<u>Acknowledgement</u>: these slides are partially based on Machine Learning for Cities course material from Dr. Stanislav Sobolevsky, used with permission.

Machine Learning for Cities CUSP-GX 5006.001, Spring 2018

Lecture 4: From linear to non-linear classification with Support Vector Machines

Support Vector Machines (SVMs)

Support vector machines are an optimization based prediction approach used primarily for **binary classification**, and are able to achieve state-of-the-art prediction accuracy on many real-world tasks.

Key idea 1: Learn a **decision boundary** that optimally separates positive and negative training examples. (But what does it mean to be optimal?)

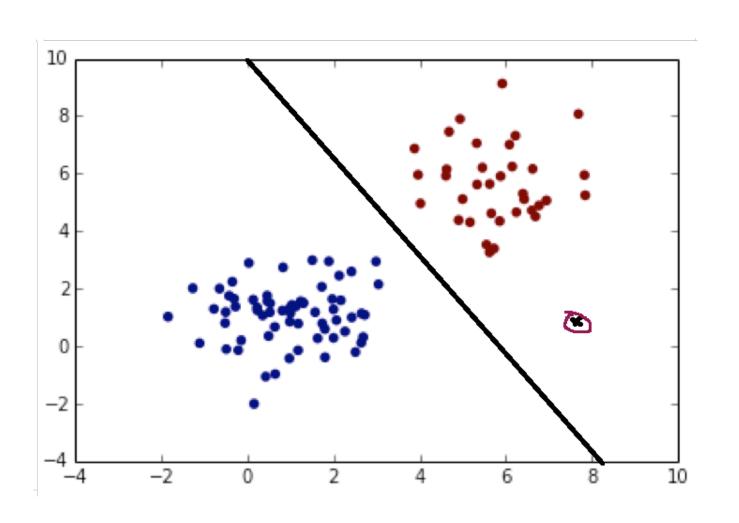
Key idea 2: Learn a linear decision boundary in high dimensional space corresponding to a **non-linear** decision boundary for the original problem.

SVM assumes **real-valued** attributes on the **same scale**. Thus it is very important to pre-process your data before training the model:

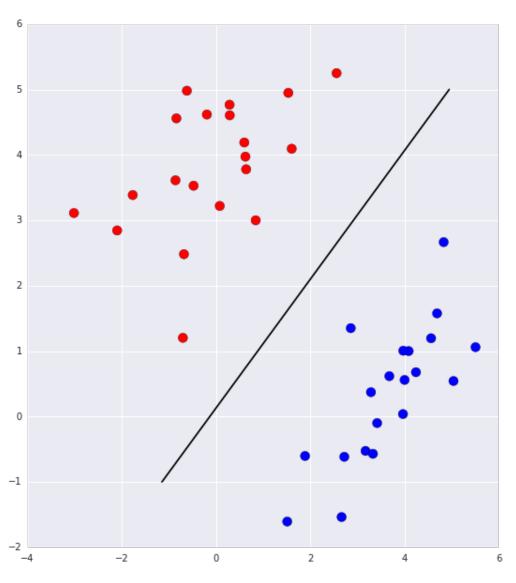
- Normalize real-valued attributes (scale either to [0,1] or to mean = 0 and variance = 1). Make sure to use same scaling for training and test data.
- Replace discrete-valued attributes with dummy variables.

<u>Car</u>	<u>Weight</u>	<u>Car</u>	Weight=Medium	Weight=Heavy
1	Low	1	0	0
2	Medium	2	1	0
3	Heavy	3	0	1

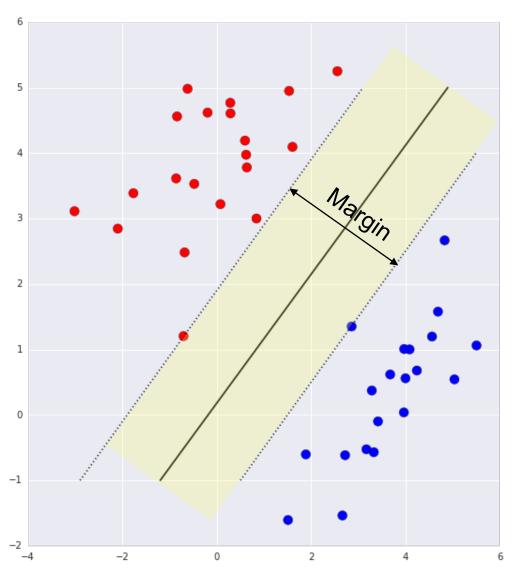
SVMs: the basic idea (linearly separable case)



This is an optimization problem.

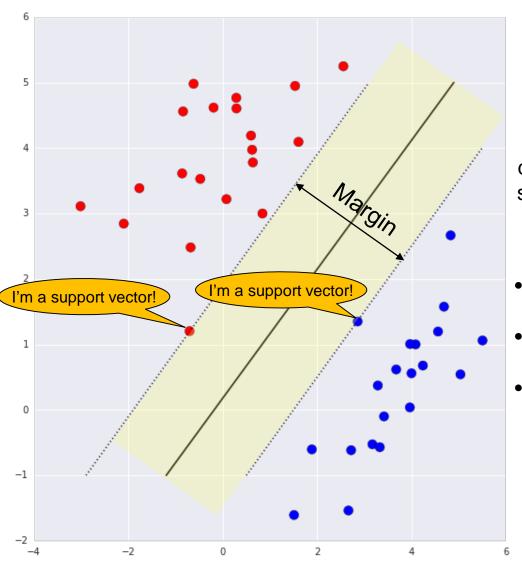


Choose the line that maximizes the margin between classes.



Margin = how wide we could make the linear decision boundary before it contacts points from either class.

Choose the line that maximizes the **margin** between classes.



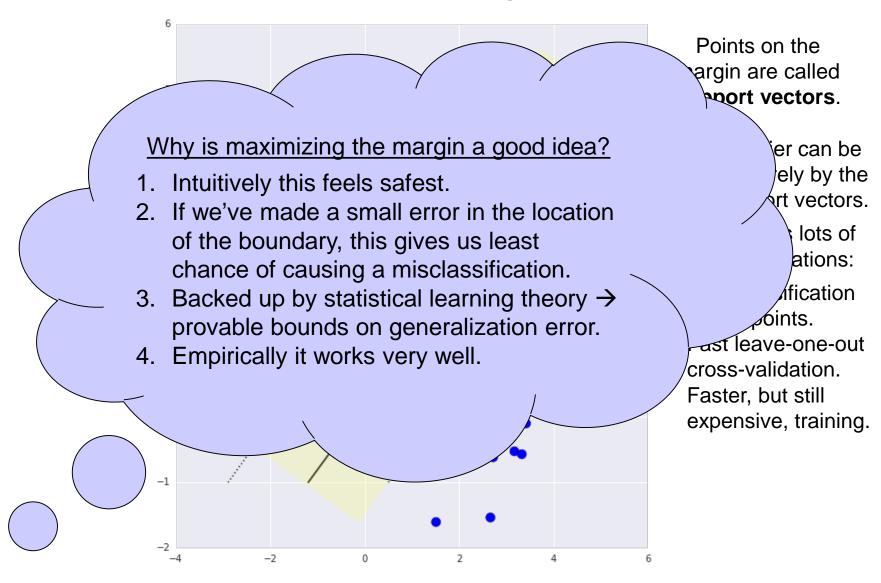
Points on the margin are called support vectors.

The classifier can be defined entirely by the set of support vectors.

This fact has lots of useful implications:

- Fast classification of test points.
- Fast leave-one-out cross-validation.
- Faster, but still expensive, training.

Choose the line that maximizes the margin between classes.



To separate, for all points j, we must have:

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) > 0$$

For the margin, define:

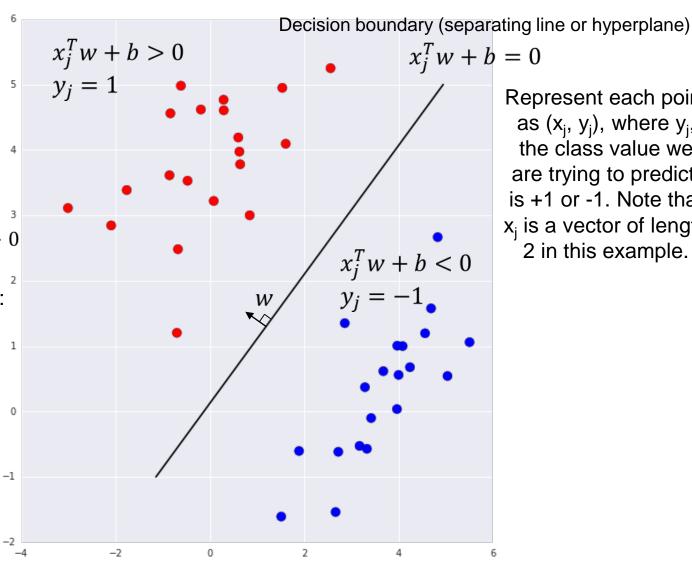
$$M = \min_{j} y_j (x_j^T w + b) > 0$$

Then for $y_i = 1$, we have:

$$x_j^T w + b \ge M$$

For $y_i = -1$, we have:

$$x_i^T w + b \le -M$$



Represent each point as (x_i, y_i) , where y_i , the class value we are trying to predict, is +1 or -1. Note that x_i is a vector of length 2 in this example.

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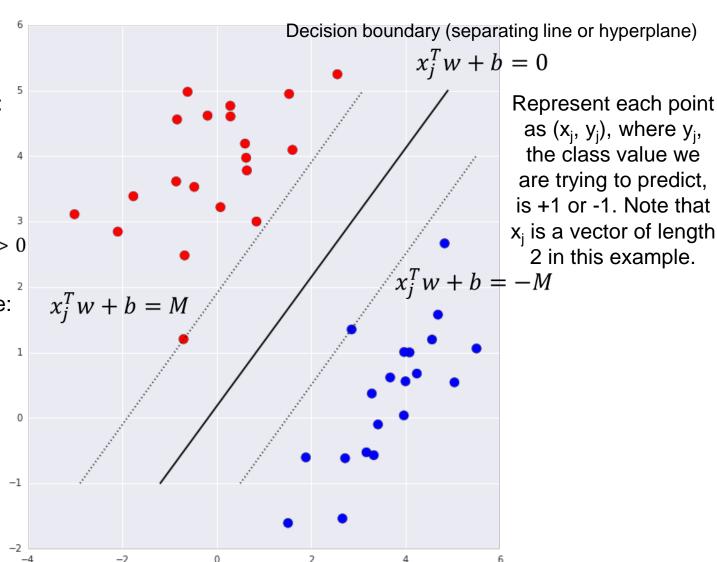
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Margin = 2M / ||w||.

This follows from computing distance between parallel lines.

Goal: maximize 2M / ||w|| subject to constraints, for all j:

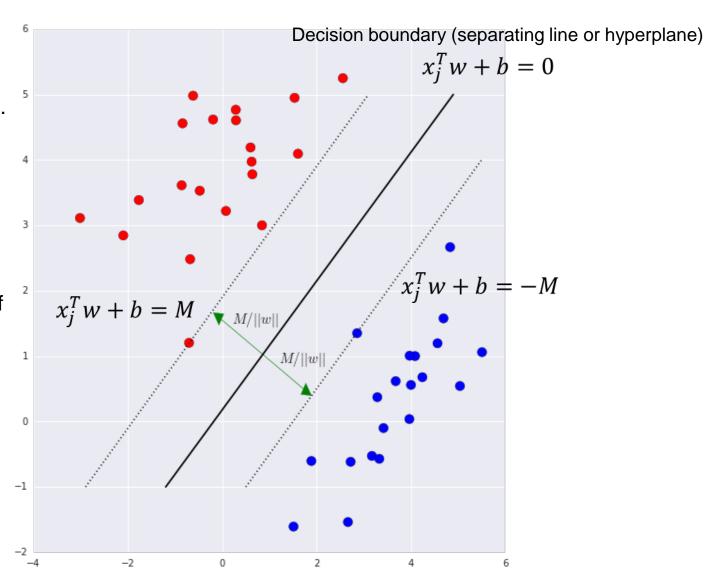
$$y_j(x_j^Tw+b)\geq M$$

Simplify by change of variables, dividing w and b through by M.

New goal: minimize ||w|| subject to constraints, for all j:

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1$$

New margin: 2 / ||w||



Margin = 2M / ||w||.

This follows from computing distance between parallel lines.

Goal: maximize 2M / ||w|| subject to constraints, for all j:

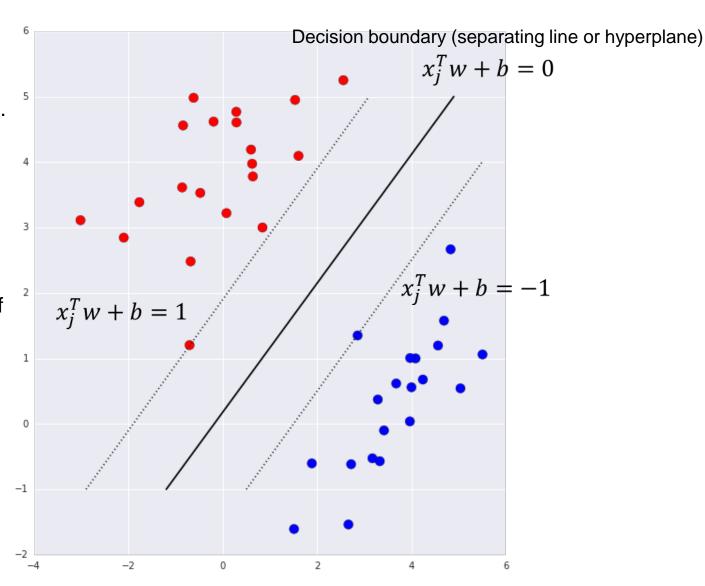
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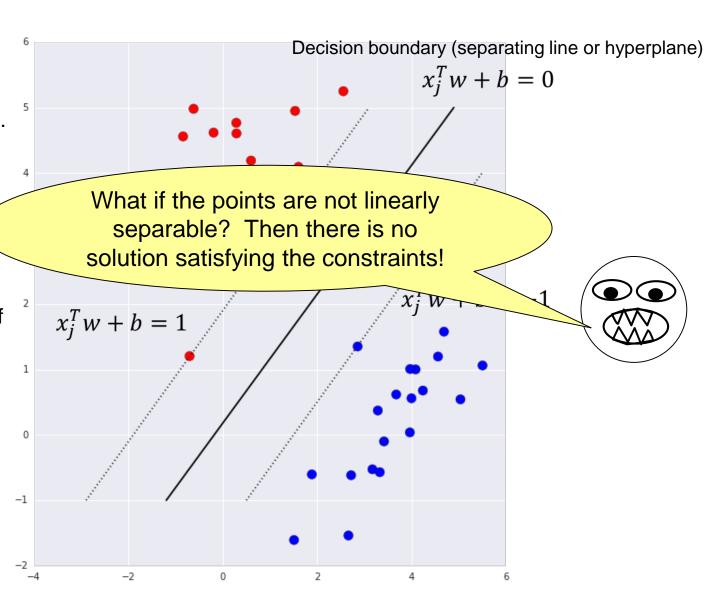
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New margin: 2 / ||w||



Non-separable case: soft margins

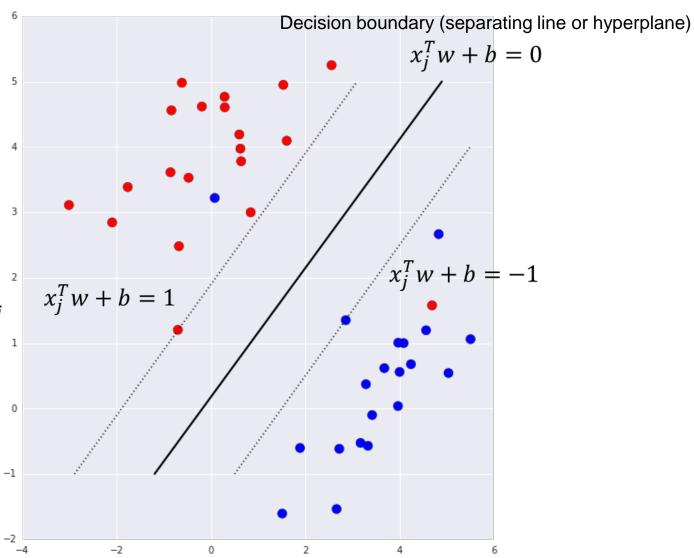
Goal (hard margin): 6 minimize ||w|| subject to constraints, for all j: 5

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1$$



Goal (soft margin): minimize subject to constraints, for all j:

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1 - \xi_j$$
$$\xi_j \ge 0$$



Non-separable case: soft margins

Goal (hard margin): minimize ||w|| subject to constraints, for all j:

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1$$

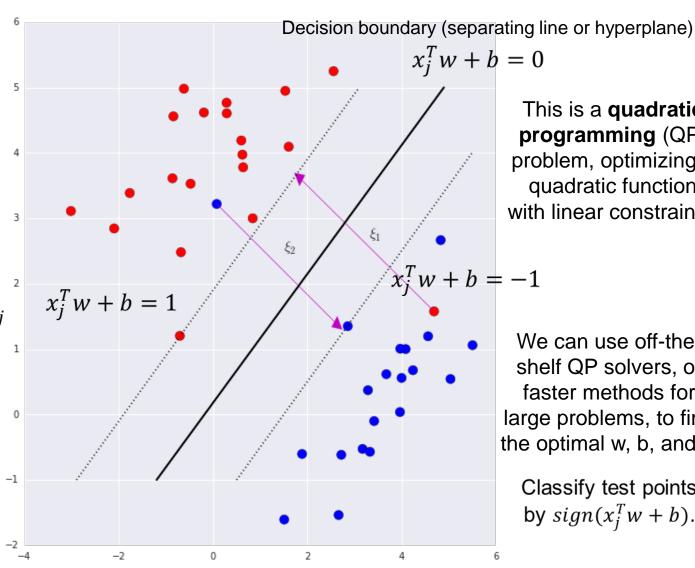


Goal (soft margin): minimize subject to constraints, for all j:

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1 - \xi_j$$
$$\xi_j \ge 0$$

But what should we minimize? ||w||?

Answer: minimize $\frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + C\sum_{i} \xi_{j}$



This is a quadratic programming (QP) problem, optimizing a quadratic function with linear constraints.

We can use off-theshelf QP solvers, or faster methods for large problems, to find the optimal w, b, and ξ .

Classify test points by $sign(x_i^T w + b)$.

Soft margins in practice

Goal (hard margin): minimize ||w|| subject to constraints, for all j:

$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1$$



Goal (soft margin): minimize subject to constraints, for all j:

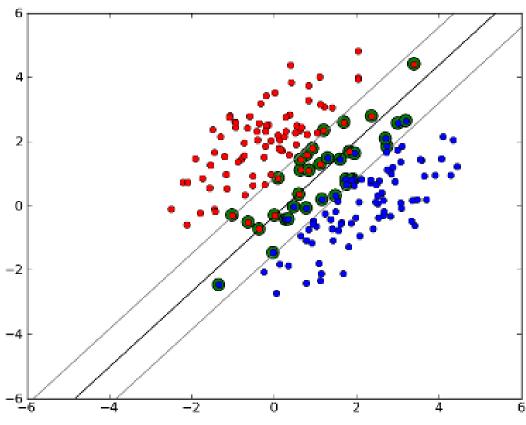
$$y_j(x_j^T w + b) \ge 1 - \xi_j$$
$$\xi_j \ge 0$$

But what should we minimize? ||w||?

Answer: minimize $\frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + C\sum_j \xi_j$

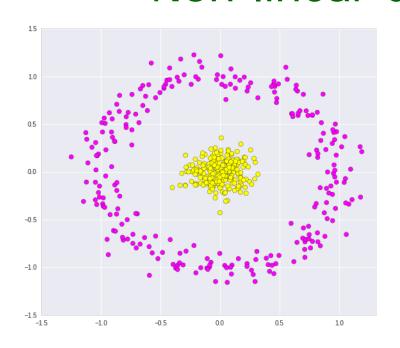
In practice, there may be many training points with $\xi_i > 0$ (all of these are support vectors).

Training points with $\xi_i > 1$ are misclassifications.



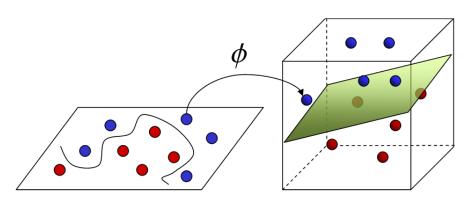
http://www.mblondel.org/journal/2010/09/19/support-vector-machines-in-python/

Non-linear decision boundaries



What do we do in cases like this one?
Any linear separator will perform terribly!





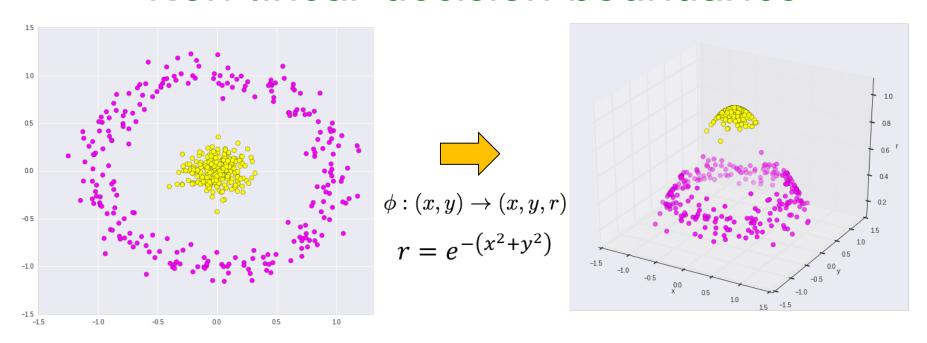
Input Space

Feature Space

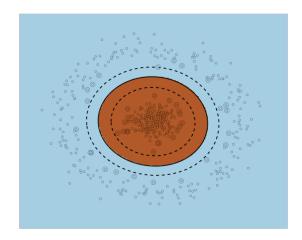
Solution:

- 1) Map input space to a high-dimensional feature space.
- 2) Learn a linear decision boundary (hyperplane) in the high-dimensional space.
- Map back to lowerdimensional space, giving a non-linear boundary.

Non-linear decision boundaries



The resulting classifier perfectly separates the training data.



Non-linear decision boundaries

<u>Problem</u>: not efficiently computable, since $\Phi(x_j)$ may be high- or infinite-dimensional!

Solution: transform to equivalent ("dual") QP problem:

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T Q \alpha - \sum_{j} \alpha_j \text{ subject to: } 0 \le \alpha_j \le C \text{ where: } Q_{ij} = y_i y_j (\boldsymbol{\Phi}(x_i) \cdot \boldsymbol{\Phi}(x_j))$$
$$\sum_{j} \alpha_j y_j = 0 \qquad \qquad = y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j)$$

Very cool trick (the "kernel trick"): instead of mapping both x_i and x_j into a high-dimensional space and computing the dot product in that space, we can just compute a function $K(x_i, x_i)$ of the original data points.

This makes the QP efficiently solvable. To classify a test point x, we just need to compute $sign(\sum_j \alpha_j y_j K(x_j, x) + \rho)$.

Sum is just over the support vectors; other points have $\alpha_i = 0$.

Some common kernel functions

Linear kernel:
$$\phi: x \to x$$
 $K(x_i, x_j) = x_i \cdot x_j$

Polynomial kernel: $K(x_i, x_j) = (\gamma(x_i \cdot x_j) + r)^d$

Non-linear Sigmoid kernel: $K(x_i, x_j) = \tanh(\gamma(x_i \cdot x_j) + r)$ kernels

Gaussian kernel: $K(x_i, x_j) = \exp(-\gamma ||x_i - x_j||^2)$

The Gaussian kernel is usually called the "radial basis function", or **RBF**, kernel. It is one of the most widely used choices of kernel and a good default option.

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Variants and extensions of SVMs

SVMs are mainly used for **non-probabilistic**, **binary classification**.

To do multi-class classification:

For each class k, learn a binary classifier (class k vs. rest).

To predict the output for a new test example x, predict with each SVM.

Choose whichever one puts the prediction the furthest into the positive region.

To estimate class probabilities:

SVMs are not really the best for this, but can do logistic regression using outputs of k(k-1) pairwise SVMs.

Lots of models + additional crossvalidation needed → this approach is very computationally expensive. (See Wu et al., 2004, for details.)

Support vector machines can also be used for **regression** (Smola and Schölkopf, 2003) and for **anomaly detection** (the "one-class SVM", Schölkopf et al., 2001).

Both are implemented in scikit-learn, but are beyond the scope of this class.

Some advantages of SVMs

- <u>Very good performance</u>: though lately outshined by convolutional neural networks on some benchmarks (e.g., the MNIST digit recognition dataset) they often beat basically everything else.
- Theoretical guarantees about their generalization performance (accuracy for labeling test data) based on statistical learning theory.
- SVMs rely on convex optimization and do not get stuck in suboptimal local minima (neural networks have a big problem with these; similarly, decision trees rely on greedy search).
- Fairly robust to the curse of dimensionality → can effectively solve prediction problems with a large number of features.
- Flexible: can choose kernel to fit very complex decision boundaries.
- Will generally avoid overfitting with well-chosen parameters (but can certainly overfit for poorly chosen values, e.g., if C is too large).
- Classification of test points relies only on the support vectors → fast and memory efficient, especially when # of support vectors is small.

Some disadvantages of SVMs

- Training the model is computationally expensive dependent on # of support vectors, but typically quadratic to cubic in the number of data points.
- Sensitive to choice of parameters, particularly the constant C and kernel bandwidth (γ for RBF kernel in sklearn).
 - C trades off misclassification rate against simplicity of the decision surface. Low C →
 smooth decision surface; High C → more training examples classified correctly.
 - Larger γ = lower bandwidth (increased weight on nearest training examples).
 - Proper choice of C and γ is critical to the SVM's performance.
 - For sklearn, use GridSearchCV with C and γ spaced exponentially far apart.
- Not much interpretability for non-linear SVM: can enumerate the support vectors or (in low dimensions) visualize the decision boundary, but actually obtaining these involves calling a black-box optimization routine.

References

- Scikit-learn documentation: http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/svm.html
- C.J.C. Burges. A tutorial on support vector machines for pattern recognition. *Data Mining & Knowledge Discovery*, 2: 955-974, 1998. http://research.microsoft.com/en-us/um/people/cburges/papers/symtutorial.pdf
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- T.-F. Wu, C.-J. Lin, and R.C. Weng. Probability estimates for multiclass classification by pairwise coupling. *Journal of Machine Learning Research* 5: 975-1005, 2004.
- A.J. Smola and B. Schölkopf. A tutorial on support vector regression, Statistics and Computing, 2003. http://alex.smola.org/papers/2003/SmoSch03b.pdf
- B. Schölkopf et al. Estimating the support of a high-dimensional distribution. Neural Computation 13: 1443-1471, 2001.

<u>Up next</u>: a short break, and then Python examples for support vector machines.