := (1, 1, \dots, 1)$
4: $A := (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N), a := (0)$
5: $B := -I, b := (0, 0, \dots, 0)$
6: $N^+ := |\{n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \mid y_n = +1\}|, N^- := N - N^+$
7: $\alpha_n := \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N^+} & \text{if } y_n = +1 \\ \frac{1}{N^-} & \text{else} \end{cases}$
8: $\alpha := \text{MINIMIZE-CSTR-INEQ}(C, c, A, a, B, b, \alpha)$
9: $\beta := \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n y_n x_n$
10: $N^S := |\{n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \mid \alpha_n > 0\}|$
11: $\beta_0 := \frac{1}{N^S} \sum_{n=1, \alpha_n > 0}^{N} y_n - \beta^T x_n$
12: **return** (β_0, β)

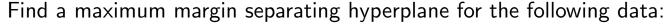
Note: I is the identity matrix.

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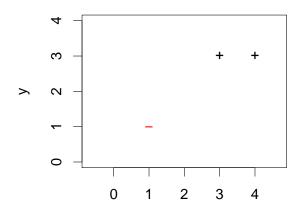
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Example



x_1	<i>X</i> ₂	У
1	1	-1
3	3	+1
4	3	+1



Example



$$C = (y_i y_j \langle x_i, x_y \rangle)_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -6 & -7 \\ -6 & 18 & 21 \\ -7 & 21 & 25 \end{pmatrix}, \quad c = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$A = (-1 \ 1 \ 1), \quad a = (0)$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

As the equality constraint $A\alpha = a$ always needs to be met, it can be added to C:

$$C' = \begin{pmatrix} C & y \\ y^T & 0 \end{pmatrix}, = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -6 & -7 & -1 \\ -6 & 18 & 21 & 1 \\ -7 & 21 & 25 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

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Example

Let us start with a random

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

that meets both constraints:

$$Ax - a = \langle y, x \rangle = -2 + 1 + 1 = 0$$
$$Bx - b = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \le 0$$

As none of the inequality constaints is active: $I_0(x) = \emptyset$.

Step 1: We have to solve

$$C'\left(\begin{array}{c} x \\ \mu \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} c \\ 0 \end{array}\right)$$

Example



This yields

$$x^* = \left(\begin{array}{c} 0.5\\1.5\\-1.0 \end{array}\right)$$

which does not fulfill the (inactive) inequality constraint $x_3 \ge 0$. So we look for

$$x + \alpha(x^* - x) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -1.5 \\ 0.5 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \ge 0$$

that fulfills all inequality constraints and has large step size α . Obviously, $\alpha=0.5$ is best and yields

$$x := x + \alpha(x^* - x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1.25 \\ 1.25 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Example



Step 2: Now the third inequality constraint is active: $I_0(x) = \{3\}$.

$$C'' = \left(egin{array}{ccc} C' & y & -e_3 \ y^T & 0 & 0 \ -e_3^T & 0 & 0 \end{array}
ight), \quad = \left(egin{array}{cccc} 2 & -6 & -7 & -1 & 0 \ -6 & 18 & 21 & 1 & 0 \ -7 & 21 & 25 & 1 & -1 \ -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}
ight),$$

and we have to solve

$$C''\begin{pmatrix} x \\ \mu \\ \nu^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

which yields

$$x^* = \begin{pmatrix} 0.25 \\ 0.25 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \nu^* = 0.5$$

Example



As x^* fulfills all constraints, it becomes the next x (step size $\alpha = 1$):

$$x := x^*$$

As the lagrange multiplier $\nu^* \geq 0$, the algorithm stops: x is optimal.

So we found the optimal

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 0.25 \\ 0.25 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (called x in the algorithm!)

and can compute

$$\beta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i x_i = 0.25 \cdot (-1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 0.25 \cdot (+1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

 β_0 can be computed from the original constraints of the points with $\alpha_i > 0$ which have to be sharp, i.e.,

$$y_1(eta_0 + \langle eta, x_1 \rangle) = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \beta_0 = y_1 - \langle eta, x_1 \rangle = -1 - \langle \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle = -2$$

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Optimal Hyperplane



Inseparable problems can be modeled by allowing some points to be on the wrong side of the hyperplane.

Hyperplanes are better if

- (i) the fewer points are on the wrong side and
- (ii) the closer these points are to the hyperplane (modeled by slack variables ξ_i).

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } \frac{1}{2}||\beta||^2 + \gamma \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ & \text{w.r.t. } y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \\ & \quad \xi \geq 0 \\ & \quad \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \\ & \quad \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

This problem also is a convex optimization problem (quadratic target function with linear inequality constraints).

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Machine Learning

Dual Problem



Compute again the dual problem:

$$L := \frac{1}{2} ||\beta||^2 + \gamma \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (y_i (\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) - (1 - \xi_i)) - \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \xi_i$$

w.r.t.
$$\alpha_i \ge 0$$

 $\mu_i > 0$

For an extremum it is required that

and
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta} = \beta - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i x_i \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_0} = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

and
$$\partial eta_0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathcal{E}_i} = \gamma - \alpha_i - \mu_i \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \alpha_i = \gamma - \mu_i$$

Dual Problem



Input

$$\beta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i x_i, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad \alpha_i = \gamma - \mu_i$$

into

$$L := \frac{1}{2}||\beta||^2 + \gamma \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) - (1-\xi)) - \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \xi_i$$

yields the dual problem

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i x_i, \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j x_j \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i (y_i (\beta_0 + \langle \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j x_j, x_i \rangle) - (1 - \xi_i))$$

$$+ \gamma \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i \xi_i$$

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Dual Problem

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} x_{j} \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (y_{i} (\beta_{0} + \langle \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} x_{j}, x_{i} \rangle) - (1 - \xi_{i}))$$

$$+ \gamma \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i} \xi_{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \langle x_{i}, x_{j} \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \beta_{0} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \langle x_{i}, x_{j} \rangle$$

$$- \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \xi_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \xi_{i}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \langle x_{i}, x_{j} \rangle + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$

Dual Problem



The dual problem is

maximize
$$L=-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^n\alpha_i\alpha_jy_iy_j\langle x_i,x_j\rangle+\sum_{i=1}^n\alpha_i$$
 w.r.t. $\sum_{i=1}^n\alpha_iy_i=0$ $\alpha_i\leq\gamma$

with much simpler constraints.

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Machine Learning

Outline



- 1. Separating Hyperplanes
- 2. Perceptron
- 3. Maximum Margin Separating Hyperplanes
- 4. Learning SVMs
- 5. Non-separable Problems
- 6. Support Vectors and Kernels

Support Vectors / Separable Case



For points on the right side of the hyperplane (i.e., if a constraint holds),

$$y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) > 1$$

then L is maximized by $\alpha_i = 0$: x_i is irrelevant.

For points on the wrong side of the hyperplane (i.e., if a constraint is violated),

$$y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) < 1$$

then L is maximized for $\alpha_i \to \infty$.

For separable data, β and β_0 have to be changed to make the constraint hold.

For points on the margin, i.e.,

$$y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) = 1$$

 α_i is some finite value.

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Support Vectors / Inseparable Case

For points on the right side of the hyperplane,

$$y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) > 1, \quad \xi_i = 0$$

then L is maximized by $\alpha_i = 0$: x_i is irrelevant.

For points in the margin as well as on the wrong side of the hyperplane,

$$y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) = 1 - \xi_i, \quad \xi_i > 0$$

 α_i is some finite value.

For points on the margin, i.e.,

$$y_i(\beta_0 + \langle \beta, x_i \rangle) = 1, \quad \xi_i = 0$$

 α_i is some finite value.

The data points x_i with $\alpha_i > 0$ are called support vectors.

Decision Function



Due to

$$\hat{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i y_i x_i,$$

the decision function

$$\hat{y}(x) = \operatorname{sign} \hat{\beta}_0 + \langle \hat{\beta}, x \rangle$$

can be expressed using the training data:

$$\hat{y}(x) = \operatorname{sign} \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\alpha}_i y_i \langle x_i, x \rangle$$

Only support vectors are required, as only for them $\hat{\alpha}_i \neq 0$.

Both, the learning problem and the decision function can be expressed using an inner product / a similarity measure / a kernel $\langle x, x' \rangle$.

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High-Dimensional Embeddings / The "kernel trick" Example:

we map points from R^2 into the higher dimensional space \mathbb{R}^6 via

$$h: \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right) \mapsto \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \end{array}\right)$$

Then the inner product

$$\langle h(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}), h(\begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix}) \rangle = 1 + 2x_1x_1' + 2x_2x_2' + x_1^2{x_1'}^2 + x_2^2{x_2'}^2 + 2x_1x_2x_1'x_2'$$

= $(1 + x_1x_1' + x_2x_2')^2$

can be computed without having to compute the embedding h explicitely!

Popular Kernels



Some popular kernels are:

linear kernel:

$$K(x,x') := \langle x,x' \rangle := \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i x_i'$$

polynomial kernel of degree d:

$$K(x,x') := (1 + \langle x,x' \rangle)^d$$

radial basis kernel / gaussian kernel :

$$K(x,x') := e^{-\frac{||x-x'||^2}{c}}$$

neural network kernel / sigmoid kernel :

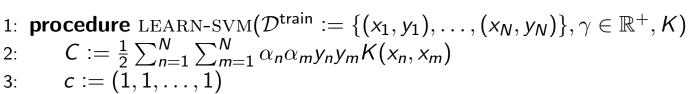
$$K(x,x') := \tanh(a\langle x,x'\rangle + b)$$

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Learning SVMs by Submanifold Minimization



2:
$$C := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} \alpha_n \alpha_m y_n y_m K(x_n, x_m)$$

3:
$$c := (1, 1, \dots, 1)$$

4:
$$A := (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N), a := (0)$$

5:
$$B := \begin{pmatrix} -I \\ I \end{pmatrix}, b := \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix}$$

6:
$$N^+ := |\{n \in \{1, ..., N\} \mid y_n = +1\}|, N^- := N - N^+$$

7:
$$\alpha_n := \gamma \cdot \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N^+}, & \text{if } y_n = +1 \\ \frac{1}{N^-}, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

8:
$$\alpha := \text{MINIMIZE-CSTR-INEQ}(C, c, A, a, B, b, \alpha)$$

9:
$$N^{S} := |\{n \in \{1, ..., N\} \mid \alpha_{n} > 0\}|$$

9:
$$N^{S} := |\{n \in \{1, ..., N\} \mid \alpha_{n} > 0\}|$$

10: $\beta_{0} := \frac{1}{N^{S}} \sum_{n=1, \alpha_{n} > 0}^{N} y_{n} - \sum_{m=1, \alpha_{m} > 0}^{N} \alpha_{m} y_{m} K(x_{m}, x_{n})$

11:

Note: *I* is the identity matrix.

Predicting with SVMs



```
1: procedure PREDICT-

SVM(\alpha \in (\mathbb{R}_0^+)^N, \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{D}^{\mathsf{train}} := \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}, K)

2: \hat{y} := \beta_0

3: for n := 1, \dots, N with \alpha_n \neq 0 do

4: \hat{y} := \hat{y} + \alpha_n y_n K(x_n, x)

5: return \hat{y}
```

Note: \hat{y} yields the score/certainty factor, sign \hat{y} the predicted class. From $\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}}$, only the support vectors (x_n, y_n) (having $\alpha_n > 0$) are required.

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Summary (1/2)



- ▶ Binary classification problems with linear decision boundaries can be rephrased as finding a **separating hyperplane**.
- ► In the linear separable case, there are simple algorithms like perceptron learning to find such a separating hyperplane.
- ▶ If one requires the additional property that the hyperplane should have maximal margin, i.e., maximal distance to the closest points of both classes, then a quadratic optimization problem with inequality constraints arises.
- Quadratic optimization problems without constraints as well as with equality constraints can be solved by linear systems of equations. Quadratic optimization problems with inequality constraints require some more complex methods such as submanifold optimization (a sequence of linear systems of equations).

Summary (2/2)



- ➤ Optimal hyperplanes can also be formulated for the linear inseparable case by allowing some points to be on the wrong side of the margin, but penalize for their distance from the margin. This also can be formulated as a quadratic optimization problem with inequality constraints.
- ► The final decision function can be computed in terms of inner products of the query points with some of the data points (called support vectors), which allows to bypass the explicit computation of high dimensional embeddings (kernel trick).

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Further Readings

► [Hastie et al., 2005, chapter 12.1–3], [Murphy, 2012, chapter 14.1+2+5], [James et al., 2013, chapter 9].

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Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, Jerome Friedman, and James Franklin. *The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference and Prediction*, volume 27. Springer, 2005.

Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani. *An Introduction to Statistical Learning*. Springer, 2013. Kevin P. Murphy. *Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective*. The MIT Press, 2012.

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Unconstrained Problem

The unconstrained quadratic optimization problem is

minimize
$$f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \langle x, Cx \rangle - \langle c, x \rangle$$

w.r.t. $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

(with $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ symmetric and positive definite, $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$).

The solution of the unconstrained quadratic optimization problem coincides with the solution of the linear systems of equations

$$Cx = c$$

that can be solved by Gaussian Elimination, Cholesky decomposition, QR decomposition etc.

Proof:

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x} = x^T C - c^T \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \Leftrightarrow Cx = c$$

Equality Constraints



The quadratic optimization problem with linear equality constraints is

minimize
$$f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \langle x, Cx \rangle - \langle c, x \rangle$$

w.r.t. $h(x) := Ax - b = 0$
 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

(with $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ symmetric and positive definite, $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$).

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Lagrange Function

Definition

Consider the optimization problem

minimize
$$f(x)$$

subject to $g(x) \le 0$
 $h(x) = 0$
 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

with $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and $h: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^p$.

The Lagrange function of this problem is defined as

$$L(x, \lambda, \nu) := f(x) + \langle \lambda, g(x) \rangle + \langle \nu, h(x) \rangle$$

 λ and ν are called Lagrange multipliers.

Lower Bounds Lemma



Lemma

Die dual function yields lower bounds for the optimal value of the problem, i.e.,

$$\bar{f}(\lambda, \nu) \le f(x^*), \quad \forall \lambda \ge 0, \nu$$

Proof:

For feasible x, i.e., $g(x) \le 0$ and h(x) = 0:

$$L(x, \lambda, \nu) = f(x) + \langle \lambda, g(x) \rangle + \langle \nu, h(x) \rangle \leq f(x)$$

Hence

$$\bar{f}(\lambda,\nu) = \inf_{\mathbf{x}} L(\mathbf{x},\lambda,\nu) \le f(\mathbf{x})$$

and especially for $x = x^*$.

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Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions



If

- (i) x is optimal for the problem,
- (ii) λ, ν are optimal for the dual problem and
- (iii) $f(x) = \overline{f}(\lambda, \nu)$,

then the following conditions hold:

$$g(x) \le 0$$

$$h(x) = 0$$

$$\lambda \ge 0$$

$$\lambda_i g_i(x) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x} + \langle \lambda, \frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x} \rangle + \langle \nu, \frac{\partial h(x)}{\partial x} \rangle = 0$$

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Proof: "⇒"

$$f(x) = \overline{f}(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x'} f(x') + \langle \lambda, g(x') \rangle + \langle \nu, h(x') \rangle$$

$$\leq f(x) + \langle \lambda, g(x) \rangle + \langle \nu, h(x) \rangle \leq f(x)$$

and therefore equality holds, thus

$$\langle \lambda, g(x) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i g_i(x) = 0$$

and as all terms are non-positive: $\lambda_i g_i(x) = 0$.

Since x minimizes $L(x', \lambda, \nu)$ over x', the derivative must vanish:

$$\frac{\partial L(x,\lambda,\nu)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x} + \langle \lambda, \frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x} \rangle + \langle \nu, \frac{\partial h(x)}{\partial x} \rangle = 0$$

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Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions



Proof (ctd.): " \Leftarrow " Now let f be convex. Since $\lambda \geq 0$, $L(x', \lambda, \nu)$ is convex in x'. As its first derivative vanishes at x, x minimizes $L(x', \lambda, \nu)$ over x', and thus:

$$\bar{f}(\lambda,\nu) = L(x,\lambda,\nu) = f(x) + \langle \lambda, g(x) \rangle + \langle \nu, h(x) \rangle = f(x)$$

Therefore is x optimal for the problem and λ, ν optimal for the dual problem.

Equality Constraints



The quadratic optimization problem with linear equality constraints is

minimize
$$f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \langle x, Cx \rangle - \langle c, x \rangle$$

w.r.t. $h(x) := Ax - b = 0$
 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

(with $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ symmetric and positive definite, $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$).

The KKT conditions for the optimal solution x^*, ν^* are:

$$h(x^*) = Ax^* - b = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x} + \langle \nu^*, \frac{\partial h(x^*)}{\partial x} \rangle = Cx^* - c + A^T \nu^* = 0$$

which can be written as a single system of linear equations

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} C & A^T \\ A & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} x^* \\ \nu^* \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} c \\ b \end{array}\right)$$

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Inequality Constraints

The quadratic optimization problem with linear inequality constraints is

minimize
$$f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \langle x, Cx \rangle - \langle c, x \rangle$$

w.r.t. $g(x) := Ax - b \le 0$
 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

(with $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ symmetric and positive definite, $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$).

Inequality constraints are more complex to solve.

But they can be reduced to a sequence of equality constraints.

Inequality Constraints



At each point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ one distinguishes between active constraints g_i with $g_i(x) = 0$ and inactive constraints g_i with $g_i(x) < 0$.

Active set

$$I_0(x) := \{i \in \{1, \dots, m\} \mid g_i(x) = 0\}$$

Inactive constraints stay inactive in a neighborhood of x and can be neglected there.

Active constraints are equality constraints that identify points at the border of the feasible area.

We can restrict our attention to just the points at the actual border, i.e., use the equality constraints

$$h_i(x) := g_i(x), \quad i \in I_0$$

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Inequality Constraints



If there is an optimal point x^* found with optimal lagrange multiplier $\nu^* \geq 0$:

$$\frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x} + \sum_{i \in I_0} \nu_i^* \frac{\partial h_i(x^*)}{\partial x} = 0$$

then x^* with

$$\lambda_i^* := \left\{ egin{array}{ll}
u_i^*, & i \in I_0 \\ 0, & ext{else} \end{array} \right.$$

fullfils the KKT conditions of the original problem:

$$\lambda_i^* g_i(x^*) = \begin{cases} \nu_i^* h_i(x^*) = 0, & i \in I_0 \\ 0 g_i(x^*) = 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x} + \langle \lambda^*, \frac{\partial h(x^*)}{\partial x} \rangle = \frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x} + \sum_{i \in I_0} \nu_i^* \frac{\partial h_i(x^*)}{\partial x} = 0$$

Inequality Constraints



If the optimal point x^* on the border has an optimal lagrange multiplier ν^* with $\nu_i^* < 0$ for some $i \in I_0$,

$$\frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x} + \sum_{i \in I_0} \nu_i^* \frac{\partial h_i(x^*)}{\partial x} = 0$$

then f decreases along $h_i := g_i$, thus we can decrease f by moving away from the border by dropping the constraint i.

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Inequality Constraints

```
i minimize-submanifold(target function f, inequality constraint function g):
2 x := a random vector with g(x) \le 0
I_0 := I_0(x) := \{i \mid g_i(x) = 0\}
       x^* := \operatorname{argmin}_x f(x) subject to g_i(x) = 0, i \in I_0
       while f(x^*) < f(x) do
               \alpha := \max \{ \alpha \in [0, 1] \mid g(x + \alpha(x^* - x)) \le 0 \}
               x := x + \alpha(x^* - x)
8
               I_0 := I_0(x)
9
               x^* := \operatorname{argmin}_x f(x) subject to g_i(x) = 0, i \in I_0
11
       Let \nu^* be the optimal Lagrange multiplier for x^*
12
       if \nu^* \geq 0 break fi
       choose i \in I_0 : \nu_i^* < 0
       I_0 := I_0 \setminus \{i\}
16 while true
17 return x
```