

W. Evan Johnson, Ph.D.
Professor, Division of Infectious Disease
Director, Center for Data Science
Co-Director, Center for Biomedical Informatics and Health Al
Rutgers University – New Jersey Medical School

2025-07-31





**Support vector machines** or **SVM**s are supervised learning models with associated learning algorithms that analyze data used for classification and regression analysis.

The goal is to find a classifier from an optimized *decision boundary* or "separating hyperplane" between two classes.

Material for this lecture was obtained and adapted from:

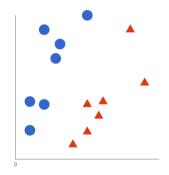
- https://www.datacamp.com/community/tutorials/support-vector-machines-r
- ▶ The Elements of Statistical Learning, Hastie, et al., Springer
- https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/classifying-data-using-support-vector-machinessvms-in-r/amp/





### Support Vector Machines-Linear Data

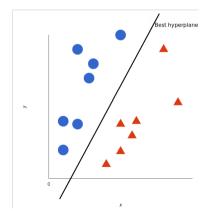
Let's imagine we have two tags: red and blue, and our data has two features: x and y. We can plot our training data on a plane:







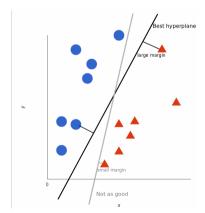
An **SVM** identifies the **decision boundary** or **hyperplane** (two dimensions: line) that best separates the tags:







But, what exactly is the best hyperplane? For SVM, it's the one that maximizes the margins from the data from both tags:







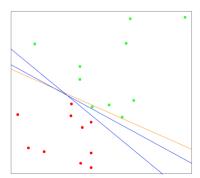


FIGURE 4.14. A toy example with two classes separable by a hyperplane. The orange line is the least squares solution, which misclassifies one of the training points. Also shown are two blue separating hyperplanes found by the perceptron learning algorithm with different random starts.





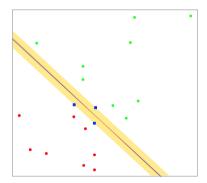
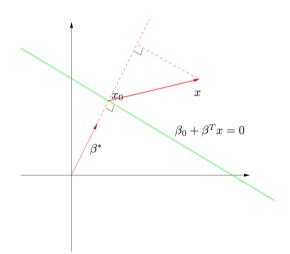


FIGURE 4.16. The same data as in Figure 4.14. The shaded region delineates the maximum margin separating the two classes. There are three support points indicated, which lie on the boundary of the margin, and the optimal separating hyperplane (blue line) bisects the slab. Included in the figure is the boundary found using logistic regression (red line), which is very close to the optimal separating hyperplane (see Section 12.3.3).

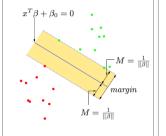


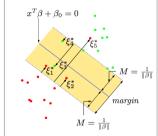












**FIGURE 12.1.** Support vector classifiers. The left panel shows the separable case. The decision boundary is the solid line, while broken lines bound the shaded maximal margin of width  $2M = 2/\|\beta\|$ . The right panel shows the nonseparable (overlap) case. The points labeled  $\xi_j^*$  are on the wrong side of their margin by an amount  $\xi_j^* = M\xi_j$ ; points on the correct side have  $\xi_j^* = 0$ . The margin is maximized subject to a total budget  $\sum \xi_i \leq \text{constant}$ . Hence  $\sum \xi_j^*$  is the total distance of points on the wrong side of their margin.



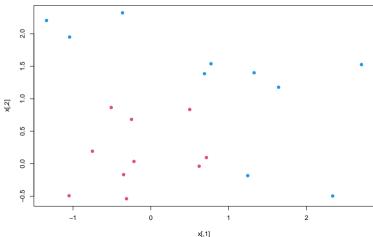


First generate some data in 2 dimensions, and make them a little separated:

```
set.seed(10111)
x = matrix(rnorm(40), 20, 2)
y = rep(c(-1, 1), c(10, 10))
x[y == 1,] = x[y == 1,] + 1
plot(x, col = y + 3, pch = 19)
```











We will use the e1071 package which contains the svm function and make a dataframe of the data, turning y into a factor variable.

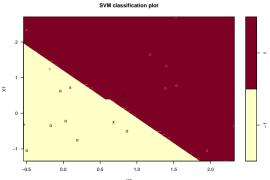
```
library(e1071)
dat = data.frame(x, y = as.factor(y))
symfit = sym(y ~ ., data = dat, kernel = "linear", cost = 10, scale = FALSE)
print(svmfit)
##
## Call:
## svm(formula = y ~ ., data = dat, kernel = "linear", cost = 10, scale = FALSE)
##
##
  Parameters:
      SVM-Type: C-classification
##
    SVM-Kernel: linear
##
##
          cost: 10
##
## Number of Support Vectors: 6
```





There's a plot function for SVM that shows the decision boundary

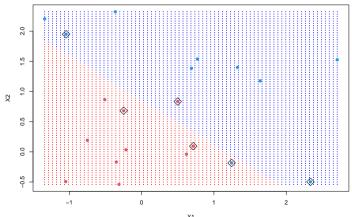
plot(svmfit, dat)







Or plotting it more cleanly:







Unfortunately, the sym function is not too friendly, in that you have to do some work to get back the linear coefficients. The reason is probably that this only makes sense for linear kernels, and the function is more general. So let's use a formula to extract the coefficients more efficiently. You extract  $\beta$  and  $\beta_0$ , which are the linear coefficients.

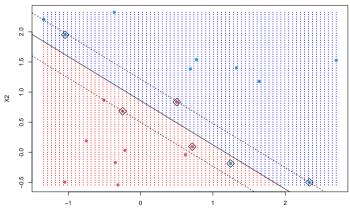
```
beta = drop(t(svmfit$coefs)%*%x[svmfit$index,])
beta0 = svmfit$rho
```

Now you can replot the points on the grid, then put the points back in (including the support vector points). Then you can use the coefficients to draw the decision boundary using a simple equation of the form:





Now plotting the lines on the graph:

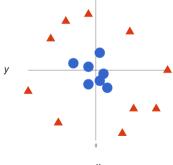






### Support Vector Machines-Non-Linear Data

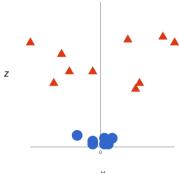
The prior examples were easy because the data were linearly separable. Often things aren't that simple. Look at this case:







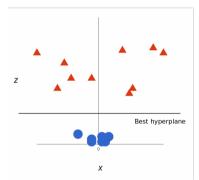
Here we will add a third dimension: z = x2 + y2 (you'll notice that's the equation for a circle!), and plot x and z.







What can SVM do with this? Let's see:

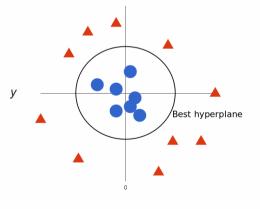


That's great! Note that since we are in three dimensions now, the hyperplane is a plane parallel to the x axis at a certain z (let's say z=1).





What's left is mapping it back to two dimensions:







### The "Kernel Trick"

Transformations are computationally expensive, but SVM doesn't need the actual vectors, it only needs the dot products.

We can tell SVM to do its thing using the new dot product—we call this a **kernel function**.





### The "Kernel Trick"

This often called the "kernel trick", which enlarges the feature space for a non-linear boundary between the classes.

Common types of kernels: *linear*, *polynomial*, and *radial basis* kernels.

Simply, these kernels transform our data to pass a linear hyperplane and thus classify our data.





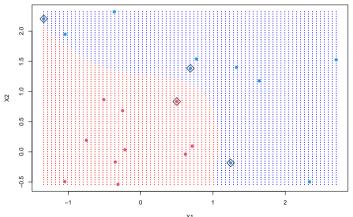
Now let's apply a non-linear (polynomial) SVM to our prior simulated dataset.

```
dat = data.frame(x, y = as.factor(y))
svmfit = svm(y ~ ., data = dat, kernel = "polynomial", cost = 10, scale = FALSE)
print(symfit)
##
## Call:
## svm(formula = v ~ .. data = dat, kernel = "polynomial", cost = 10,
##
       scale = FALSE)
##
##
  Parameters:
     SVM-Type: C-classification
##
##
   SVM-Kernel: polynomial
##
         cost: 10
##
        degree: 3
       coef.0: 0
##
##
```





### Plotting the result:







Here is a more complex example from *Elements of Statistical Learning*, where the decision boundary needs to be non-linear and there is no clear separation.

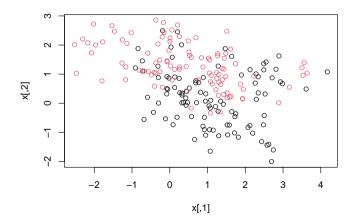
```
#download.file(
# "http://www-stat.stanford.edu/~tibs/ElemStatLearn/datasets/ESL.mixture.rda",
# destfile='ESL.mixture.rda')
rm(x,y)
load(file = "ESL.mixture.rda")
attach(ESL.mixture)
names(ESL.mixture)
```

```
## [1] "x" "y" "xnew" "prob" "marginal" "px1" "px2"
## [8] "means"
```





#### Plotting the data:







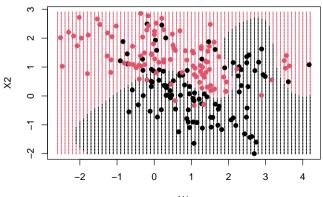
Now make a data frame with the response y, and turn that into a factor. We will fit an SVM with radial kernel.

```
dat = data.frame(y = factor(y), x)
fit = svm(factor(y) ~ ., data = dat, scale = FALSE, kernel = "radial", cost = 5)
print(fit)
##
## Call:
## svm(formula = factor(y) ~ ., data = dat, kernel = "radial", cost = 5,
##
       scale = FALSE)
##
##
  Parameters:
      SVM-Type: C-classification
##
##
    SVM-Kernel: radial
##
          cost: 5
##
  Number of Support Vectors:
```





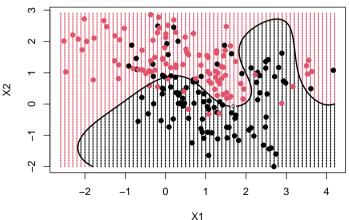
It's time to create a grid and predictions. We use expand.grid to create the grid, predict each of the values on the grid, and plot them:







#### Plotting with a contour:







## Advantages and Disadvantages of SVMs

### **Advantages:**

- ► **High Dimensionality:** SVM is an effective tool in spaces where dimensionality is large.
- ▶ **Memory Efficiency:** Only a subset of the training points are used, so just these points need to be stored in memory.
- ▶ **Versatility:** Class separation is often highly non-linear. The ability to apply new kernels allows flexibility for the decision boundaries.





## Advantages and Disadvantages of SVMs

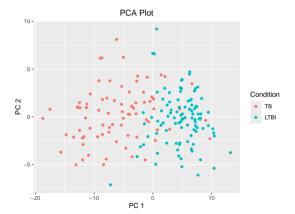
### **Disadvantages:**

- ► **Kernel Selection:** SVMs are very sensitive to the choice of the kernel parameters.
- ▶ **High dimensionality:** When the number of features for each object exceeds the number of training data samples, SVMs can perform poorly.
- ▶ Non-Probabilistic: The classifier works by placing objects above/below a classifying hyperplane, there is no direct probabilistic interpretation.





Remember the PCA dimension reduction of the TB Nanostring dataset. The points are colored based on TB status.







Now try an SVM on the PCs of the Nanostring data:

```
# use only the first 10 PCs
dat = data.frame(y = pca reduction$Condition, pca reduction[,1:2])
fit = svm(y ~ .. data = dat, scale = FALSE, kernel = "linear", cost = 10)
print(fit)
##
## Call:
## svm(formula = v ~ .. data = dat, kernel = "linear", cost = 10, scale = FALSE)
##
##
  Parameters:
##
      SVM-Type: C-classification
##
    SVM-Kernel: linear
##
          cost: 10
##
## Number of Support Vectors: 52
```





We can evaluate the predictor with a Confusion matrix:

```
library(caret)
confusionMatrix(dat$y,predict(fit,dat))
## Confusion Matrix and Statistics
             Reference
## Prediction TR LTRI
         TB
         I.TBT 8
                  Accuracy: 0.8994
                    95% CI: (0.8457, 0.9393)
       No Information Rate: 0.5698
##
       P-Value [Acc > NIR] : <2e-16
##
                     Kappa: 0.7955
    Mcnemar's Test P-Value: 0.8137
               Sensitivity: 0.8961
               Specificity: 0.9020
            Pos Pred Value : 0.8734
            Neg Pred Value: 0.9200
                Prevalence: 0.4302
```

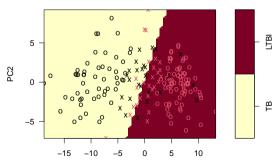




Plotting Nanostring data:

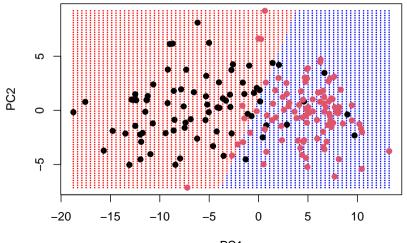
plot(fit,dat,PC2~PC1)

#### SVM classification plot













### Session Info

## loaded via a namespace (and not attached):

#### sessionInfo()

```
## R version 4.5.1 (2025-06-13)
## Platform: aarch64-apple-darwin20
## Running under: macOS Sequoia 15.5
##
## Matrix products: default
          /Library/Frameworks/R.framework/Versions/4.5-arm64/Resources/lib/libRblas.0.dylib
## LAPACK: /Library/Frameworks/R.framework/Versions/4.5-arm64/Resources/lib/libRlapack.dylib: LAPACK version 3.12.1
##
## locale:
## [1] en US.UTF-8/en US.UTF-8/en US.UTF-8/C/en US.UTF-8/en US.UTF-8
##
## time zone: America/New York
## tzcode source: internal
##
## attached base packages:
## [1] stats
                graphics grDevices utils
                                              datasets methods
                                                                  base
## other attached packages:
   [1] e1071 1.7-16
                       lubridate 1.9.4 forcats 1.0.0
                                                        stringr 1.5.1
   [5] dplyr_1.1.4
                       purrr_1.1.0
                                    readr_2.1.5
                                                       tidyr_1.3.1
   [9] tibble 3.3.0
                       tidvverse 2.0.0 caret 7.0-1
                                                       lattice 0.22-7
## [13] ggplot2 3.5.2
```

