## Principles of Machine Learning

Lecture 6: Classification with Support Vector Machines and Tree-based Methods

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## Overview of Support Vector Machines

- Support Vector Machines (SVMs) are classification methods developed in the 1990s.
- SVMs generalize the maximal margin classifier to handle non-linear boundaries.
- The maximal margin classifier assumes classes are separable by a linear boundary.
- SVMs are designed for binary classification (e.g., personal vs junk emails).
- SVMs provide a geometric perspective on supervised learning.



- In a p-dimensional space, a hyperplane is a flat affine subspace of dimension p-1.
- In two dimensions, a hyperplane is a line.
- In three dimensions, a hyperplane is a plane.
- In p>3 dimensions, it can be hard to visualize a hyperplane, but the notion of a (p-1)-dimensional flat subspace still applies.
- The p-dimensional hyperplane is defined as

$$b + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \dots + w_p x_p = 0$$

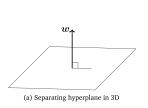
where b and  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  are the parameters and based on the definition, the point  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p)^T$  lies on the hyperplane.

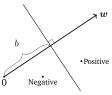
• We can define the hyperplane by defining the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = 0$$

• w is a normal vector to the hyperplane:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_a) - f(\mathbf{x}_b) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_a \rangle + b - (\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_b \rangle + b)$$
$$= \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_a - \mathbf{x}_b \rangle = 0$$





(b) Projection of the setting in (a) onto a plane



- Construct a hyperplane to perfectly separate training observations by class labels.
- For binary classification:  $y_i = 1$  (positive) and  $y_i = -1$  (negative).
- Geometrically: positives lie "above" and negatives "below" the hyperplane.
- The separating hyperplane satisfies:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b \ge 0$$
 if  $y_i = +1$ ,  
 $f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b < 0$  if  $y_i = -1$ ,

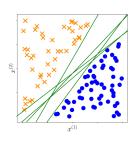
or equivalently:

$$y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \geq 0,$$

for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .



- Classify test observation  $\mathbf{x}^*$  based on the sign of  $f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ .
- If  $|f(\mathbf{x}^*)|$  is large,  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is far from the hyperplane, indicating confident classification.
- If  $|f(\mathbf{x}^*)|$  is small,  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is near the hyperplane, leading to less certainty in classification.
- Multiple linear classifiers (green lines) can separate orange crosses from blue discs. How to choose?





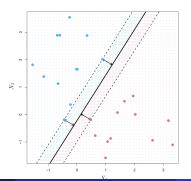
## The Maximal Margin Classifier

- The maximal margin hyperplane maximizes the distance (margin) from training observations.
- The margin is the minimal distance from observations to the hyperplane.
- But, the maximal margin classifier may overfit when p (features) is large.



### The Maximal Margin Classifier

- The maximal margin hyperplane is the centerline of the widest "slab" separating two classes.
- Support vectors are the data points closest to the separating hyperplane.
- These points lie on the margin boundaries and determine the position of the hyperplane.
- Shifting a support vector would alter the hyperplane's position.





## Construction of the Maximal Margin Classifier

- Having a set of n training observations  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and associated class labels  $y_1, \dots, y_n \in \{-1, 1\}$ .
- The maximal margin hyperplane solves the optimization problem

$$\max_{\mathbf{w},b,r} r$$
subject to 
$$\underbrace{y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \geq r}_{\text{data fitting}}, \underbrace{||\mathbf{w}|| = 1}_{\text{normalization}}, r > 0, \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, n,$$

attempting to maximize the margin r while ensuring that the data lies on the correct side of the hyperplane.

• If there is no solution with r > 0, no separating hyperplane exists, and so there is no maximal margin classifier.

## Construction of the Maximal Margin Classifier

- Instead of choosing that the parameter vector is normalized, we could choose a scale for the data.
- We choose this **scale** such that the value of the predictor is 1 at the closest example  $\mathbf{x}_a$ , i.e.  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_a \rangle + b = 1$ .
- If  $\mathbf{x}'_a$  is the orthogonal **projection** of  $\mathbf{x}_a$  onto the hyperplane, we have  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}'_a \rangle + b = 0$ .
- We can write  $\mathbf{x}'_a$  based on  $\mathbf{x}_a$  as

$$\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_a' + r \frac{\mathbf{w}}{||\mathbf{w}||}.$$

Thus, we have

$$\left\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{a} - r \frac{\mathbf{w}}{||\mathbf{w}||} \right\rangle + b = 0 \rightarrow \left\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{a} \right\rangle + b - r \frac{\left\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle}{||\mathbf{w}||} = 0$$



## Construction of the Maximal Margin Classifier

- The first term is 1 by our assumption of scale, i.e.,  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_a \rangle + b = 1$ .
- Also  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = ||\mathbf{w}||^2$ . Thus, we get  $r = \frac{1}{||\mathbf{w}||}$ .
- The optimization problem can be written as

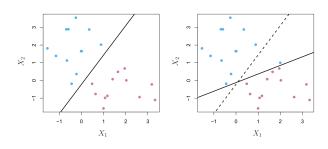
$$\max_{\mathbf{w},b} \ \frac{1}{||\mathbf{w}||}$$
 subject to  $y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \geq 1$ , for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ ,

or equivalently

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\mathbf{w},b} & \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2 \\ \text{subject to} & y_i \left( \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b \right) \geq 1, \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, n, \end{aligned}$$

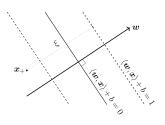
Known as hard margin SVM because the formulation does not all for any violations of the margin condition.

- A classifier based on a separating hyperplane will necessarily perfectly classify all of the training observations.
- This can lead to sensitivity to individual observations.
- For example, after the addition of a single observation, the Margin is not satisfactory because it has a very small margin.





- Let's misclassify a few training observations in order to have
  - a greater robustness to individual observations, and
  - a better classification of most of the training observations.
- The model that allows for some classification errors is called the soft margin classifier (SVM).
- The key geometric idea is to introduce a **slack variable**  $\xi_i$  for each sample  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$ .
- $\xi$  measures the distance of a positive example  $\mathbf{x}_+$  to the positive margin hyperplane  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = 1$  when  $\mathbf{x}_+$  is on the wrong side.



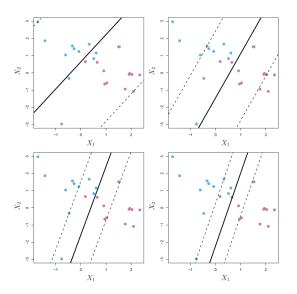


Optimization problem for the soft margin classifier:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}} \ \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i,$$
 subject to 
$$y_i \left( \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b \right) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \ \xi_i \geq 0, \ \forall i.$$
 • Parameter  $C > 0$  balances margin size and the tolerance for slack

- variables.
- Larger C reduces regularization, forcing the model to fit the training data more closely.
- Smaller C increases regularization, allowing more margin violations for better generalization.
- An alternative: impose an upper bound on the sum of slack variables. instead of including it in the cost function.

## Effect of changing upper bound of slack variables





 The soft margin classifier can be derived using a loss function perspective.



- The soft margin classifier can be derived using a loss function perspective.
- The zero-one loss counts mismatches between predictions and labels:

$$\mathbf{1}(f(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i)$$
, where loss = 0 if labels match, and 1 otherwise.

• Zero-one loss leads to a combinatorial optimization problem, which is difficult to solve.



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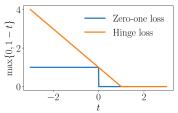
• The **hinge loss** provides a tractable alternative: 
$$\ell(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t \geq 1, \\ 1-t & \text{if } t < 1. \end{cases}$$

or equivalently:

$$\ell(t) = \max\{0, 1 - t\}, \quad t = yf(\mathbf{x}) = y(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b),$$



- We pay a penalty once we are closer than the margin to the hyperplane, even if the prediction is correct, and the penalty increases linearly.
- The hinge loss is a convex upper bound of zero-one loss.



The loss corresponding to the hard margin SVM is defined as

$$\ell(t) = egin{cases} 0 & ext{if } t \geq 1 \ \infty & ext{if } t < 1 \end{cases} ,$$

where this loss can be interpreted as never allowing any examples inside the margin.

Using the hinge loss gives us the unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \quad \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b)\}.$$

- Margin maximization can be interpreted as regularization.
- This optimization problem and previous one based on slack variables are equivalent.



### **Dual Support Vector Machine**

- In the primal view, the number of parameters (dimension of **w**) grows linearly with the number of features.
- The dual view reformulates the problem, making it independent of the number of features.
- Instead, the number of parameters in the dual view depends on the training set size.
- This approach is ideal for cases with more features than training examples.
- The dual SVM also enables the use of kernels seamlessly.



- The primal variables:  $\mathbf{w}$ , b, and  $\xi$ .
- The corresponding Lagrangian to the optimization problem is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w},b,\xi,\alpha,\gamma) = \frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{w}||^2 + C\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

$$-\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left(y_i(\langle \mathbf{w},\mathbf{x}_i\rangle + b) - 1 + \xi_i\right)$$
correct classification constraint
$$-\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i \xi_i$$
non-negativity of the slack variables

where  $\alpha_i \ge 0$  and  $\gamma_i \ge 0$  are the Lagrange multipliers.



• By differentiating the Lagrangian with respect to the three primal variables  $\mathbf{w}, b$ , and  $\xi$  respectively, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w}^T - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T,$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i,$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varepsilon_i} = C - \alpha_i - \gamma_i.$$

• We can find the maximum of the Lagrangian by setting each of these partial derivatives to zero.

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i,$$

which states that the optimal weight vector in the primal is a line combination of the example.

- The previous expression for w also provides an explanation of the name "support vector machine."
- The examples  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , for which the corresponding parameters  $\alpha_i = 0$ , do not contribute to the solution  $\mathbf{w}$  at all.
- The other examples, where  $\alpha_i > 0$ , are called support vectors since they "support" the hyperplane.
- The constraint obtained by setting  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b}$  to zero implies that the optimal weight vector is an affine combination of the examples.
- By setting  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \xi_i}$  we obtain that  $C = \alpha_i + \gamma_i$ .



 By substituting the expressions into the Lagrangian, we obtain the dual

$$\mathcal{D}(\xi, \alpha, \gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{i} y_{j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \langle \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j} \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} \alpha_{i} \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{j} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}, \mathbf{x}_{i} \right\rangle$$

$$+ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (C - \alpha_{i} - \gamma_{i}) \xi_{i}}_{=0} - \underbrace{b} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} \alpha_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{i} y_{j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \langle \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j} \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$



Thus, the dual optimization problem of the SVM (dual SVM) is

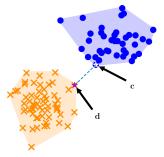
$$\begin{split} \min_{\alpha} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{i} y_{j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \langle \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j} \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} \alpha_{i} = 0, \ 0 \leq \alpha_{i} \leq \textit{C}, \ \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, \textit{n}. \end{split}$$

- ullet Once we obtain the dual parameters  $lpha^*$ , we can recover the primal parameters  $ullet^*$  based on the combination of the examples expression.
- Also, if the example  $x_i$  lies on the margin's boundary, the parameter  $b^*$  can be obtained as

$$b^* = y_i - \langle \mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle.$$

• If there is no examples that lie exactly on the margin, we should compute  $|y_i - \langle \mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle|$  for all support vectors and take the media value of this absolute value difference to be the value of  $b^*$ .

• Convex hull is a convex set that contains all the examples with the same label such that it is the smallest possible set.



The convex hull can be described as the set

$$\mathsf{conv}(\mathbf{X}) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\} \quad \mathsf{with} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = 1, \quad \alpha_i \geq 0, \text{ for all } i = 1, \cdots, n \in \mathbb{N}$$

- We form two convex hulls, corresponding to the positive and negative classes respectively.
- We pick a point **c**, which is in the convex hull of the set of positive examples, and is closest to the negative class distribution.

$$\mathbf{c} = \sum_{i:y_i = +1} \alpha_i^+ \mathbf{x}_i.$$

• Similarly, we pick a point **d** in the convex hull of the set of negative examples, which is closest to the positive class distribution.

$$\mathbf{d} = \sum_{i: y_i = -1} \alpha_i^- \mathbf{x}_i.$$

• We define a difference vector between **c** and **d**:





 Requiring c and d to be closest to each other is equivalent to minimizing the length/norm of w:

$$\arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2 \to \arg\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \left| \left| \sum_{i:y_i = +1} \alpha_i^+ \mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{i:y_i = -1} \alpha_i^- \mathbf{x}_i \right| \right|^2,$$

where  $\alpha$  is the set of all coefficients  $(\alpha^+, \alpha^-)$ .

• Also, the constraints  $\sum_{i:y_i=+1}^n \alpha_i^+=1$  and  $\sum_{i:y_i=-1}^n \alpha_i^-=1$  implies that

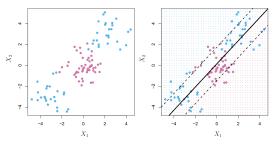
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i = 0$$

- The objective function and the above constraint, along with  $\alpha > 0$ , give us a constrained (convex) optimization problem.
- This optimization problem can be shown to be the same as that of the dual hard margin SVM.

- To obtain the soft margin dual, we consider the reduced hull.
- The **reduced hull** is similar to the convex hull but has an upper bound to the size of the coefficients  $\alpha$ .
- ullet The bound on lpha shrinks the convex hull to a smaller volume.



- In practice we are sometimes faced with non-linear class boundaries.
- A support vector classifier or any linear classifier will perform poorly in not linearly separable datasets.



 We could address the problem of possibly non-linear boundaries between classes by enlarging the feature space using quadratic, cubic and even higher-order polynomial functions of the predictors.

#### Definition (Kernel)

*Kernels* are by definition functions  $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$  for which there exists a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{H}$  a feature map such that

$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

- ullet The inputs  ${\mathcal X}$  of the kernel function can be very general and are not necessarily restricted to the input data dimension.
- Support vector classifiers use a linear kernel (inner product of the examples).
- The generalization from an inner product to a kernel function is known as the kernel trick.



• The matrix  $\mathbf{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , resulting from the inner products or the application of  $k(\cdot, \cdot)$  to a dataset, is called the **Gram matrix** (kernel matrix):

$$\mathbf{K}_{ij} := \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) := k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

 The kernel matrix K is symmetric and positive semi-definite for any examples:

$$\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{K} \mathbf{z} \geq 0$$
 for any  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

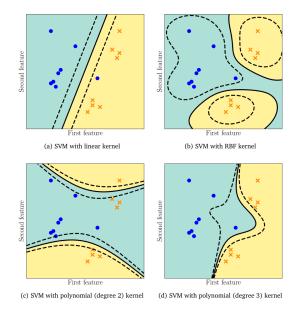
Polynomial kernel of degree d

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \left(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c\right)^d$$

Radial (RBF) kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = \exp\left(-\gamma||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2\right)$$







#### SVMs with More than Two Classes

Suppose that we would like to perform classification using SVMs, and there are K > 2 classes.

- 1 One-Versus-One Classification approach
  - This approach construct  $\binom{K}{2}$  SVMs, each of which compares a pair of classes.
  - We classify a test observation using each of the  $\binom{K}{2}$  classifiers, and we tally the number of times that the test observation is assigned to each of the K classes.
  - The final classification is performed by assigning the test observation to the class to which it was most frequently assigned in these  $\binom{K}{2}$  pairwise classifications.



#### SVMs with More than Two Classes

Suppose that we would like to perform classification using SVMs, and there are K > 2 classes.

- 2 One-Versus-All Classification approach
  - We fit K SVMs, each time comparing one of the K classes to the remaining K-1 classes.
  - Let  $\mathbf{w}_k$  and  $b_k$  denote the parameters that result from fitting an SVM comparing the kth class (coded as +1) to the others (coded as -1).
  - We assign the observation to the class for which  $\mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}^* + b$  is the largest, as this amounts to a high level of confidence that the test observation belongs to the kth class rather than to any of the other classes.

