

STA 314: Statistical Methods for Machine Learning I

Lecture 8 - Support Vector Machine

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Linear decision boundaries

In binary classification problems, we have seen examples of classifiers that use linear decision boundaries.

- LDA:

$$\delta_k(x) = x^\top \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2} \mu_k^\top \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k + \log \pi_k, \quad \forall k \in \{0, 1\}.$$

Hence, $\delta_1(x) \geq \delta_0(x)$ is if and only if

$$\left(x - \frac{u_0 + u_1}{2}\right)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (u_1 - u_0) + \log \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_0} \geq 0.$$

- Logistic regression:

$$\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid X = x)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = 0 \mid X = x)} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta^\top x.$$

Hence, $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid X = x) \geq \mathbb{P}(Y = 0 \mid X = x)$ if and only if

$$\beta_0 + \beta^\top x \geq 0.$$

A general formulation of classifiers based on a linear decision boundary

Binary classification: predicting a target with two values, $y \in \{-1, +1\}$, (small change from the past).

- Consider the linear decision boundary

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b = 0$$

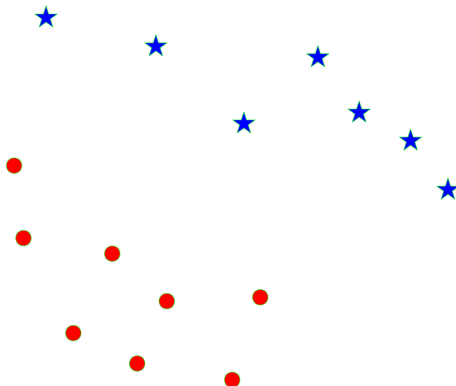
for some weights $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

- A good decision boundary should satisfy: for a given point (\mathbf{x}, y) ,

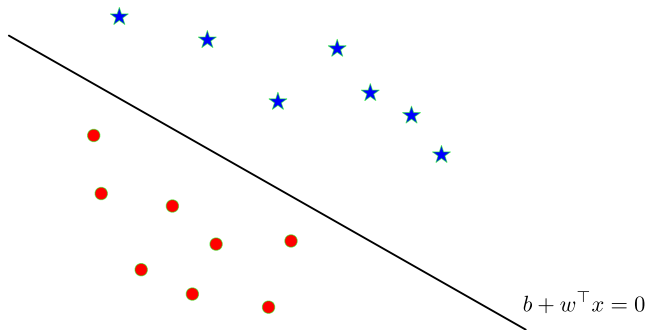
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b &> 0 && \text{if } y = 1 \\ \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b &< 0 && \text{if } y = -1. \end{aligned}$$

Separating Hyperplanes

Suppose we are given these data points from two different classes and want to find a linear classifier that separates them.



Separating Hyperplanes



- The decision boundary looks like a line because $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$
- $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0\}$ is a $(p - 1)$ dimensional space , a.k.a. hyperplane.

Discussion on this simple formulation

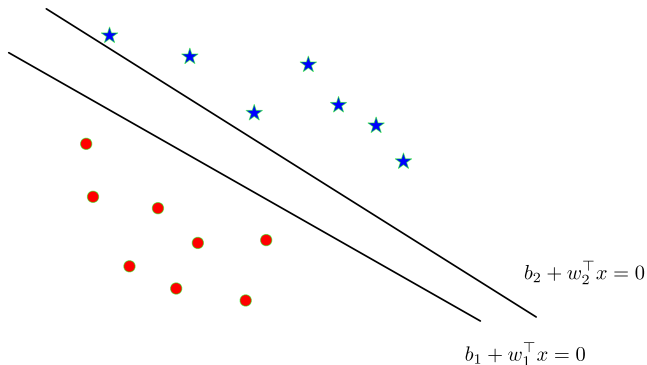
The above intuition leads to the following way of estimating \mathbf{w} and b

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} - \sum_{i \in M} y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{w} + b)$$

where M indexes the set of misclassified points among the training data $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$.

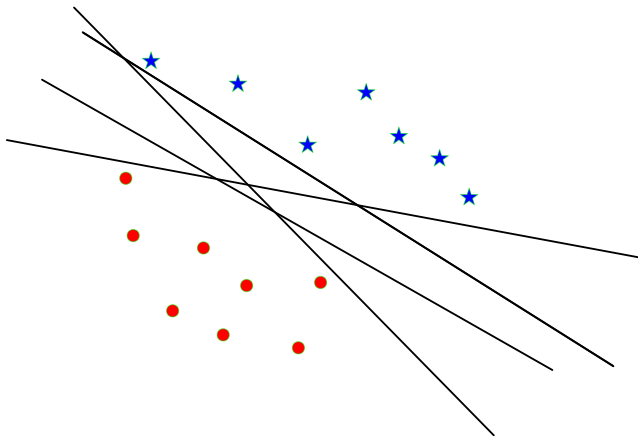
- We could use (sub-)gradient descent to solve.
- However:
 - ▶ When the data is separable, there exists multiple solutions of \mathbf{w} and b such that the above loss is zero. Which one should we choose?
 - ▶ When the data is not separable, it is oftentimes hard to achieve convergence by using gradient descent.

Separating Hyperplanes



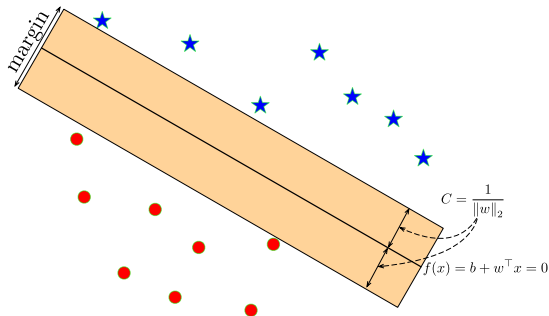
- There are multiple separating hyperplanes, determined by different parameters (\mathbf{w}, b) .

Separating Hyperplanes



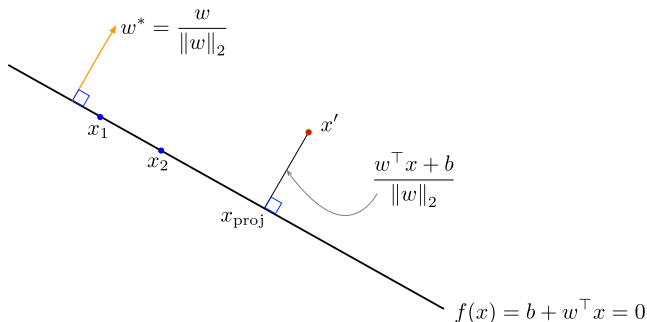
Optimal Separating Hyperplane

Optimal Separating Hyperplane: A hyperplane that separates two classes and maximizes the distance to the closest point from either class, i.e., maximize the **margin** of the classifier.



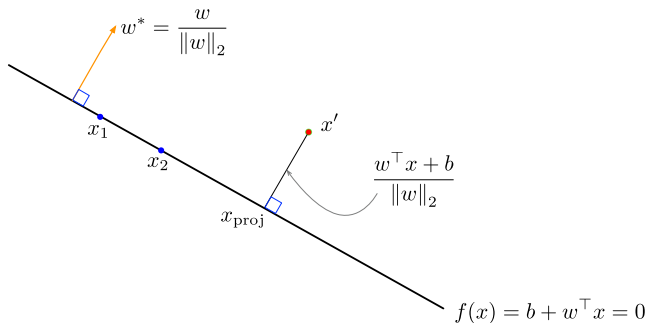
Intuitively, ensuring that a classifier is not too close to any data points leads to better generalization on the test data.

Geometry of Points and Planes



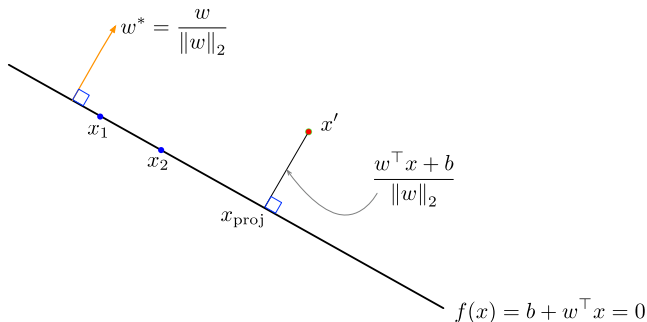
- Recall that the decision hyperplane is orthogonal (perpendicular) to \mathbf{w} . I.e., for any two points \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 on the decision hyperplane we have that $\mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) = 0$.

Geometry of Points and Planes



- The vector $\mathbf{w}^* = \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2}$ is a unit vector pointing in the same direction as \mathbf{w} .
- The same hyperplane could equivalently be defined in terms of \mathbf{w}^* .

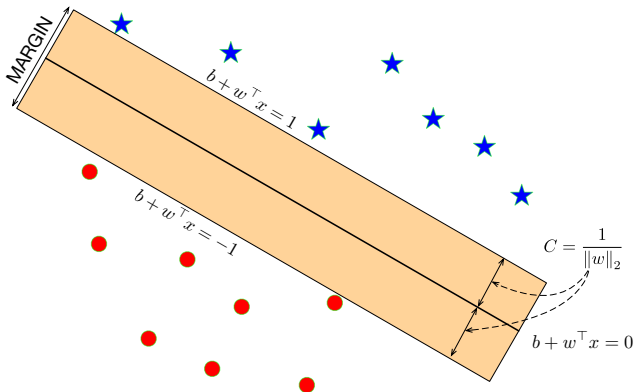
Geometry of Points and Planes



- To get the distance from a point \mathbf{x}' to the hyperplane, take the closest point \mathbf{x}_{proj} on the hyperplane and project $\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_{\text{proj}}$ onto $\mathbf{w} / \|\mathbf{w}\|_2$:

$$\|\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_{\text{proj}}\|_2 = \left| (\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_{\text{proj}})^T \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2} \right| = \frac{|\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x}_{\text{proj}}^T \mathbf{w}|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2} = \frac{|\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2}$$

Maximizing Margin as an Optimization Problem



- Now consider the two parallel hyperplanes

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 1 \quad \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = -1$$

- Using the distance formula, can see that the margin is $2 / \|\mathbf{w}\|_2$.

Maximizing Margin as an Optimization Problem

- Recall: to correctly classify all points we require that

$$\text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) = y_i \quad \text{for all } i$$

- Let's impose a stronger requirement: correctly classify all points and prevent them from falling in the margin.

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b \geq M \quad \text{if } y_i = 1$$

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b \leq -M \quad \text{if } y_i = -1$$

for some $M > 0$.

- This is equivalent to

$$y_i (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq M \quad \text{for all } i$$

which we call the **margin constraints**.

Maximizing Margin as an Optimization Problem

- Now, we want to pick \mathbf{w} , b that maximize the size of the margin (the region where we do not allow points to fall), while ensuring all points are correctly classified.

- ▶ Margin has width

$$\frac{|\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w} + b|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2} = \frac{M}{2},$$

so maximizing this is equivalent to minimizing $\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 / M$.

- This leads to the max-margin objective:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \frac{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2}{M} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq M \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

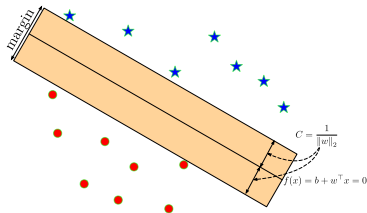
W.l.o.g. we can set $M = 1$. (Why?)

Maximizing Margin as an Optimization Problem

Max-margin objective:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

$$\text{s.t. } y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$



- Intuitively, if the margin constraint is not tight for \mathbf{x}_i , we could remove \mathbf{x}_i from the training set and the optimal \mathbf{w} would be the same. (This can be rigorously shown via the K.K.T. conditions.)
- The important training points are the ones with equality constraints, and are called **support vectors**.
- Hence, this algorithm is called the (hard-margin) **Support Vector Machine (SVM)**.
- SVM-like algorithms are often called **max-margin** or **large-margin**.

Computation of the hard-margin SVM

Primal-formulation:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

- Convex, in fact, a quadratic program. (Stochastic) Gradient descent can be directly used.
- It is more common to solve the optimization problem based on its dual formulation.

Dual-formulation of the hard-margin SVM

For $\alpha_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, write the Lagrangian function

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left[1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \right],$$

Taking the derivative w.r.t. \mathbf{w} and b yields

$$\mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0.$$

Plugging into $L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha)$ yields

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j - b \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j. \end{aligned}$$

Dual-formulation of the hard-margin SVM

The dual problem is

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \mathbf{x}_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad \alpha_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

The K.K.T. conditions ensure the following relationships between the primal and dual formulations.

- Their optimal objective values are equal.
- The optimal solutions $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ and $\hat{\alpha}$ satisfy

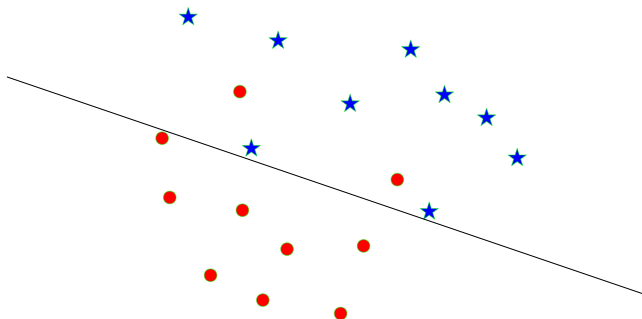
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\alpha}_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \begin{aligned} \hat{\alpha}_i &> 0, & \text{if } y_i(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i + \hat{b}) &= 1 \\ \hat{\alpha}_i &= 0, & \text{if } y_i(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i + \hat{b}) &> 1 \end{aligned} .$$

- The predicted label for any \mathbf{x} is

$$\text{sign}(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \hat{b}).$$

Extension to Non-Separable Data Points

How can we apply the max-margin principle if the data are **not** linearly separable?



Soft-margin SVM

We introduce slack variables $\zeta = (\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_n)$ and consider

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \zeta} \quad & \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \zeta_i, \quad \zeta_i \geq 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \zeta_i \leq K. \end{aligned}$$

- Misclassification occurs if $\zeta_i > 1$.
- $\sum_{i=1}^n \zeta_i \leq K$ restricts the total number of misclassified points less than K .
- $K = 0$ reduces to the hard-margin SVM.
- $K \geq 0$ is a tuning parameter.

Another interpretation of the soft-margin SVM

- Soft-margin SVM is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \zeta} \quad & \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \zeta_i \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \zeta_i, \quad \zeta_i \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

for some $C = C(K)$.

- This is further equivalent to

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \zeta} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\max\{0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b)\}}_{\text{hinge loss}} \right\} + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

with $\lambda = 1/(nC)$.

- Hence, the soft-margin SVM can be seen as a linear classifier with the hinge loss and the ℓ_2 regularization (ridge penalty).

Dual-formulation of the soft-margin SVM

It can be shown¹ that the dual-formulation of the soft-margin SVM is

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \mathbf{x}_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C, \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

Here $C > 0$ is the tuning parameter.

¹Chapter 12.2.1 in ESL.

Kernel SVM: extension to non-linear boundary

Recall

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \mathbf{x}_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C, \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

Represent \mathbf{x}_i in different bases, $h(\mathbf{x}_i)$, to have non-linear boundary (in \mathbf{x}_i).

All we need to change is

$$\max_{\alpha} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i)^{\top} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_j).$$

Kernel trick

- We can represent the inner-product $h(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top h(\mathbf{x}_j) = \langle h(\mathbf{x}_i), h(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle$ by using

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = h(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top h(\mathbf{x}_j), \quad \forall i \neq j \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

The function K is called **kernel** that quantifies the similarity of two feature vectors.

- Regardless how large the space of $h(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is, all we need to compute is the pairwise kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j), \quad \forall i \neq j \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

This is known as the **kernel trick**.

Examples of kernel SVM

- Linear:

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j$$

with the corresponding $h(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i$.

- d th-Degree polynomial:

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \left(1 + \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j\right)^d.$$

The corresponding h would be polynomials. For example, consider $d = 2$, $\mathbf{x}_i = x_{i1}$ and $h(\mathbf{x}_i) = [1, \sqrt{2}x_{i1}, x_{i1}^2]$, then

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = h(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top h(\mathbf{x}_j) = \left(1 + \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j\right)^2.$$

- Radial basis:

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \exp\left(-\gamma \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2^2\right).$$

The corresponding $h(\mathbf{x}_i)$ has **infinite** dimensions!

Limitations of SVM

- The classifier based on SVM is

$$\text{sign}(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^T \mathbf{x} + \hat{b}).$$

Hence, SVM does not estimate the posterior probability.

- For multi-class classification problems,
 - ▶ It is non-trivial to generalize the notion of a margin to multiclass setting.
 - ▶ Many different proposals for multi-class SVMs. We discuss two commonly used ad-hoc approaches.

SVMs with More than Two Classes

Let $C = \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$.

- **One-Versus-One** Construct $\binom{K}{2}$ SVMs for each pair of classes.

- ▶ For classes $\{1, 2\}$, consider data (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) with $y_i \in \{1, 2\}$. Let

$$z_i = -1\{y_i = 1\} + 1\{y_i = 2\}.$$

Fit SVM by using (\mathbf{x}_i, z_i) with $y_i \in \{1, 2\}$.

- ▶ For classes $\{1, 3\}$, consider data (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) with $y_i \in \{1, 3\}$. Let

$$z_i = -1\{y_i = 1\} + 1\{y_i = 3\}.$$

Fit SVM by using (\mathbf{x}_i, z_i) with $y_i \in \{1, 3\}$.

- ▶ Repeat for all pairs.

For each test point \mathbf{x}_0 , assign it to the majority class predicted by $\binom{K}{2}$ SVMs.

SVMs with More than Two Classes

- **One-Versus-All** Construct K SVMs by choosing classes one at a time.
 - ▶ For class $\{1\}$, consider ALL data (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) , $i = 1, \dots, n$. Let

$$z_i = 2 \cdot 1\{y_i = 1\} - 1.$$

Fit SVM and let its parameter be $(\hat{b}^{(1)}, \hat{\mathbf{w}}^{(1)})$.

- ▶ For class $\{2\}$, consider ALL data (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) , $i = 1, \dots, n$. Let

$$z_i = 2 \cdot 1\{y_i = 2\} - 1.$$

Fit SVM and let its parameter be $(\hat{b}^{(2)}, \hat{\mathbf{w}}^{(2)})$.

- ▶ Repeat for all classes.

For each test point \mathbf{x}_0 , assign it to the class

$$\max_{k \in C} \hat{b}^{(k)} + \mathbf{x}_0^\top \hat{\mathbf{w}}^{(k)}.$$

LDA vs SVM vs Logistic Regression (LR)

- In essence, SVM is more similar as LR than LDA. (LDA makes Gaussianity assumptions.)
- SVM does not estimate the probabilities $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid X)$ but LDA and LR do.
- When classes are (nearly) separable, SVM and LDA perform better than LR.
- When classes are non-separable, LR (with ridge penalty) and SVM are very similar.
- When Gaussianity can be justified, LDA has the best performance.
- SVM and LR are less used for multi-class classification problems.