

CS840a
Learning and Computer Vision
Prof. Olga Veksler

Lecture 3

Information Theory (a little BIT)
SVM
Some pictures from C. Burges

Information theory

- Information Theory regards information as only those symbols that are uncertain to the receiver
only information essential to understand must be transmitted
- Shannon made clear that uncertainty is the very commodity of communication
- The amount of information, or uncertainty, output by an information source is a measure of its entropy
- In turn, a source's entropy determines the amount of bits per symbol required to encode the source's information
- Messages are encoded with strings of 0 and 1 (bits)

Today

- Mutual Information
- Preparation for the next time:
 - paper: "Object Recognition with Informative Features and Linear Classification" by M. Naquet and S. Ullman
 - Ignore section of tree-augmented network
- Support Vector Machines

Information theory

- Suppose we toss a **fair** die with 8 sides
 - need 3 bits to transmit the results of each toss
 - 1000 throws will need 3000 bits to transmit
- Suppose the die is biased
 - side A occurs with probability $1/2$, chances of throwing B are $1/4$, C are $1/8$, D are $1/16$, E are $1/32$, F $1/64$, G and H are $1/128$
 - Encode A= 0, B = 10, C = 110, D = 1110, ..., so on until G = 1111110, H = 1111111
 - We need, on average, $1/2+2/4+3/8+4/16+5/32+6/64+7/128+7/128 = 1.984$ bits to encode results of a toss
 - 1000 throws require 1984 bits to transmit
 - Less bits to send = less "information"
 - Biased die tosses contain less "information" than unbiased die tosses (know in advance biased sequence will have a lot of A's)
 - What's the number of bits in the best encoding?
- Extreme case: if a die always shows side A, a sequence of 1,000 tosses has no information, 0 bits to encode

Information theory

- if a die is fair (any side is equally likely, or uniform distribution), for any toss we need $\log(8) = 3$ bits
- Suppose any of n events is equally likely (uniform distribution)
 - $P(x) = 1/n$, therefore $-\log P = -\log(1/n) = \log n$
- In the "good" encoding strategy for our biased die example, every side x has $-\log p(x)$ bits in its code
- Expected number of bits is

$$-\sum_x p(x) \log p(x)$$

Conditional Entropy of X given Y

$$H[x | y] = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log \frac{1}{p(x|y)} = -\sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log p(x|y)$$

- Measures average uncertainty about x when y is known
- Property:
 - $H[x] \geq H[x|y]$, which means after seeing new data (y), the uncertainty about x is not increased, on average

Shannon's Entropy

$$H[p(x)] = -\sum_x p(x) \log p(x) = \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)}$$

- How much randomness (or uncertainty) is there in the value of signal x if it has distribution $p(x)$
 - For uniform distribution (every event is equally likely), $H[x]$ is maximum
 - If $p(x) = 1$ for some event x , then $H[x] = 0$
 - Systems with one very common event have less entropy than systems with many equally probable events
- Gives the expected length of optimal encoding (in binary bits) of a message following distribution $p(x)$
 - doesn't actually give this optimal encoding

Mutual Information of X and Y

$$I[x, y] = H(x) - H(x | y)$$

- Measures the average reduction in uncertainty about x after y is known
- or, equivalently, it **measures the amount of information that y conveys about x**
- Properties
 - $I(x,y) = I(y,x)$
 - $I(x,y) \geq 0$
 - If x and y are independent, then $I(x,y) = 0$
 - $I(x,x) = H(x)$

MI for Feature Selection

$$I[x, c] = H(c) - H(c | x)$$

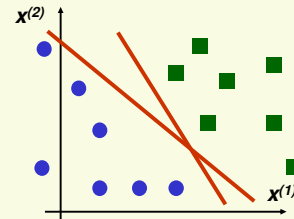
- Let x be a proposed feature and c be the class
- If $I[x, c]$ is high, we can expect feature x be good at predicting class c

Linear Discriminant Functions

- A discriminant function is linear if it can be written as

$$g(x) = w^T x + w_0$$

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) > 0 &\Rightarrow x \in \text{class 1} \\ g(x) < 0 &\Rightarrow x \in \text{class 2} \end{aligned}$$



- which separating hyperplane should we choose?

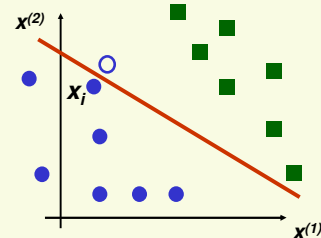
SVM

- Said to start in 1979 with Vladimir Vapnik's paper
- Major developments throughout 1990's
- Elegant theory
 - Has good generalization properties
- Have been applied to diverse problems very successfully in the last 10-15 years
- One of the most important developments in pattern recognition in the last 10 years



Linear Discriminant Functions

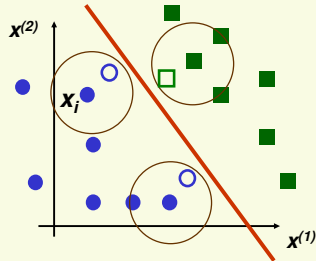
- Training data is just a subset of of all possible data
- Suppose hyperplane is close to sample x_i
- If we see new sample close to sample i , it is likely to be on the wrong side of the hyperplane



- Poor generalization (performance on unseen data)

Linear Discriminant Functions

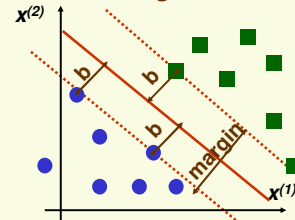
- Hyperplane as far as possible from any sample



- New samples close to the old samples will be classified correctly
- Good generalization

SVM: Linearly Separable Case

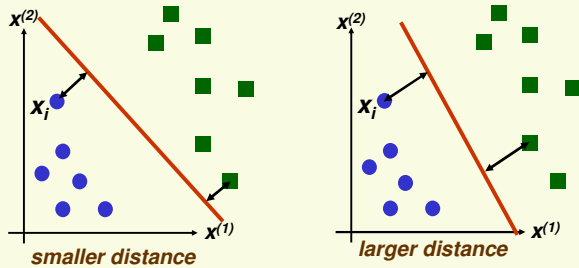
- SVM: maximize the *margin*



- margin* is twice the absolute value of distance **b** of the closest example to the separating hyperplane
- Better generalization (performance on test data)
 - in practice
 - and in theory

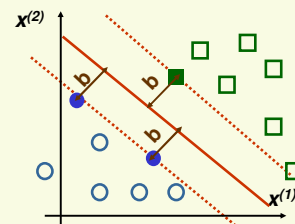
SVM

- Idea: maximize distance to the closest example



- For the optimal hyperplane
 - distance to the closest negative example = distance to the closest positive example

SVM: Linearly Separable Case



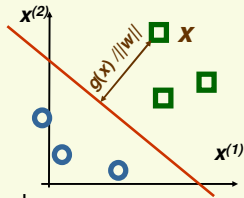
- Support vectors** are the samples closest to the separating hyperplane
 - they are the most difficult patterns to classify
 - Optimal hyperplane is completely defined by support vectors
 - of course, we do not know which samples are support vectors without finding the optimal hyperplane

SVM: Formula for the Margin

- $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x} + w_0$
- absolute distance between \mathbf{x} and the boundary $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$

$$\frac{|\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x} + w_0|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$
- distance is unchanged for hyperplane $g_f(\mathbf{x}) = \alpha g(\mathbf{x})$

$$\frac{|\alpha \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x} + \alpha w_0|}{\|\alpha \mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{|\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x} + w_0|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$
- Let \mathbf{x}_i be an example closest to the boundary. Set $|\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i + w_0| = 1$
- Now the largest margin hyperplane is unique



SVM: Optimal Hyperplane

- Maximize margin $m = \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$
- subject to constraints

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i + w_0 \geq 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \text{ is positive example} \\ \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i + w_0 \leq -1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \text{ is negative example} \end{cases}$$
- Let $\begin{cases} z_i = 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \text{ is positive example} \\ z_i = -1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \text{ is negative example} \end{cases}$
- Can convert our problem to

$$\text{minimize } J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

$$\text{constrained to } z_i(\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i + w_0) \geq 1 \quad \forall i$$
- $J(\mathbf{w})$ is a quadratic function, thus there is a single global minimum

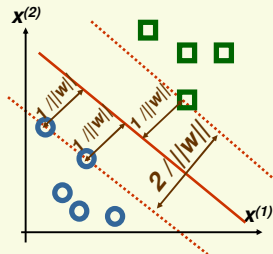
SVM: Formula for the Margin

- For uniqueness, set $|\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i + w_0| = 1$ for any example \mathbf{x}_i closest to the boundary
- now distance from closest sample \mathbf{x}_i to $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ is

$$\frac{|\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i + w_0|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

- Thus the margin is

$$m = \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$



SVM: Optimal Hyperplane

- Use Kuhn-Tucker theorem to convert our problem to:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize } L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j \mathbf{x}_i' \mathbf{x}_j \\ &\text{constrained to } \alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ are new variables, one for each sample
- Can rewrite $L_D(\alpha)$ using n by n matrix H :

$$L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}' H \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- where the value in the i th row and j th column of H is $H_{ij} = z_i z_j \mathbf{x}_i' \mathbf{x}_j$

SVM: Optimal Hyperplane

- Use Kuhn-Tucker theorem to convert our problem to:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize} && L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j x_i^t x_j \\ &\text{constrained to} && \alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ are new variables, one for each sample
- $L_D(\alpha)$ can be optimized by quadratic programming
- $L_D(\alpha)$ formulated in terms of α
 - it depends on w and w_0 indirectly

SVM: Optimal Hyperplane

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize} && L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j x_i^t x_j \\ &\text{constrained to} && \alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $L_D(\alpha)$ depends on the number of samples, not on dimension of samples
- samples appear only through the dot products $x_i^t x_j$
- This will become important when looking for a **nonlinear** discriminant function, as we will see soon
- Code available on the web to optimize

SVM: Optimal Hyperplane

- After finding the optimal $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$
 - For every sample i , one of the following must hold
 - $\alpha_i = 0$ (sample i is not a support vector)
 - $\alpha_i \neq 0$ and $z_i(w^t x_i + w_0 - 1) = 0$ (sample i is support vector)

- can find w using $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i x_i$
- can solve for w_0 using any $\alpha_i > 0$ and $\alpha_i [z_i (w^t x_i + w_0) - 1] = 0$

$$w_0 = \frac{1}{z_i} - w^t x_i$$

- Final discriminant function:

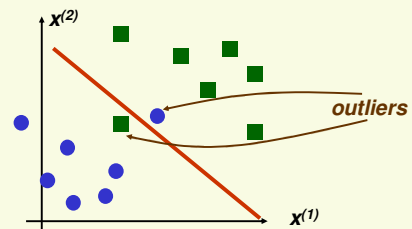
$$g(x) = \left(\sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i x_i \right)^t x + w_0$$

- where S is the set of support vectors

$$S = \{x_i \mid \alpha_i \neq 0\}$$

SVM: Non Separable Case

- Data is most likely to be not linearly separable, but linear classifier may still be appropriate



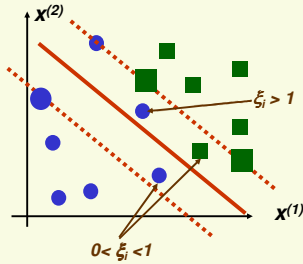
- Can apply SVM in non linearly separable case
 - data should be "almost" linearly separable for good performance

SVM: Non Separable Case

- Use non-negative slack variables ξ_1, \dots, ξ_n (one for each sample)
- Change constraints from $z_i(w^T x_i + w_0) \geq 1 \quad \forall i$ to $z_i(w^T x_i + w_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i \quad \forall i$

ξ_i is a measure of deviation from the ideal for sample i

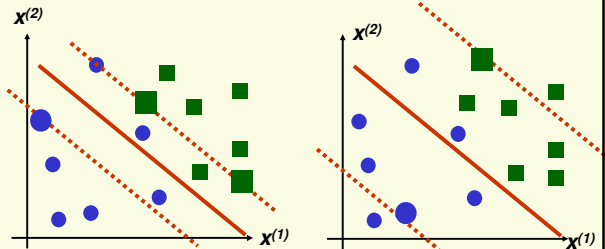
- $\xi_i > 1$ sample i is on the wrong side of the separating hyperplane
- $0 < \xi_i < 1$ sample i is on the right side of separating hyperplane but within the region of maximum margin



SVM: Non Separable Case

$$J(w, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_n) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n I(\xi_i > 0)$$

of examples not in ideal location



large β , few samples not in ideal position

small β , a lot of samples not in ideal position

SVM: Non Separable Case

- Would like to minimize

$$J(w, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_n) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n I(\xi_i > 0)$$

of samples not in ideal location

- where $I(\xi_i > 0) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \xi_i > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \xi_i \leq 0 \end{cases}$
- constrained to $z_i(w^T x_i + w_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i$ and $\xi_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$
- β is a constant which measures relative weight of the first and second terms
 - if β is small, we allow a lot of samples not in ideal position
 - if β is large, we want to have very few samples not in ideal position

SVM: Non Separable Case

- Unfortunately this minimization problem is NP-hard due to discontinuity of functions $I(\xi_i)$

$$J(w, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_n) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n I(\xi_i > 0)$$

of examples not in ideal location

- where $I(\xi_i > 0) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \xi_i > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \xi_i \leq 0 \end{cases}$
- constrained to $z_i(w^T x_i + w_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i$ and $\xi_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$

SVM: Non Separable Case

- Instead we minimize

$$J(w, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_n) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

a measure of
of misclassified
examples

- constrained to
$$\begin{cases} z_i(w'x_i + w_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i & \forall i \\ \xi_i \geq 0 & \forall i \end{cases}$$

- Can use Kuhn-Tucker theorem to converted to

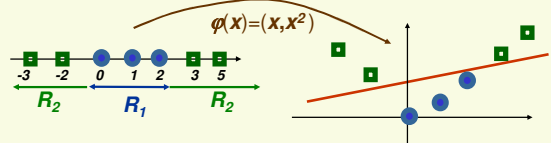
$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize} && L_0(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j x_i' x_j \\ &\text{constrained to} && 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq \beta \quad \forall i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- find w using $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i x_i$
- solve for w_0 using any $0 < \alpha_i < \beta$ and $\alpha_i [z_i(w'x_i + w_0) - 1] = 0$

Non Linear Mapping

- To solve a non linear classification problem with a linear classifier

- Project data x to high dimension using function $\phi(x)$
- Find a linear discriminant function for transformed data $\phi(x)$
- Final nonlinear discriminant function is $g(x) = w' \phi(x) + w_0$



- In 2D, discriminant function is linear

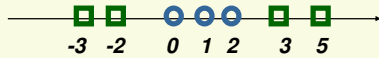
$$g \left(\begin{bmatrix} x^{(1)} \\ x^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} \right) = [w_1 \quad w_2] \begin{bmatrix} x^{(1)} \\ x^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} + w_0$$

- In 1D, discriminant function is not linear $g(x) = w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + w_0$

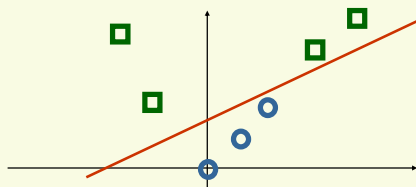
Non Linear Mapping

- Cover's theorem:
 - "pattern-classification problem cast in a high dimensional space non-linearly is more likely to be linearly separable than in a low-dimensional space"

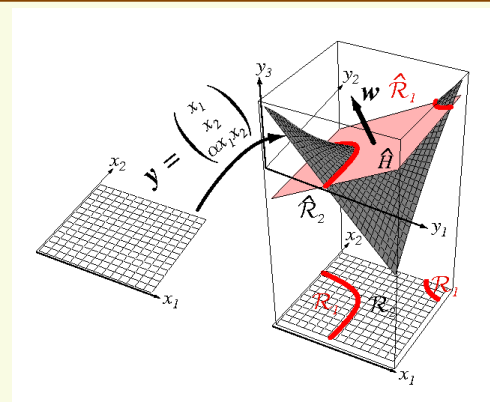
- One dimensional space, not linearly separable



- Lift to two dimensional space with $\phi(x) = (x, x^2)$



Non Linear Mapping: Another Example



Non Linear SVM

- Can use any linear classifier after lifting data into a higher dimensional space. However we will have to deal with the “curse of dimensionality”
 - poor generalization to test data
 - computationally expensive
- SVM avoids the “curse of dimensionality” problems by
 - enforcing largest margin permits good generalization
 - It can be shown that generalization in SVM is a function of the margin, independent of the dimensionality
 - computation in the higher dimensional case is performed only implicitly through the use of **kernel** functions

Non Linear SVM: Kernels

$$\text{maximize } L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j \phi(x_i)^t \phi(x_j)$$

$$K(x_i, x_j)$$

- Then we only need to compute $K(x_i, x_j)$ instead of $\phi(x_i)^t \phi(x_j)$
 - “kernel trick”: do not need to perform operations in high dimensional space explicitly

Non Linear SVM: Kernels

- Recall SVM optimization

$$\text{maximize } L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j x_i^t x_j$$
- Note this optimization depends on samples x_i only through the dot product $x_i^t x_j$
- If we lift x_i to high dimension using $\phi(x)$, need to compute high dimensional product $\phi(x_i)^t \phi(x_j)$

$$\text{maximize } L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j \phi(x_i)^t \phi(x_j)$$

$$K(x_i, x_j)$$

- Idea: find **kernel** function $K(x_i, x_j)$ s.t.

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^t \phi(x_j)$$

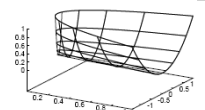
Non Linear SVM: Kernels

- Suppose we have 2 features and $K(x, y) = (x^t y)^2$
- Which mapping $\phi(x)$ does it correspond to?

$$\begin{aligned} K(x, y) &= (x^t y)^2 = \left(\begin{bmatrix} x^{(1)} & x^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} \right)^2 = (x^{(1)} y^{(1)} + x^{(2)} y^{(2)})^2 \\ &= (x^{(1)} y^{(1)})^2 + 2(x^{(1)} y^{(1)})(x^{(2)} y^{(2)}) + (x^{(2)} y^{(2)})^2 \\ &= \left[(x^{(1)})^2 \quad \sqrt{2} x^{(1)} x^{(2)} \quad (x^{(2)})^2 \right] \left[(y^{(1)})^2 \quad \sqrt{2} y^{(1)} y^{(2)} \quad (y^{(2)})^2 \right]^t \end{aligned}$$

- Thus

$$\phi(x) = \left[(x^{(1)})^2 \quad \sqrt{2} x^{(1)} x^{(2)} \quad (x^{(2)})^2 \right]^t$$



Non Linear SVM: Kernels

- How to choose kernel function $K(x_i, x_j)$?
 - $K(x_i, x_j)$ should correspond to product $\phi(x_i)^t \phi(x_j)$ in a higher dimensional space
 - Mercer's condition tells us which kernel function can be expressed as dot product of two vectors
 - Kernel's not satisfying Mercer's condition can be sometimes used, but no geometrical interpretation
- Some common choices (satisfying Mercer's condition):
 - Polynomial kernel $K(x_i, x_j) = (x_i^t x_j + 1)^p$
 - Gaussian radial Basis kernel (data is lifted in infinite dimension)

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|x_i - x_j\|^2\right)$$

Non Linear SVM

- Will not use notation $a = [w_0 \ w]$, we'll use old notation w and seek hyperplane through the origin

$$w\phi(x) = 0$$
- If the first component of $\phi(x)$ is not 1, the above is equivalent to saying that the hyperplane has to go through the origin in high dimension
 - removes only one degree of freedom
 - But we have introduced many new degrees when we lifted the data in high dimension

Non Linear SVM

- search for separating hyperplane in high dimension

$$w\phi(x) + w_0 = 0$$
- Choose $\phi(x)$ so that the first ("0"th) dimension is the augmented dimension with feature value fixed to 1

$$\phi(x) = [1 \ x^{(1)} \ x^{(2)} \ x^{(1)}x^{(2)}]^t$$
- Threshold parameter w_0 gets folded into the weight vector w

$$[w_0 \ w] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \phi(x) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Non Linear SVM Recipe

- Start with data x_1, \dots, x_n which lives in feature space of dimension d
- Choose kernel $K(x_i, x_j)$ or function $\phi(x_j)$ which takes sample x_i to a higher dimensional space
- Find the largest margin linear discriminant function in the higher dimensional space by using quadratic programming package to solve:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize } L_0(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j K(x_i, x_j) \\ &\text{constrained to } 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq \beta \quad \forall i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i z_i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Non Linear SVM Recipe

- Weight vector w in the high dimensional space:

$$w = \sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i \phi(x_i)$$
- where S is the set of support vectors $S = \{x_i | \alpha_i \neq 0\}$
- Linear discriminant function of largest margin in the high dimensional space:

$$g(\phi(x)) = w' \phi(x) = \left(\sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i \phi(x_i) \right)' \phi(x)$$
- Non linear discriminant function in the original space:

$$g(x) = \left(\sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i \phi(x_i) \right)' \phi(x) = \sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i \phi'(x_i) \phi(x) = \sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i K(x_i, x)$$
- decide class 1 if $g(x) > 0$, otherwise decide class 2

SVM Example: XOR Problem

- Class 1: $x_1 = [1, -1]$, $x_2 = [-1, 1]$
 - Class 2: $x_3 = [1, 1]$, $x_4 = [-1, -1]$
-
- Use polynomial kernel of degree 2:
 - $K(x_i, x_j) = (x_i' x_j + 1)^2$
 - This kernel corresponds to mapping

$$\phi(x) = \left[1 \quad \sqrt{2}x^{(1)} \quad \sqrt{2}x^{(2)} \quad \sqrt{2}x^{(1)}x^{(2)} \quad (x^{(1)})^2 \quad (x^{(2)})^2 \right]$$
 - Need to maximize

$$L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^4 \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 \alpha_i \alpha_j z_i z_j (x_i' x_j + 1)^2$$
 - constrained to $0 \leq \alpha_i, \forall i$ and $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - \alpha_3 - \alpha_4 = 0$

Non Linear SVM

- Nonlinear discriminant function

$$g(x) = \sum_{x_i \in S} \alpha_i z_i K(x_i, x)$$

$$g(x) = \sum \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{weight of support} \\ \text{vector } x_i \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{l} \mp 1 \\ \text{"inverse distance"} \\ \text{from } x \text{ to} \\ \text{support vector } x_i \end{array} \right] K(x_i, x)$$

most important training samples, i.e. support vectors

$$K(x_i, x) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|x_i - x\|^2\right)$$

SVM Example: XOR Problem

- Can rewrite $L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^4 \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \alpha' H \alpha$
 - where $\alpha = [\alpha_1 \quad \alpha_2 \quad \alpha_3 \quad \alpha_4]'$ and $H = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 9 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 9 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$
- Take derivative with respect to α and set it to 0

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} L_D(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 9 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 9 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \alpha = 0$$
- Solution to the above is $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha_3 = \alpha_4 = 0.25$
 - satisfies the constraints $\forall i, 0 \leq \alpha_i$ and $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - \alpha_3 - \alpha_4 = 0$
 - all samples are support vectors

SVM Example: XOR Problem

$$\phi(x) = [1 \quad \sqrt{2}x^{(1)} \quad \sqrt{2}x^{(2)} \quad \sqrt{2}x^{(1)}x^{(2)} \quad (x^{(1)})^2 \quad (x^{(2)})^2]^T$$

- Weight vector w is:

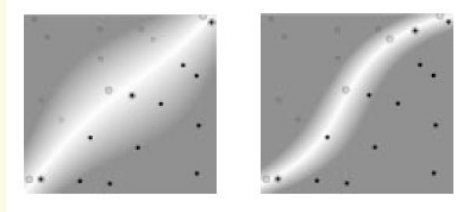
$$w = \sum_{i=1}^4 \alpha_i z_i \phi(x_i) = 0.25(\phi(x_1) + \phi(x_2) - \phi(x_3) - \phi(x_4))$$

$$= [0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad -\sqrt{2} \quad 0 \quad 0]$$

- Thus the nonlinear discriminant function is:

$$g(x) = w\phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^6 w_i \phi_i(x) = -\sqrt{2}(\sqrt{2}x^{(1)}x^{(2)}) = -2x^{(1)}x^{(2)}$$

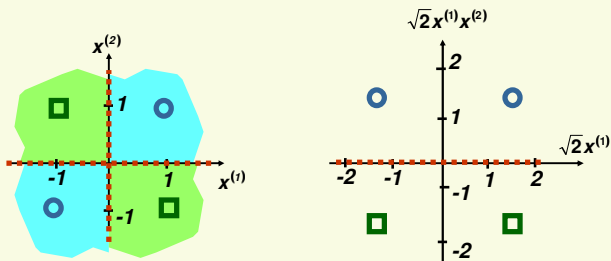
Degree 3 Polynomial Kernel



- In linearly separable case (on the left), decision boundary is roughly linear, indicating that dimensionality is controlled
- Nonseparable case (on the right) is handled by a polynomial of degree 3

SVM Example: XOR Problem

$$g(x) = -2x^{(1)}x^{(2)}$$



decision boundaries nonlinear

decision boundary is linear

SVM Summary

- Advantages:
 - Based on nice theory
 - excellent generalization properties
 - objective function has no local minima
 - can be used to find non linear discriminant functions
 - Complexity of the classifier is characterized by the number of support vectors rather than the dimensionality of the transformed space
- Disadvantages:
 - tends to be slower than other methods
 - quadratic programming is computationally expensive
 - Not clear how to choose the Kernel