Kernel Methods & SVM

Partially based on the ML lecture by Raymond J. Mooney University of Texas at Austin

Back to Linear Classifier (Slightly Modified)

A linear classifier $h[\vec{w}]$ is determined by a vector of weights $\vec{w} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ as follows:

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,
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For convenience, we use values $\{-1, 1\}$ instead of $\{0, 1\}$. Note that this is not a principal modification, the linear classifier works exactly as the original one. Recall that given $\vec{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the *augmented feature* vector is

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$
 where $x_0 = 1$

This makes the notation for the linear classifier more succinct:

$$h[ec w](ec x) = sig(ec w \cdot \widetilde{{f x}}) ext{ where } sig(y) = egin{cases} 1 & y \geq 0 \ -1 & y < 0 \end{cases}$$

Given a training set

 $D = \{ (\vec{x}_1, y(\vec{x}_1)), (\vec{x}_2, y(\vec{x}_2)), \dots, (\vec{x}_p, y(\vec{x}_p)) \}$ Here $\vec{x}_k = (x_{k1} \dots, x_{kn}) \in X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y(\vec{x}_k) \in \{-1, 1\}$.

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• A weight vector $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ is consistent with D if

 $h[\vec{w}](\vec{x}_k) = sig(\vec{w} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k) = y_k$ for all $k = 1, \dots, p$

D is **linearly separable** if there is a vector $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ which is consistent with *D*.

Perceptron learning algorithm (slightly modified):

Consider training examples cyclically. Compute a sequence of weight vectors $\vec{w}^{(0)}, \vec{w}^{(1)}, \vec{w}^{(2)}, \dots$

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 is initialized to $\vec{0} = (0, \dots, 0)$.

(This is a slight but harmless modification of the traditional algorithm.)

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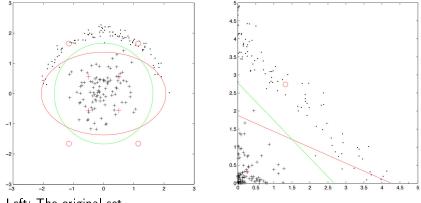
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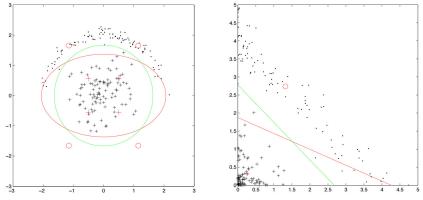
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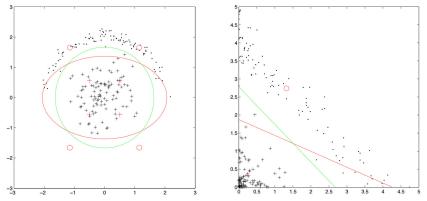
(Note that this algorithm corresponds to the perceptron learning with the learning speed $\varepsilon = 1$.) We know: if D is linearly separable, then there is t^* such that $\vec{w}^{(t^*)}$ is consistent with D. But what can we do if D is not linearly separable?



Left: The original set,

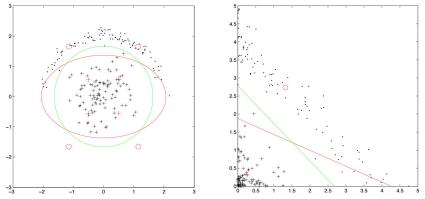


Left: The original set, Right: Transformed using the square of features.



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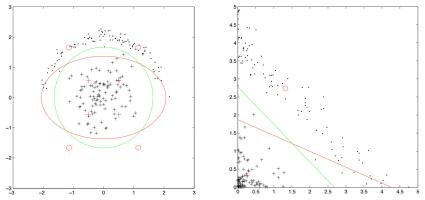
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How to classify (in the original space): First, transform a given feature vector by squaring the features, then use the linear classifier.

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To avoid explicit construction of the higher dimensional feature space, we use so called *kernel trick*.

But first we need to *dualize* our learning algorithm.

Perceptron learning algorithm once more:

Compute a sequence of weight vectors $\vec{w}^{(0)}, \vec{w}^{(1)}, \vec{w}^{(2)}, \dots$

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- $\vec{w}^{(0)}$ is initialized to $\vec{0} = (0, \dots, 0)$.
- ln (t+1)-th step, $\vec{w}^{(t+1)}$ is computed as follows:
 - If $sig(\vec{w} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k) \neq y_k$, then $\vec{w}^{(t+1)} = \vec{w}^{(t)} + y_k \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k$.

• Otherwise,
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.

Here $k = (t \mod p) + 1$, i.e. the examples are considered cyclically.

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Crucial observation:

Note that $\vec{w}^{(t)} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(t)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}$ for suitable $n_{1}^{(t)}, \ldots, n_{p}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{N}$. Intuitively, $n_{\ell}^{(t)}$ counts how many times $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}$ was added to (if $y_{\ell} = 1$), or subtracted from (if $y_{\ell} = -1$) weights.

Dual Perceptron learning algorithm :

Compute a sequence of vectors of numbers $\vec{n}^{(0)}, \vec{n}^{(1)}, \ldots$ where each $\vec{n}^{(t)} = (n_1^{(t)}, \ldots, n_p^{(t)}) \in \mathbb{N}^p$.

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If D is linearly separable, there exists t^* such that $\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(t^*)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}$ is consistent with D. The algorithm stops at such t^* and returns $(n_1^{(t^*)}, \ldots, n_p^{(t^*)})$ so that $\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(t^*)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}$ is consistent with D.

Example

Training set:

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$$y_1 = 1$$

 $y_2 = 1$
 $y_3 = -1$

The initial values $n_1^{(0)} = n_2^{(0)} = n_3^{(0)} = 0.$

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(0)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 0, \text{ thus } sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(0)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1}) = 1 = y_{1}.$$

Hence, $\overline{n}^{(1)} = (0, 0, 0).$

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- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(5)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} = 1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} 1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} = -5, \text{ thus}$ $\bar{n}^{(6)} = (0, 1, 1). \text{ This is OK.}$

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(0)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 0, \text{ thus } sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(0)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1}) = 1 = y_{1} \cdot Hence, \ \vec{n}^{(1)} = (0, 0, 0).$$

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- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(4)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} = -1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} = -1 \cdot (1, 1, 3) \cdot (1, 2, 1) = -1 \cdot 6 = -6,$ thus $sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(4)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2}) = -1 \neq y_{2}.$ Hence, $\vec{n}^{(5)} = (0, 1, 1).$
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- $\sum_{\substack{\ell=1\\ \vec{n}^{(7)} = (0,1,1)}}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(6)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} 1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 4, \text{ thus}$

- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(0)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 0, \text{ thus } sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(0)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1}) = 1 = y_{1}.$ Hence, $\bar{n}^{(1)} = (0, 0, 0).$
- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(1)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} = 0, \text{ thus } sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(1)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2}) = 1 = y_{2}.$ Hence, $\overline{n}^{(2)} = (0, 0, 0).$
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Hence, $\vec{n}^{(1)} = (0, 0, 0).$

- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(1)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} = 0, \text{ thus } sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(1)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2}) = 1 = y_{2}.$ Hence, $\vec{n}^{(2)} = (0, 0, 0).$
- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(2)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} = 0, \text{ thus } sig(\sum_{\ell=1}^{3} n_{\ell}^{(2)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3}) = 1 \neq y_{3}.$ Hence, $\vec{n}^{(3)} = (0, 0, 1).$
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- $\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(6)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{2} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} 1 \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{3} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1} = 4, \text{ thus }$ $\vec{n}^{(7)} = (0, 1, 1). \text{ This is OK.}$
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The result: $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_2 - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_3$.

Dual Perceptron Learning – Output

Let $\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}$ result from the dual perceptron learning algorithm.

I.e., each $n_\ell = n_\ell^{(t^*)} \in \mathbb{N}$ for suitable t^* in which the algorithm found a consistent vector.

This vector of weights determines a linear classifier that for a given $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ gives

$$h[\vec{w}](\vec{x}) = sig\left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell} \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}\right)$$

(Here $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is the augmented feature vector obtained from \vec{x} .)

Crucial observation: The (augmented) feature vectors $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ occur *only* in scalar products!

For simplicity, assume bivariate data: $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k = (1, x_{k1}, x_{k2})$.

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 $1 + x_{k1}^2 x_{\ell 1}^2 + x_{k2}^2 x_{\ell 2}^2$

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which resembles (but is not equal to)

$$\begin{aligned} (\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k \cdot \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_\ell)^2 &= (1 + x_{k1} x_{\ell 1} + x_{k2} x_{\ell 2})^2 = \\ &= 1 + x_{k1}^2 x_{\ell 1}^2 + x_{k2}^2 x_{\ell 2}^2 + 2x_{k1} x_{\ell 1} x_{k2} x_{\ell 2} + 2x_{k1} x_{\ell 1} + 2x_{k2} x_{\ell 2} \end{aligned}$$

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But now consider a mapping ϕ to \mathbb{R}^6 defined by

$$\phi(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k) = (1, x_{k1}^2, x_{k2}^2, \sqrt{2}x_{k1}x_{k2}, \sqrt{2}x_{k1}, \sqrt{2}x_{k2})$$

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THE Idea: Define a *kernel* $\kappa(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_\ell) = (\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_\ell)^2$ and replace $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_\ell$ in the dual perceptron algorithm with $\kappa(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_\ell)$.

Kernel Perceptron learning algorithm :

Compute a sequence of vectors of numbers $\vec{n}^{(0)}, \vec{n}^{(1)}, \ldots$ where each $\vec{n}^{(t)} = (n_1^{(t)}, \ldots, n_p^{(t)}) \in \mathbb{N}^p$.

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▶ In (t+1)-th step, $(n_1^{(t+1)}, \ldots, n_p^{(t+1)})$ is computed as follows:

If sig
$$\left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell}^{(t)} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \underline{\kappa}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{k}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell})\right) \neq y_{k}$$
, then $n_{k}^{(t+1)} := n_{k}^{(t)} + 1$, else, $n_{k}^{(t+1)} := n_{k}^{(t)}$.
 $n_{\ell}^{(t+1)} := n_{\ell}^{(t)}$ for all $\ell \neq k$.
$$\chi(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{k}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell}) = (\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{k} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell})^{2}$$

Here $k = (t \mod p) + 1$, the examples are considered cyclically.

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Here $k = (t \mod p) + 1$, the examples are considered cyclically.

Intuition: The algorithm computes a linear classifier in \mathbb{R}^6 for training examples transformed using ϕ .

The trick is that the transformation ϕ itself *does not have to be explicitly computed!*

Dual Perceptron Learning

Let $\vec{n} = (n_1, \ldots, n_p)$ result from the kernel perceptron learning algorithm. I.e., each $n_\ell = n_\ell^{(t^*)} \in \mathbb{N}$ for suitable t^* such that $sig\left(\sum_{\ell=1}^p n_\ell^{(t^*)} \cdot y_\ell \cdot \kappa(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_\ell)\right) = y_k$ for all $k = 1, \ldots, p$.

We obtain a *non-linear classifier* that for a given $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ gives

$$h[\vec{w}](\vec{x}) = sig\left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} n_{\ell} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \kappa(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{\ell})\right)$$

(Here $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is the augmented feature vector obtained from \vec{x} .)

Are there other kernels that correspond to the scalar product in higher dimensional spaces?

Given a (potential) kernel $\kappa(\vec{x}_{\ell}, \vec{x}_k)$ we need to check whether $\kappa(\vec{x}_{\ell}, \vec{x}_k) = \phi(\vec{x}_{\ell}) \cdot \phi(\vec{x}_k)$ for a function ϕ . This might be very difficult.

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Věta (Mercer's)

 κ is a kernel if the corresponding Gram matrix K of the training set D, whose each ℓk -th element is $\kappa(\vec{x}_{\ell}, \vec{x}_k)$, is positive semi-definite for all possible choices of the training set D.

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Kernels can be constructed from existing kernels by several operations

linear combination (i.e. multiply by a constant, or sum),

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- linear combination (i.e. multiply by a constant, or sum),
- multiplication,
- exponentiation,
- multiply by a polynomial with non-negative coefficients,
- • •

(see e.g. "Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning" by Bishop)

• Linear:
$$\kappa(ec{x_\ell}, ec{x_k}) = ec{x_\ell} \cdot ec{x_k}$$

The corresponding mapping $\phi(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}$ is identity (no transformation).

• Linear:
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 Gaussian (radial-basis function): κ(x_ℓ, x_k) = e<sup>- ||x_ℓ - x_k||²/2σ²</sub> The corresponding mapping φ maps x to an *infinite-dimensional* vector φ(x) which is, in fact, a Gaussian function; combination of such functions for support vectors is then the separating hypersurface.
</sup>

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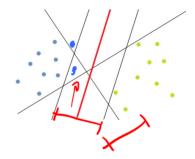
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• • • •

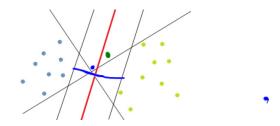
Choosing kernels remains to be black magic of kernel methods. They are usually chosen based on trial and error (of course, experience and additional insight into data helps).

Now let's go on to the main area where kernel methods are used: to enhance support vector machines.

SVM Idea – Which Linear Classifier is the Best?



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Benefits of maximum margin:

- Intuitively, maximum margin is good w.r.t. generalization.
- Only the support vectors (those on the magin) matter, others can, in principle, be ignored.

Support Vector Machines (SVM)

Notation:

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Consider a linear classifier:

$$h[\vec{w}](\vec{x}) := \begin{cases} 1 & w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \cdot x_i = w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x} \ge 0\\ -1 & w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \cdot x_i = w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x} < 0 \end{cases}$$

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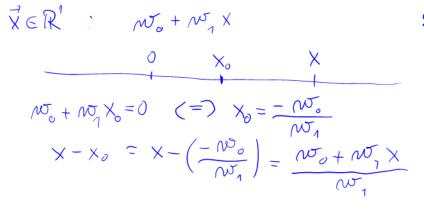
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$$d[\vec{w}](\vec{x}) = \frac{w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}_k}{\|\underline{\vec{w}}\|}$$

Here $\|\underline{\vec{w}}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i^2}$ is the Euclidean norm of $\underline{\vec{w}}$.

 $|d[\vec{w}](\vec{x})|$ is the distance of \vec{x} from the decision boundary. $d[\vec{w}](\vec{x})$ is positive for \vec{x} on the side to which $\underline{\vec{w}}$ points and negative on the opposite side.

Support Vectors & Margin

Given a training set

 $D = \{ (\vec{x}_1, y(\vec{x}_1)), (\vec{x}_2, y(\vec{x}_2)), \dots, (\vec{x}_p, y(\vec{x}_p)) \}$ Here $\vec{x}_k = (x_{k1} \dots, x_{kn}) \in X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y(\vec{x}_k) \in \{-1, 1\}$.

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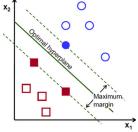
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- Assume that D is linearly separable, let w be consistent with D so that the distance of the decision boundary from the nearest examples on both sides is the same (if not, it suffices to adjust w₀).
- Support vectors are those x
 k that minimize |d[w](x
 k)|.
- Margin ρ of w is twice the distance between support vectors and the decision boundary.



Our goal is to find a classifier that maximizes the margin.

Maximizing the Margin

For \vec{w} consistent with D (such that no \vec{x}_k lies on the decision boundary) we have

$$\varrho = 2 \cdot \frac{|w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}_k|}{\|\underline{\vec{w}}\|} = 2 \cdot \frac{\mathbf{y}_k \cdot (w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}_k)}{\|\underline{\vec{w}}\|} > 0$$

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We may safely consider only \vec{w} such that $y_k \cdot (w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}_k) = 1$ for the support vectors.

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Then maximizing ρ is equivalent to maximizing $2/\|\vec{w}\|$.

(In what follows we use a bit looser constraint:

 $y_k \cdot (w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}_k) \ge 1$ for all \vec{x}_k

However, the result is the same since even with this looser condition, the support vectors always satisfy $y_k \cdot (w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}_k) = 1$ whenever $2/||\underline{w}||$ is maximal.)

Margin maximization can be formulated as a *quadratic optimization* problem:

Find
$$\vec{w} = (w_0, \dots, w_n)$$
 such that
 $\rho = \frac{2}{\|\vec{w}\|}$ is maximized
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Find
$$\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_p)$$
 such that

$$\Psi(\alpha) = \sum_{\ell=1}^p \alpha_\ell - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^p \sum_{k=1}^p \alpha_\ell \cdot \alpha_k \cdot y_\ell \cdot y_k \cdot \vec{x_\ell} \cdot \vec{x_k} \text{ is maximized}$$

so that the following constraints are satisfied:

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} \alpha_{\ell} y_{\ell} = 0$$

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The Optimization Problem Solution

• Given a solution $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ to the dual problem, solution $\vec{w} = (w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ to the original one is:

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The classifier is then

$$\begin{aligned} h(\vec{x}) &= sig(w_0 + \underline{\vec{w}} \cdot \vec{x}) \\ &= sig(y_k - \sum_{\ell} \alpha_{\ell} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \vec{x}_{\ell} \cdot \vec{x}_k + \sum_{\ell} \alpha_{\ell} \cdot y_{\ell} \cdot \vec{x}_{\ell} \cdot \vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

Note that both the dual optimization problem as well as the classifier contain training feature vectors only in the scalar product! We may apply the kernel trick!

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Note that the optimization techniques remain the same as for the linear SVM without kernels!

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 - Find an optimal solution using any solver.
 - Afterwards, only support vectors matter in the solution! Leave only them in the training set, and add new training examples.
 - This iterative procedure decreases the (general) cost function.

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- Most popular optimization algorithms for SVMs use decomposition to hillclimb over a subset of α_i's at a time, e.g. SMO [Platt '99] and [Joachims '99]
- Tuning SVMs remains a black art: selecting a specific kernel and parameters is usually done in a try-and-see manner.