Introduction to Statistical Learning Chapter 9

Recall: Logistic Regression

A classification algorithm which assigns **probabilities** in a way which rewards high confidence on correct predictions, and lower confidence on incorrect predictions.

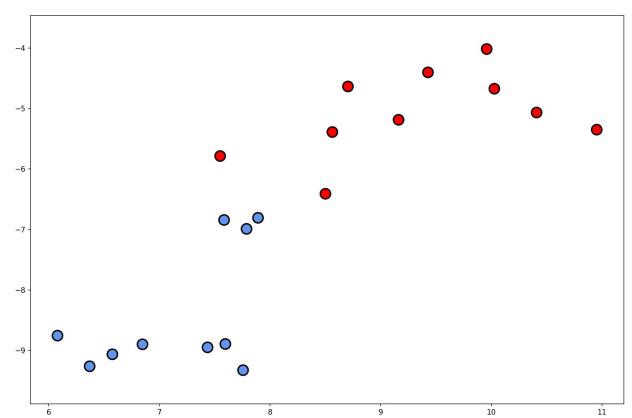
These probabilities can be translated into predictions. Typically, probability >= 0.5 corresponds to a prediction of "True".

It is a linear method - meaning that it creates a (hyper)plane decision boundary.

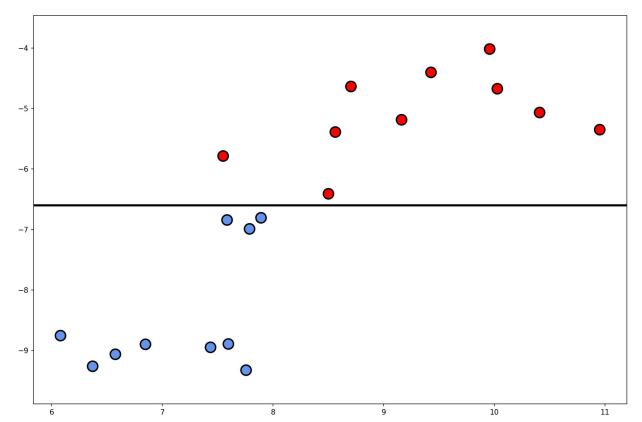
Support Vector Machines, do not predict a probability, but simply predict a class (True/False, for example).

They do this by creating a decision function, which determines a decision boundary.

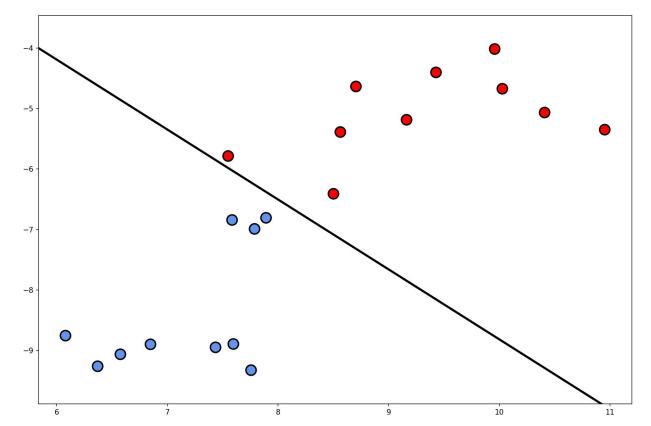
Predicts "True" if the value of the decision function is positive and "False" if it is negative.



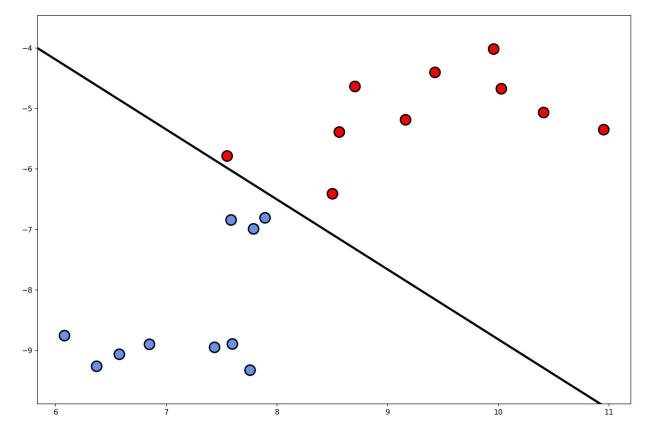
Goal: Find a line (or hyperplane in higher dimensions) that separates the two classes.



Here is one possible line.

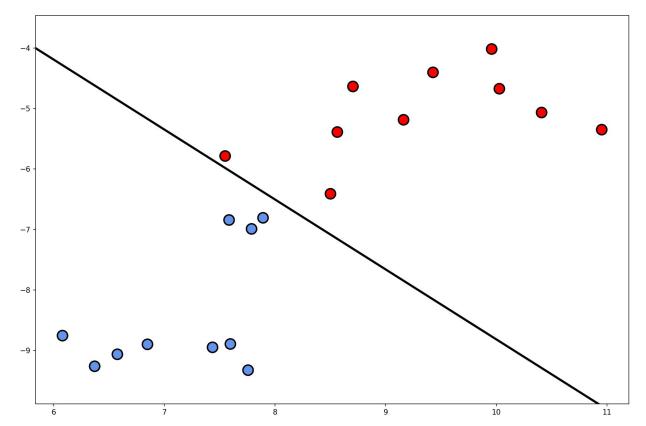


Here is another.



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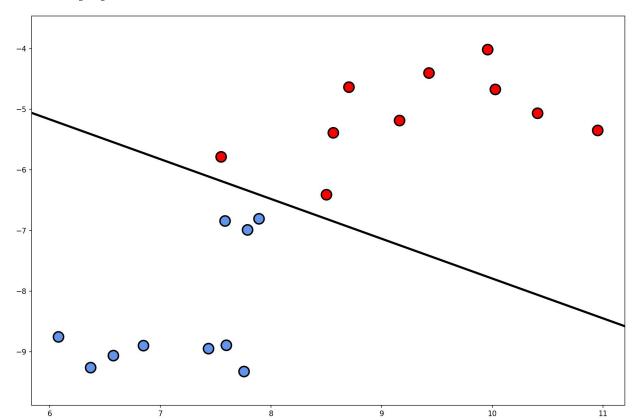
How do we decide?



Here is another.

How do we decide?

Support vector machines find the line that maximizes the distance to the points closest to the boundary.



This is the line that has the maximum "margin", or distance to the closest points.

To determine this line/hyperplane, we use a "decision function" that looks like:

$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x^{(1)} + \dots + \beta_k x^{(k)}$$

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The sign of f(x) (which corresponds to which side of the hyperplane the point is on) determines the predicted class

f(x) > 0: Predict class A/True

f(x) <0: Predict class B/False

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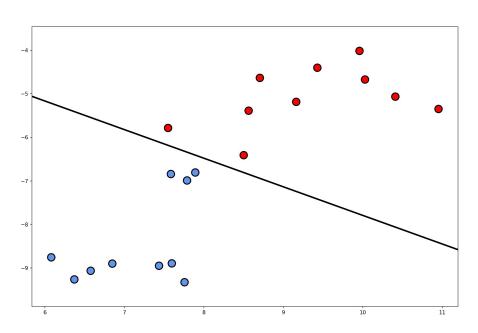
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The boundary is formed by all points such that f(x) = 0



$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = 3.07 + 1.647x^{(1)} + 2.508x^{(2)}$$

Warning: Math Incoming

Recall: Dot Products

$$\vec{x} = \langle x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(k)} \rangle$$

Given two vectors
$$\vec{y} = \langle y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \dots, y^{(k)} \rangle$$

The dot product is given by:

$$\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{k} x^{(i)} \cdot y^{(i)} = x^{(1)} y^{(1)} + \dots + x^{(k)} y^{(k)}$$

Geometrically, $\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = ||\vec{x}|| \cdot ||\vec{y}|| \cdot \cos(\theta)$

where θ is the angle between the vectors.

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Given training data:
$$\vec{x}_1,\ldots,\vec{x}_n$$
 Find $\alpha_{\mathbf{j}}$ so that $\beta_i=\sum_{j=1}^n\alpha_jx_j^{(i)}$ for all $i>=1$, $\beta_i=\sum_{j=1}^n\alpha_jx_j^{(i)}$

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$$= \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \cdot \langle \vec{x}_j, \vec{x} \rangle$$

$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x^{(1)} + \dots + \beta_k x^{(k)}$$

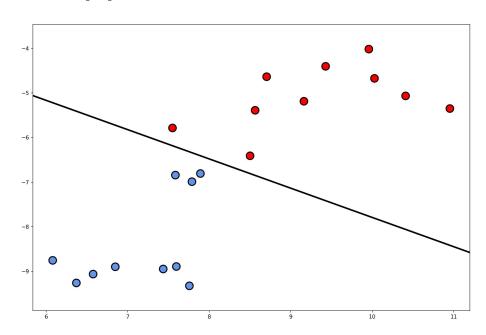
$$= \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \alpha_j \cdot \langle \vec{x}_j, \vec{x} \rangle$$

So, the decision boundary can be determined by a linear combination of dot products with the training data!

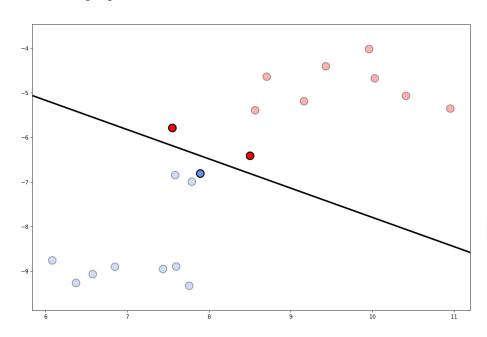
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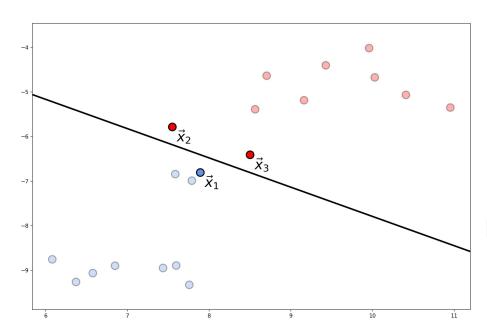
Bonus: $\alpha_j = 0$ for all except for the points closest to the boundary (the **support vectors**)



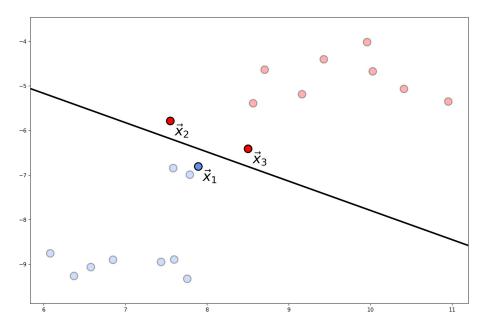
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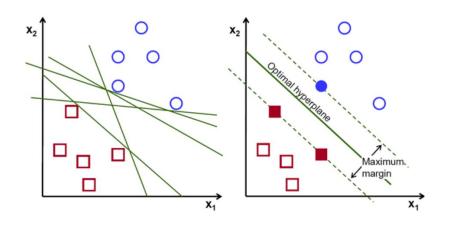


$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = 3.07 + 1.647x^{(1)} + 2.508x^{(2)}$$

$$= 3.07 - 4.50 \cdot \langle \vec{x}_1, \vec{x} \rangle + 1.15 \cdot \langle \vec{x}_2, \vec{x} \rangle + 3.35 \cdot \langle \vec{x}_3, \vec{x} \rangle$$

SVMs search for the "best" separating hyperplane.

Goal: find one which maximizes the "margin" - the distance from the nearest points to the decision boundary.



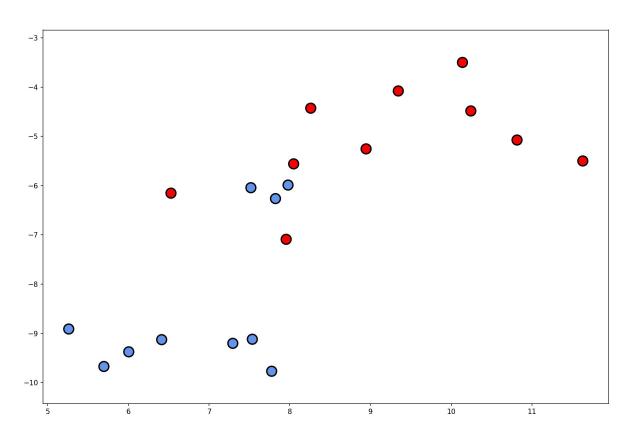
Stolen from

https://medium.com/@george.drakos62/support-vector-machine-vs-logistic-regression-94cc2975433f

Support Vector Machines vs. Logistic Regression

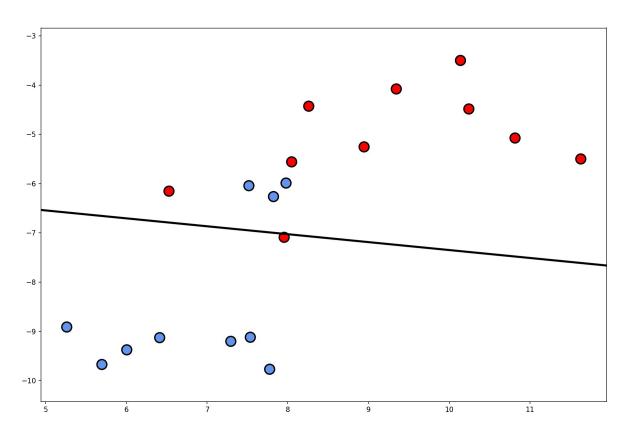
- Logistic Regression returns probabilities, which can be translated to predictions.
- SVMs only return predictions.
- SVMs rely on a smaller set of points (the support vectors) for determining the boundary.
- Logistic regression uses all the training points (they all contribute to the likelihood function)

What about non-linearly separable?



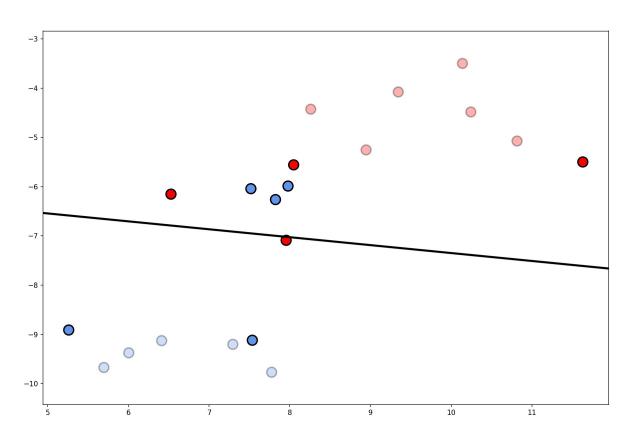
We still want the maximum margin, but allow a little bit of slack for points that cannot be classified correctly.

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SVMs can be used on problems where there is a nonlinear decision boundary, by applying a kernel function to transform the original space:

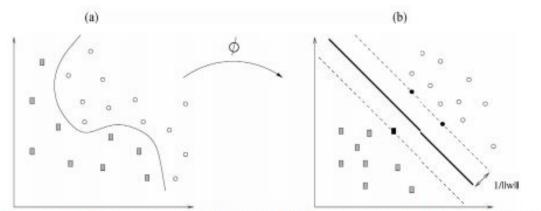


Figure 1: An illustration of a SVM model for two groups modified from Moguerza & Muñoz (2006). Panel (a) shows the data and a non-linear discriminant function; (b) how the data becomes separable after a kernel function Φ is applied.

Image Source:

http://www.scielo.org.co/pd f/rce/v35nspe2/v35nspe2a 03.pdf

Kernels

Idea: we can transform our linearly inseparable data into a higher-dimensional space, where it is linearly separable.

Example: we cannot separately the two different colors of points linearly:



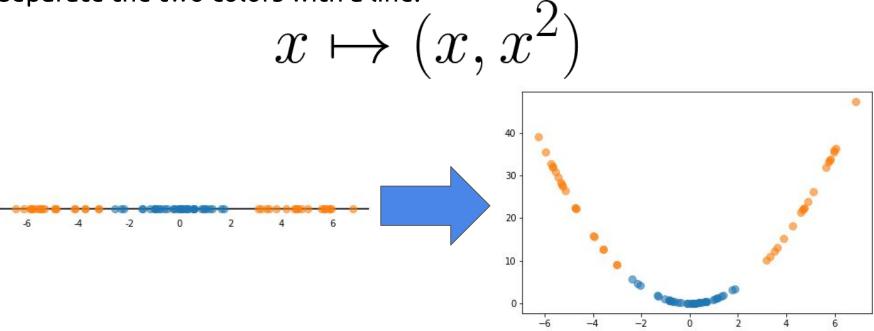
Kernels

Since we only have a single variable, our decision function looks like:

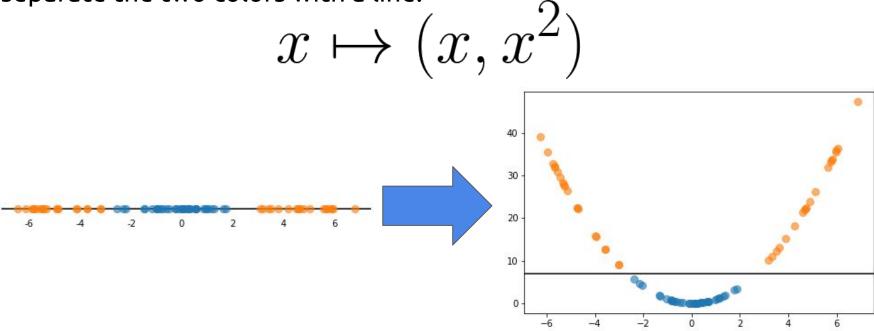
$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x$$

Kernels

But, if we embed each point into a 2-dimensional space, we can easily separate the two colors with a line:



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Once we embed into higher-dimensional space, our decision function now looks like:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x + \beta_2 \cdot x^2$$

Given an embedding map φ , the associated **kernel** K is given by

$$K(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \langle \phi(\vec{x}), \phi(\vec{y}) \rangle$$

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So what?

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So what?

If we only care about dot products, we don't have to explicitly compute the embedding. We can instead use a kernel function!

By mathematics black magic, we don't really need the higher-dimensional coordinates, just a way to compute similarity (i.e. dot products) in the higher-dimensional space.

A **kernel** is a shortcut to finding the similarity without having to compute the new coordinates.

Rather than specifying a transformation map, instead specify a kernel, or "similarity" function, which is often computationally cheaper.

Original version of decision function:

$$f(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \beta_2 \cdot x_2 + \dots + \beta_p \cdot x_p$$

By math, this is equivalent to one of the following form (where $x_1,...,x_n$ are the data points):

$$f(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \cdot (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x_i})$$

Support Vector Machines

Original:
$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1} \alpha_j \cdot \langle \vec{x}_j, \vec{x} \rangle$$

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$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \alpha_j \cdot \langle \vec{x}_j, \vec{x} \rangle$$

Using an embedding:
$$\hat{f}(ec{x}) = eta_0 + \sum^n lpha_j \cdot \langle \phi(ec{x}_j), \phi(ec{x})
angle$$

i=1

Support Vector Machines

Original:
$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1} \alpha_j \cdot \langle \vec{x}_j, \vec{x} \rangle$$

Using an embedding:
$$\hat{f}(ec{x})=eta_0+\sum_{j=1}^n lpha_j\cdot\langle\phi(ec{x}_j),\phi(ec{x})
angle$$

Using a kernel:
$$\hat{f}(ec{x}) = eta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{j=1} lpha_j \cdot K(ec{x}_j, ec{x})$$

A kernel replaces the dot product with some kernel function K.

$$f(\vec{x}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \cdot K(\vec{x}, \vec{x_i})$$

The two most common types of kernels:

Polynomial: Let us work with polynomials of our features, up to a specified degree (eg. working with squared mean radius instead of just mean radius)

The degree d polynomial kernel is given by

$$K(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + c)^d$$

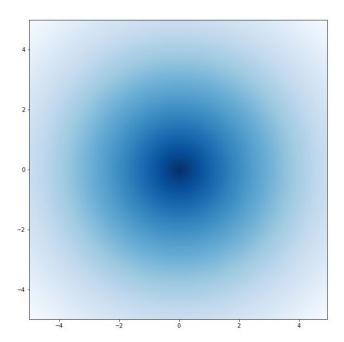
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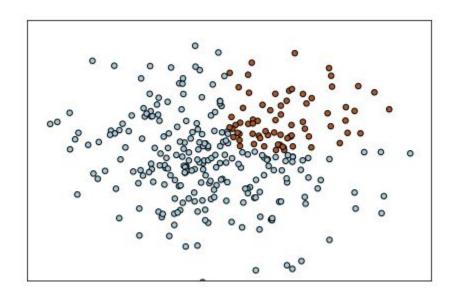
Radial Basis Functions: Each point is like a Gaussian probability distribution.

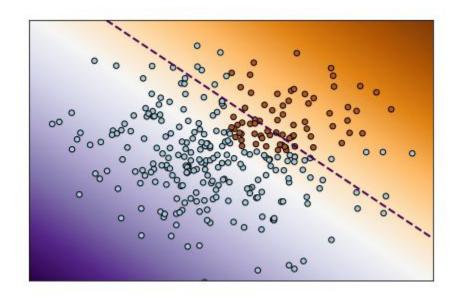
$$K(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = e^{(-\gamma||\vec{x} - \vec{y}||)}$$

Here, K is large if the distance between x and y is small. It has a maximum value of 1 when x = y.

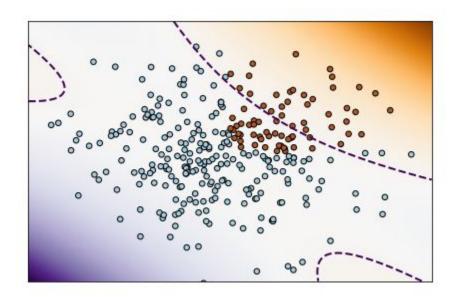
Radial Basis Function with y = (0,0) and gamma = 0.1 as we vary x. Here, darker corresponds to higher values of K(x, y).



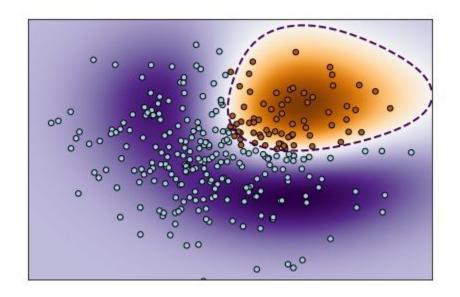




Linear Kernel (regular SVC)



Polynomial Kernel (degree 3)



Radial Basis Function (Gaussian) Kernel

Logistic Regression vs. Support Vector Machines

SVM can fit nonlinear decision boundaries, unlike logistic regression.

SVM does not output probabilities.

SVM is much slower to train the logistic regression, especially with a large number of observations.