

Here we approach the two-class classification problem in a direct way:

We try and find a plane that separates the classes in feature space.

If we cannot, we get creative in two ways:

- We soften what we mean by “separates”, and
- We enrich and enlarge the feature space so that separation is possible.

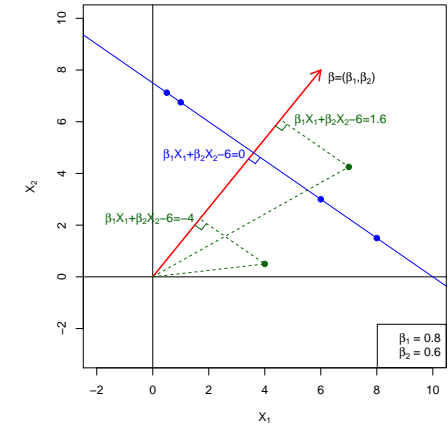
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- A hyperplane in p dimensions is a flat affine subspace of dimension $p - 1$.
- In general the equation for a hyperplane has the form

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p = 0$$

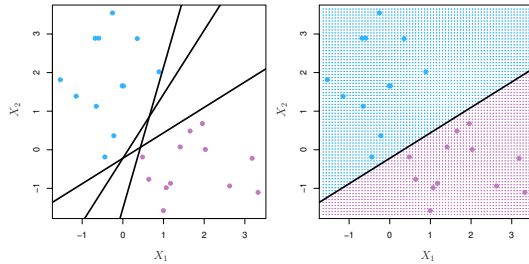
- In $p = 2$ dimensions a hyperplane is a line.
- If $\beta_0 = 0$, the hyperplane goes through the origin, otherwise not.
- The vector $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_p)$ is called the normal vector — it points in a direction orthogonal to the surface of a hyperplane.

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Separating Hyperplanes

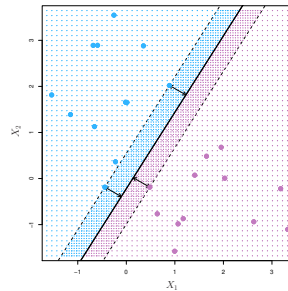


- If $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$, then $f(X) > 0$ for points on one side of the hyperplane, and $f(X) < 0$ for points on the other.
- If we code the colored points as $Y_i = +1$ for blue, say, and $Y_i = -1$ for mauve, then if $Y_i \cdot f(X_i) > 0$ for all i , $f(X) = 0$ defines a *separating hyperplane*.

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Maximal Margin Classifier

Among all separating hyperplanes, find the one that makes the biggest gap or margin between the two classes.



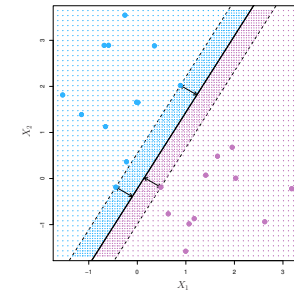
Constrained optimization problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize } M \\ & \beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p \\ & \text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = 1, \\ & y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}) \geq M \\ & \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, N. \end{aligned}$$

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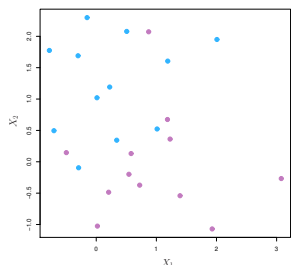
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This can be rephrased as a convex quadratic program, and solved efficiently. The function `svm()` in package `e1071` solves this problem efficiently

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Non-separable Data

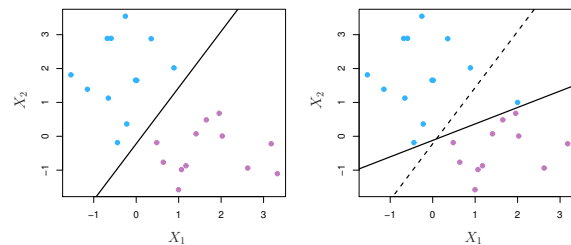


The data on the left are not separable by a linear boundary.

This is often the case, unless $N < p$.

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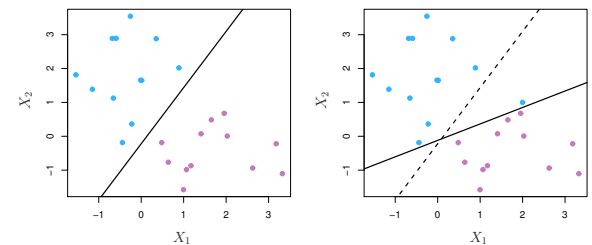
Noisy Data



Sometimes the data are separable, but noisy. This can lead to a poor solution for the maximal-margin classifier.

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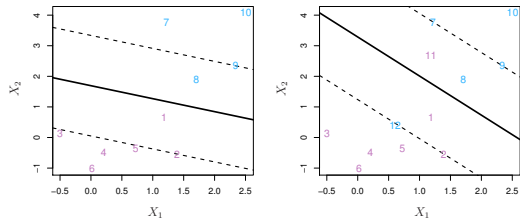


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The *support vector classifier* maximizes a *soft* margin.

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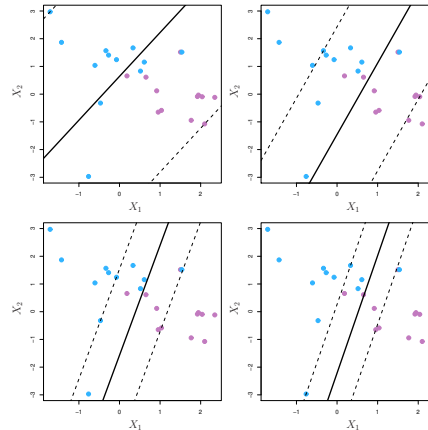
Support Vector Classifier



$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p, \epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n}{\text{maximize}} && M \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = 1, \\ & y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}) \geq M(1 - \epsilon_i), \\ & \epsilon_i \geq 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \leq C, \end{aligned}$$

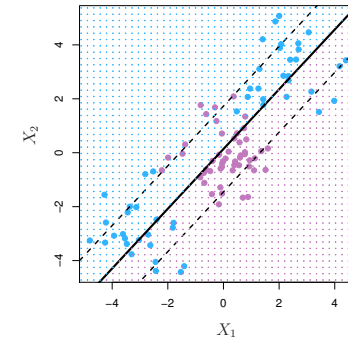
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C is a regularization parameter



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Linear boundary can fail



Sometime a linear boundary simply won't work, no matter what value of C .

The example on the left is such a case.

What to do?

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Feature Expansion

- Enlarge the space of features by including transformations; e.g. $X_1^2, X_1^3, X_1X_2, X_1X_2^2, \dots$. Hence go from a p -dimensional space to a $M > p$ dimensional space.
- Fit a support-vector classifier in the enlarged space.
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Example: Suppose we use $(X_1, X_2, X_1^2, X_2^2, X_1X_2)$ instead of just (X_1, X_2) . Then the decision boundary would be of the form

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1^2 + \beta_4 X_2^2 + \beta_5 X_1 X_2 = 0$$

This leads to nonlinear decision boundaries in the original space (quadratic conic sections).

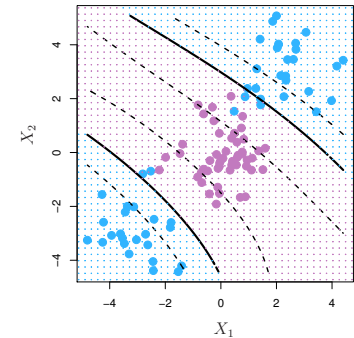
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Cubic Polynomials

Here we use a basis expansion of cubic polynomials

From 2 variables to 9

The support-vector classifier in the enlarged space solves the problem in the lower-dimensional space



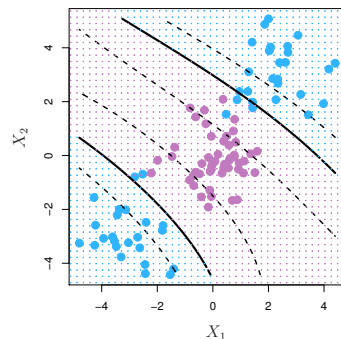
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Nonlinearities and Kernels

- Polynomials (especially high-dimensional ones) get wild rather fast.
- There is a more elegant and controlled way to introduce nonlinearities in support-vector classifiers — through the use of *kernels*.
- Before we discuss these, we must understand the role of *inner products* in support-vector classifiers.

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Inner products and support vectors

$$\langle x_i, x_{i'} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} x_{i'j} \quad \text{— inner product between vectors}$$

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It turns out that most of the $\hat{\alpha}_i$ can be zero:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \hat{\alpha}_i \langle x, x_i \rangle$$

\mathcal{S} is the *support set* of indices i such that $\hat{\alpha}_i > 0$. [see slide 8]

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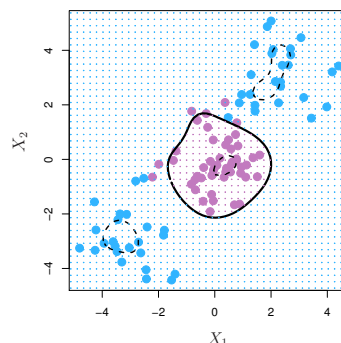
- The solution has the form

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \hat{\alpha}_i K(x, x_i).$$

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Radial Kernel

$$K(x_i, x_{i'}) = \exp\left(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x_{i'j})^2\right).$$



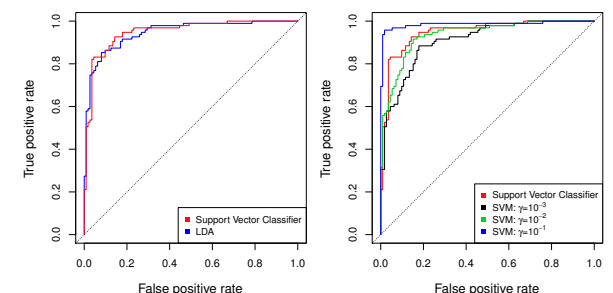
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Implicit feature space; very high dimensional.

Controls variance by squashing down most dimensions severely

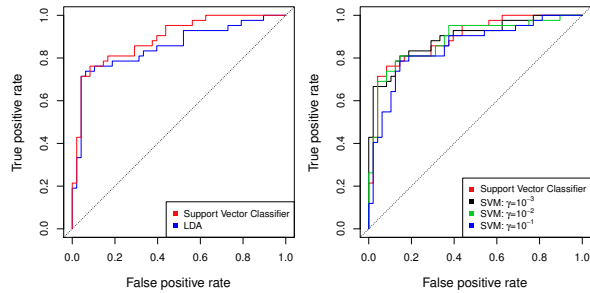
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Example: Heart Data



ROC curve is obtained by changing the threshold 0 to threshold t in $\hat{f}(X) > t$, and recording *false positive* and *true positive* rates as t varies. Here we see ROC curves on training data.

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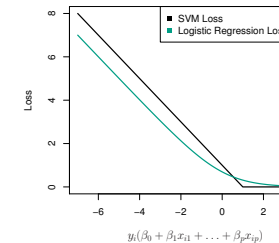
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Which to choose? If K is not too large, use OVO.

With $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$ can rephrase support-vector classifier optimization as

$$\text{minimize}_{\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \max [0, 1 - y_i f(x_i)] + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \right\}$$



This has the form *loss plus penalty*. The loss is known as the *hinge loss*. Very similar to “loss” in logistic regression (negative log-likelihood).

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Which to use: SVM or Logistic Regression

- When classes are (nearly) separable, SVM does better than LR. So does LDA.
- When not, LR (with ridge penalty) and SVM very similar.
- If you wish to estimate probabilities, LR is the choice.
- For nonlinear boundaries, kernel SVMs are popular. Can use kernels with LR and LDA as well, but computations are more expensive.

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