## **UNIT 3**

### **Support Vector Machines**



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## Lecture Supervised Techniques: Planned Topics

- UNIT 1: Overview of Supervised Machine Learning
- UNIT 2: Basics of Supervised Machine Learning
- UNIT 3: Support Vector Machines
- UNIT 4: Random Forests and Gradient Boosting
- UNIT 5: Logistic Regression
- UNIT 6: Artificial Neural Networks
- UNIT 7: Special Network Architectures

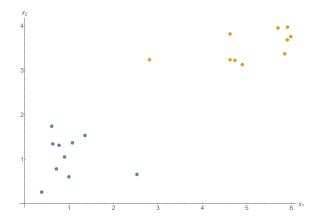
### Planned topics for Unit 3

- Linear SVMs
  - Basics of convex optimization
  - Rigorous derivation for linearly separable data
  - No linear separability: basic concepts and ideas for C-SVMs
- Nonlinear SVMs
  - ☐ Kernel trick
  - Discussion of corresponding dual problem
  - How to find the right kernels?
- Multi-class SVMs
- Support vector regression (SVR): linear and nonlinear
- Pros and Cons of SVMs in general

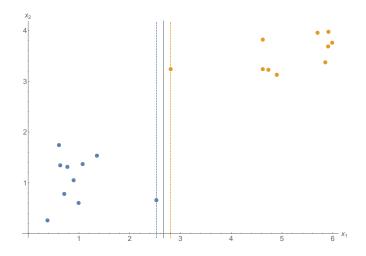
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## **Support Vector Machines: Basic idea (1)**

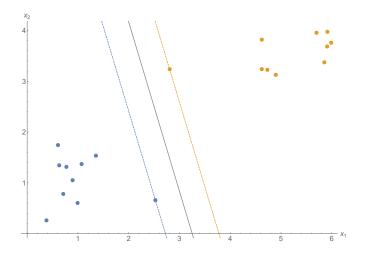
- Support Vector Machines (SVMs) are based on the idea of finding a linear classification border maximizing the margin between negative (blue) and positive (orange) samples.
- We illustrate the situation in the following pictures:



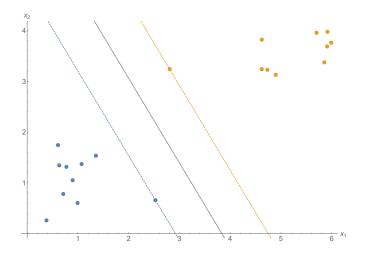
## **Support Vector Machines: Basic idea (2)**



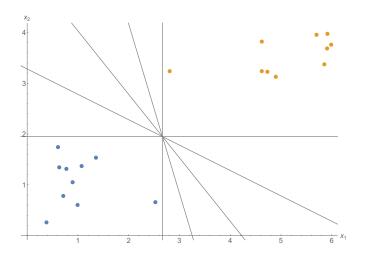
## **Support Vector Machines: Basic idea (3)**



## **Support Vector Machines: Basic idea (4)**



### **Support Vector Machines: Basic idea (5)**



### Main steps of historical development

- 1963: Vapnik and Chervonenkis: original idea of SVMs
- 1992: Boser, Guyon and Vapnik: suggested way to create nonlinear classifiers by using kernels
- Further important contributions to kernel methods and applications to SVMs by Schölkopf and Smola



- Usual situation: data set **Z** consisting of labeled samples  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1,\dots,l}$ , where  $\mathbf{x}_i \in X = \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \{-1,1\}$
- Recall: Hesse normal form: closest "distance" (including sign) of a point  $\mathbf{x}$  to the separating hyperplane (given by  $\mathbf{w}$  and b) is  $\frac{\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$ .
- Assume that positive and negative samples are linearly separable, i.e. there exist  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that:  $\operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i b) = y_i$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, l$
- Criterion for linear separability: Two sets of points are linearly separable ⇔ their convex hulls are disjoint.
- The hyperplane separating positive and negative samples is given as  $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} b = 0$ .



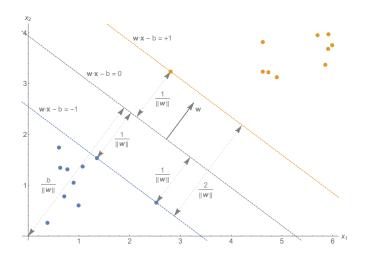
Additionally: assume that this hyperplane fulfills

$$\min_{i=1,\ldots,l} |\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b| = 1,$$

and say that it is in canonical form (with respect to **Z**). Can always be achieved by reparametrization (change of length of **w**).

- Hence, if  $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} b$  is in canonical form: distance of separating hyperplane to closest data point(s) is  $\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$ .
- Main rationale: the farther a separating hyperplane is away from the data, the less likely it is to produce a misclassification.
- Objective: We look for separating hyperplane whose minimal distance to all training samples is maximal. Equivalent: maximize  $\frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \to \text{margin}$  maximization
- This intuition can be made precise using tools from statistical learning theory, however, we won't pursue this further here.







We want to prevent data from falling into margins. For every sample  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$ , we require:

if 
$$y_i = +1$$
:  $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b \ge 1$   
if  $y_i = -1$ :  $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b < -1$ 

Compact notation:

$$y_i (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) - 1 \ge 0$$



# **SVMs for linear separability: The formal setup: Part 5: Abstract problem formulation**

Original Problem: For given linearly separable data set  $\mathbf{Z}$ ,  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\label{eq:maximize} \begin{array}{ll} \text{Maximize} & \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \\ \text{subject to} & y_i(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i-b)-1\geq 0 & \text{for } i=1,\dots,l. \end{array}$$

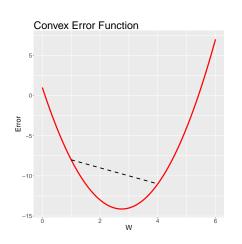
Equivalent: Primal Problem:

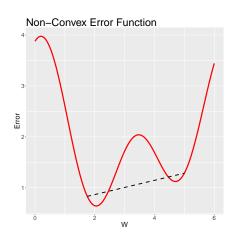
$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Minimize} && \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^d w_i^2\\ &\text{subject to} && -(y_i(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i-b)-1)\leq 0 && \text{for } i=1,\dots,l. \end{aligned}$$

■ → Convex quadratic optimization problem with linear constraints. Next: recall basic mathematical tools.

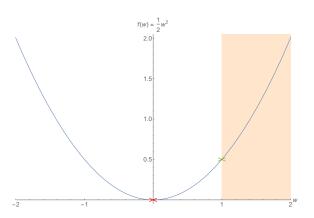


## Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 1





## Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 2



- Red: Global minimum
- Green: Constrained minimum under constraint w > 1

### \*

## **Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 3**

- Assumptions: we have functions f and  $h_i$  (i = 1, ..., l) from  $\mathbb{R}^d$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  with following requirements:
  - 1. Convex
  - 2. Twice continuously differentiable
  - 3. Slater condition: there exists  $\mathbf{w}'$  with  $h_i(\mathbf{w}') < 0$  for all i = 1, ..., l.
- Primal Problem:

Minimize 
$$f(\mathbf{w})$$
  
subject to  $h_i(\mathbf{w}) \leq 0$  for  $i = 1, ..., l$ .

- For simplicity: we don't deal with equality constraints here
- Next slide: strategy how to solve this problem



# **Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 4**

Lagrange function:

$$L(\mathbf{w}; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l) = f(\mathbf{w}) + \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i h_i(\mathbf{w})$$

 $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_l$ : Lagrange multipliers.

■ Dual Problem:

$$\label{eq:maximize} \begin{array}{ll} \text{Maximize} & \mathcal{L}(\alpha_1,\dots,\alpha_l) = \inf_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w};\alpha_1,\dots,\alpha_l) \text{ wrt. } \alpha_1,\cdots,\alpha_l \\ \\ \text{subject to} & \alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \text{for } i=1,\dots,l. \end{array}$$

- Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT): w\* solves primal problem 

  there exist non-negative Lagrange multipliers with:
  - 1.  $\mathcal{L}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l)=L(\mathbf{w}^*;\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l)$
  - 2.  $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_l$  solve dual problem, i.e. they maximize  $\mathcal{L}$ .
  - 3.  $\alpha_i h_i(\mathbf{w}^*) = 0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, l$ .
- For details and proofs (slightly different notation): have a look at section 6.3. of the following classic (and references therein)



# **Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 5**

Illustrative example (toy problem):

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Minimize} & f(w_1,w_2) = (w_1-2)^2 + w_2^2 \\ \text{subject to} & h_1(w_1,w_2) = -w_1 \leq 0 \\ & \text{and} & h_2(w_1,w_2) = w_1 - w_2 \leq 0. \end{array}$$

Lagrange function:

$$L(w_1, w_2, \alpha_1, \alpha_2) = (w_1 - 2)^2 + w_2^2 - \alpha_1 w_1 + \alpha_2 (w_1 - w_2)$$

■ To find  $\inf_{(w_1,w_2)} L(w_1,w_2,\alpha_1,\alpha_2)$  for given  $(\alpha_1,\alpha_2)$ , consider:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1}(w_1, w_2, \alpha_1, \alpha_2) = 2 w_1 - 4 - \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2}(w_1, w_2, \alpha_1, \alpha_2) = 2 w_2 - \alpha_2$$



## Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 6

- Setting the two derivatives to 0, we obtain  $w_1^*=2+\frac{\alpha_1-\alpha_2}{2}$  and  $w_2^*=\frac{\alpha_2}{2}$ . (This must be a minimum as L is convex and no maximum exists.)
- Furthermore:

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) = L(w_1^*, w_2^*, \alpha_1, \alpha_2)$$
  
=  $-\frac{1}{4}(\alpha_1^2 + 8\alpha_1 - 2\alpha_1\alpha_2 - 8\alpha_2 + 2\alpha_2^2)$ 

- Dual problem: maximize  $\mathcal{L}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$  subject to  $\alpha_1 \geq 0$  and  $\alpha_2 \geq 0$ . Yields  $\alpha_1 = 0$  and  $\alpha_2 = 2$  and thus  $w_1^* = 1$  and  $w_2^* = 1$ . Can be deduced by KKT-conditions.
- In many practical situations: algorithms for solving dual problem exist, especially for SVMs (as we will see later). Here: argument for toy example using KKT conditions.

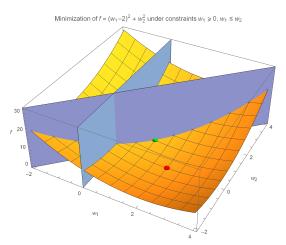
### \*

## **Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 7**

- By the first KKT condition:  $\alpha_1 h_1(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 0$ .
- Assume  $h_1(w_1^*, w_2^*) < 0$ . Then  $\alpha_1 = 0$ . Now look at the second KKT-condition  $\alpha_2 h_2(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 0$ .
  - □ If  $\alpha_2 = 0$ :  $h_2(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 2 > 0$  which contradicts constraint on  $h_2$   $\rightarrow$  can be ruled out.
  - □ If  $h_2(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 0$  we can deduce  $w_1^* = w_2^*$  and thus  $\alpha_2 = 2$ . (recall:  $\alpha_1 = 0$ ). All the constraints are satisfied, thus we are done, since we have unique solution because of convexity. For sake of completeness, we will also provide arguments ruling out other possibilities:
- **Assume**  $h_1(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 0$ . Then  $\alpha_2 = 4 + \alpha_1$ .
  - $\square$  If  $\alpha_2=0$  then  $\alpha_1=-4\to \mathrm{can}$  be ruled out as  $\alpha_i\geq 0$ .
  - □ If  $\alpha_2 \neq 0$  then  $h_2(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 0$ , which implies  $\alpha_2 = \frac{\alpha_1}{2} + 2$ , i.e.  $4 + \alpha_1 = \frac{\alpha_1}{2} + 2$ , i.e.  $\alpha_1 = -4 \rightarrow$  can be ruled out again.
- Solution:  $\alpha_1 = 0, \alpha_2 = 2$ , yielding:  $w_1^* = 1, w_2^* = 1$  and  $f(w_1^*, w_2^*) = 2$ .



## **Interlude: constrained convex optimization: Part 8**



- Red: global minimum (not obeying the constraints)
- Green: solution for minimization under constraints



Associated Lagrange function is given as

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i (y_i (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) - 1)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \mathbf{w} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i + b \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i$$

Solving the dual problem enforces the conditions

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w}, b; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l) = 0$$
  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial b}(\mathbf{w}, b; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l) = 0,$ 

This implies:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \qquad \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

Furthermore:

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l) = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{j=1}^l \alpha_i \, \alpha_j \, y_i \, y_j \, \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j.$$

Final step: maximize  $\mathcal L$  with respect to  $\alpha_i$  subject to  $\alpha_i \geq 0$  (for all  $i=1,\ldots,l$ ) and  $\sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i \, y_i = 0$ .

#### \*

#### **Back to linear SVMs: Part 2**

Introduce

$$\mathbf{0} = \overbrace{(0, \dots, 0)^T}, \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l)^T, \\ \mathbf{1} = \underbrace{(1, \dots, 1)^T}, \qquad \qquad \mathbf{Q} = \left(y_i \, y_j \, \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j\right)_{i=1, \dots, l}^{j=1, \dots, l},$$

The dual problem can be written as follows:

- Easy observation: Q is positive semi-definite.
- → convex quadratic optimization problem with linear constraints: only global minima: uniqueness if positive definite.



Once we solved the dual problem  $\rightarrow$  obtain  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l$  which also solve primal problem. By the KKT-conditions:

$$\alpha_i(y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) - 1) = 0$$
 for  $i = 1, \dots, l$ .

- Thus, for i = 1, ..., l:
  - $\Box$  either  $\alpha_i = 0$
  - $\square$  or  $y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i b) 1 = 0$
  - or both.
- Samples  $\mathbf{x}_i$  for which  $\alpha_i > 0$  holds (i.e.

 $y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) - 1 = 0$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b = \pm 1$ ) lie on the margin border and are called support vectors (encircled in red in next-but-one slide).

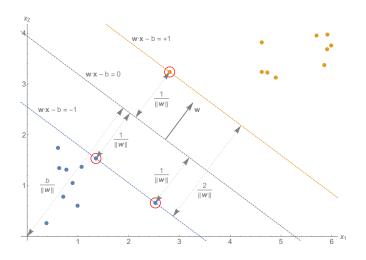


For arbitrary support vector  $\mathbf{x}_j$  (with  $\alpha_j > 0$ ), the KKT condition implies  $y_j(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j - b) = 1$ , and thus

$$b = -y_j + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j = -y_j + \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j$$

- Recommended: don't base the computation of b on only one support vector (for reasons of numerical precision), but compute a b value for each support vector and use their average.
- Under specific conditions: it may be useful to adjust b according to some other quality measure after training.







Given Lagrange multipliers  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_l$  solving the primal problem, we can construct the (average) solution for b and the solution for  $\mathbf{w}$ :

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

ightharpoonup Final classification function (for new input  $\mathbf{x}$ ), i.e. the linear Support Vector Machine (SVM), is given as

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} - b) = \operatorname{sign}\Big(\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i \, y_i \, \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} - b}_{\text{discriminant function } \overline{g}(\mathbf{x})}\Big).$$

#### $\star\star$

## C-SVMs: Non-linear separability: Part 1

If positive and negative samples are not linearly separable, the constraints

$$y_i (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) \ge 1 \quad (i = 1, \dots, l)$$

cannot be all fulfilled simultaneously.

Introduce non-negative slack variables  $\xi_i \geq 0$ :

$$y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) \ge 1 - \xi_i \quad (i = 1, \dots, l)$$

- Require slack variables to be as small as possible. Are scaled by factor  ${\cal C}>0$ .
- The adapted primal problem (called C-SVM) is given as:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Minimize} & & \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^t \xi_i \\ & \text{subject to} & & -(y_i \left(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b\right) - 1 + \xi_i) \leq 0 \\ & & \text{and} & & -\xi_i \leq 0 \end{aligned}$$

### C-SVMs: Non-linear separability: Part 2

- Using the same techniques as for linear case (i.e. formulate dual problem and apply KKT-Theorem), the problem can be cast into the framework of convex quadratic optimization again.
- Classification function g also has similar structure, however, KKT-conditions are a bit more involved
- Overview of calculations: next slides.
- As meaning of C is not very intuitive: different variant called  $\nu$ -SVM also exists (see later slides). KKT Theorem applies again.
- Connection to hinge loss:  $L_h(y_i, \bar{g}(\mathbf{x}_i)) = \max(0, 1 y_i \bar{g}(\mathbf{x}_i))$ . In case of SVMs:
  - $\Box$   $L_h$  is zero  $\Leftrightarrow$  data point lies on correct side of margin.
  - ☐ If not: loss value is proportional to distance from margin.

#### C-SVMs: Mathematical details: Part 1



Again introduce  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_l$  and  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_l$ . Then:

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_l; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^l \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i (y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) - 1 + \xi_i) - \sum_{i=1}^l \lambda_i \xi_i$$

- For dual problem: minimize L for  $\mathbf{w}$ , b and  $\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_l$ .
- This enforces:

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w},b,\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_l;\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l,\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_l) = 0,\\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial b}(\mathbf{w},b,\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_l;\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l,\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_l) = 0,\\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \xi_j}(\mathbf{w},b,\xi_1,\ldots,\xi_l;\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l,\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_l) = 0, \end{array} \ \, \text{for all } j = 1,\ldots,l \end{array}$$

■ Which implies (the first two conditions are the same as for linear SVMs):

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{w} &= \sum\limits_{i=1}^{l} lpha_i \, y_i \, \mathbf{x}_i, \ &\sum\limits_{i=1}^{l} lpha_i \, y_i = 0, \ &C - lpha_j - \lambda_j = 0 \ ext{ for all } j = 1, \dots, l \end{aligned}$$

### C-SVMs: Mathematical details: Part 2



- Equalities  $C \alpha_j \lambda_j = 0$  imply  $\lambda_j = C \alpha_j$ .
- Constraints  $\lambda_j \geq 0$  imply that we must ensure  $C \alpha_j \geq 0$ , hence  $\alpha_j \leq C$  for all  $j = 1, \dots, l$ .
- Finally, we obtain the same objective function

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_l) = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{j=1}^l \alpha_i \, \alpha_j \, y_i \, y_j \, \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j.$$

- Solution: maximize  $\mathcal L$  with respect to  $\alpha_i$  subject to  $\alpha_i \geq 0$  (for all  $i=1,\ldots,l$ ),  $\sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i = 0$ , and additional constraints  $\alpha_i \leq C$  (for all  $i=1,\ldots,l$ ).
- Dual problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Minimize} & & \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \mathbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\alpha} - \mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha} \\ & \text{wrt.} & & \boldsymbol{\alpha} \\ & \text{subject to} & & \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \mathbf{y} = 0 \text{ and } \mathbf{0} \leq \boldsymbol{\alpha} \leq C \mathbf{1}. \end{aligned}$$

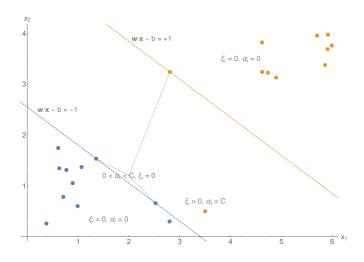
### C-SVMs: Mathematical details: Part 3



- $g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} b) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} b\right).$
- $\blacksquare$  Computation of b, however, requires a bit more caution.
- In non-separable case, the KKT-conditions tell us that  $\alpha_i \big( y_i (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i b) 1 + \xi_i \big) = 0$  holds for all  $i = 1, \dots, l$ . If we choose an i such that  $\alpha_i > 0$ , we would need  $\xi_i$  to determine b.
- However, note that KKT conditions also imply (for the other set of constraints  $\xi_i \geq 0$ ) that  $\lambda_i \xi_i = (C \alpha_i) \xi_i = 0$  holds for all i = 1, ..., l.
- If we find j with  $0 < \alpha_j < C$ , we can infer  $\xi_j = 0$  and thus  $y_j(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j b) 1 = 0$ , i.e. can use same method as before.
- Every  $\alpha_j > 0$  corresponds to a support vector  $\mathbf{x}_j$ .
- More sophisticated versions like  $\nu$ -SVM also exist. (C ranges from 0 to  $\infty$ , while parameter  $\nu$  is between 0 and 1).  $\nu$  is an upper bound on the fraction of margin errors and a lower bound of the fraction of support vectors relative to the total number of training samples. E.g.,  $\nu=0.05$ : guaranteed to find at most 5% of training samples being misclassified and at least 5% of training samples being support vectors.

### **C-SVMs: Illustration**

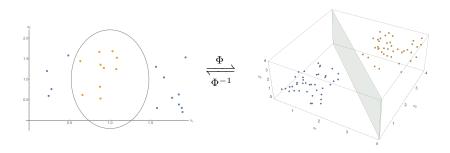




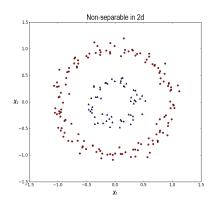
### **Nonlinear SVM: Part 1**

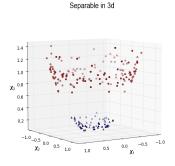


- Linear separability is very restrictive.
- The higher the dimensionality, however, the easier linear separability can be achieved.









- Left:  $(x_1, x_2)$ , data not linearly separable
- Right:  $(x_1, x_2, x_3 = x_1^2 + x_2^2)$ , data linearly separable



- Basic idea of nonlinear SVMs: transform data into a higher-dimensional space such that problem hopefully becomes linearly separable there.
- More formal: choose a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and a (nonlinear) mapping  $\Phi: X \to \mathcal{H}$ .
- Then try to apply linear method (presented in earlier slides) in the space H.
- Problem: how to specify  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\Phi$ ?



- Recall: In solving the dual problem and computing the final classification function: need only scalar products of pairs of samples. Therefore: not necessary to explicitly know  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\Phi$ .
- Only need  $\langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$  for all  $\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j$  (i, j = 1, ..., l).
- Required for computing the classification of a new sample  $\mathbf{x}$ :  $\langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, l$ .
- Suppose we are given a mapping  $k: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  (the kernel) for which we know that there exists Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and mapping  $\Phi: X \to \mathcal{H}$  such that  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in X$ .



- This is the case  $\Leftrightarrow$  (Aronszajn) k is positive semi-definite and symmetric, i.e.
  - 1.  $\sum_{i,j} c_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) c_j \geq 0$
  - 2.  $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i)$

for 
$$i, j = 1, ..., l, c_i, c_j \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \in X$$
.

- Equivalent formulation: Gram matrix  $\mathbf{K} = (k_{ij})_{i=1,\dots,l}^{j=1\dots,l} = (k(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j))_{i=1,\dots,l}^{j=1\dots,l}$  is positive semi-definite and symmetric.
- In practice: make an a priori choice of k using common sense and, if available, prior knowledge about problem: → "kernel trick".



- Which kernels?  $\to$  Assume  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $k : X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous. The following statements are equivalent:
  - $\square$  k is a kernel
  - □ For  $(Af)(\mathbf{x}) = \int_X k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') f(\mathbf{x}') d\mathbf{x}'$  the inequality  $\langle Af, f \rangle_{L^2(X)} = \int_{X^2} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') f(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}') d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{x}' \ge 0.$

holds for all square-integrable functions  $f \in L^2(X)$ .

- Mercer's Theorem: If in addition the diagonal  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$  is integrable:
  - □ There are sequences  $(\varphi_m)_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$  of continuous eigenfunctions and positive eigenvalues  $(\sigma_m)_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$  of A.
  - $\square$   $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sum_{m \geq 1} \sigma_m \varphi_m(\mathbf{x}) \varphi_m(\mathbf{x}')$  and sum converges uniformly on compact sets of  $X^2$ .
- More details with proofs: e.g. these notes, chapter 3.5.
- Standard kernels (here:  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in X = \mathbb{R}^d$ , ".": Euclidean inner product):
  - 1. Linear:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}'$
  - 2. Polynomial:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}' + \beta)^{\alpha}$
  - 3. Gaussian / RBF:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} ||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}'||^2\right)$
  - 4. Sigmoid:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \tanh(\alpha \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}' + \beta)$



- The sigmoid kernel is not a very popular choice; moreover, it is not positive semi-definite for all choices of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .
- Information on RBF-kernel:
  - Most popular choice
  - 2. Maps into a hyper-sphere of radius 1.
  - Hilbert space corresponding to RBF kernel is infinitely dimensional.
- How to construct kernels in real-world applications?
  - 1. If we can define  $\mathcal{H}$  (most often  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) and  $\Phi$  explicitly  $\to$  done
  - Products, weighted sums, etc applied to positive semi-definite kernels give semi-definite kernels.
  - 3. Suppose that we have a mapping  $\Psi: X \to X'$ , where X' is some feature space, and a positive semi-definite kernel  $k': X'^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $k: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ , defined as  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k'(\Psi(\mathbf{x}), \Psi(\mathbf{x}'))$  is also a positive semi-definite kernel.
- More details (kernels, kernel SVMs, etc): this course.

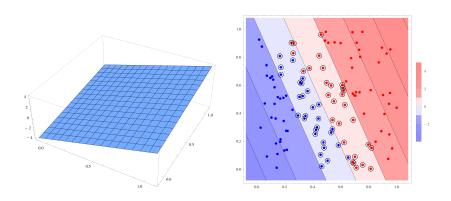


■ The dual problem (C-SVM with kernel) is now given as follows:

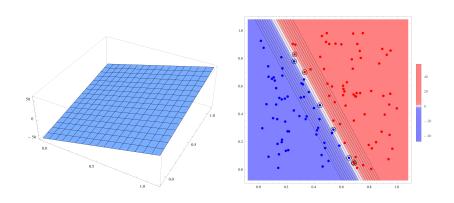
$$\begin{split} & \text{Maximize} \quad \mathcal{L}(\alpha_1,\dots,\alpha_l) = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{j=1}^l \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j). \\ & \text{subject to} \quad 0 \leq \alpha_i \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i y_i = 0 \quad \text{for } i = 1,...,l \end{split}$$

- Can also be formulated as quadratic optimization problem as before, if we use  $\mathbf{Q} = (y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j))_{i=1,\dots,l}^{j=1,\dots,l}$ ,
- $\blacksquare \to$  same tools apply, as  ${\bf Q}$  is positive semi-definite, regardless of the possible non-linearity of kernel
- lacktriangle Classification function g can also be computed in similar way

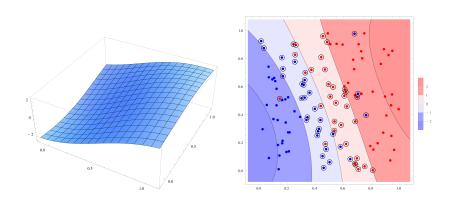
### C-SVM Illustration Part 1: C = 1, Kernel = linear



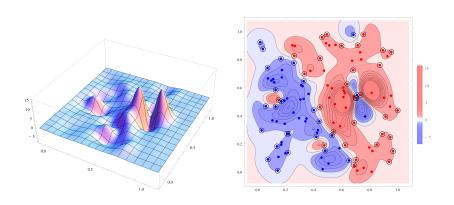
### C-SVM Illustration Part 2: C = 1000, Kernel = linear



# C-SVM Illustration Part 3: C=1, Kernel = RBF, $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}=1$



# C-SVM Illustration Part 4: C=1000, Kernel = RBF, $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}=100$





# **SVM-based approaches to multi-class problems: Part 1**

- SVMs are based on idea of separating two classes → no obvious way to extend them to multi-class problems.
- Divide multi-class problem into several binary classification tasks.
- One of the labels versus all others (one versus rest/all):
  - $\square$  Training set  $\mathbf{Z}_l = (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1,\dots,l}, y_i \in \{1,\dots,M\}.$
  - □ Train M SVM classifiers to separate one class from the remaining M-1 ones, i.e. for  $j=1,\ldots,M$  define:

$$\bar{g}_j(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_{ij} y_i^j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) - b_j,$$

where

$$y_i^j = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } y_i = j, \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

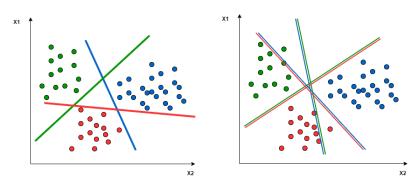
 $\square$  Final classification (largest certainty):  $\operatorname{argmax}_{j=1,\dots,M} \bar{g}_j(\mathbf{x})$ 

#### \* \*

# **SVM-based approaches to multi-class problems: Part 2**

problems: Part 2
■ Pairwise classification (one versus one):
$\ \square$ For $j,k\in\{1,\ldots,M\}$ select samples for which $y_i$ is $j$ or $k$ .
$\hfill \Box$ Assign labels $+1$ to samples from class $j$ and $-1$ to those
from class $k$ .
☐ Train a binary SVM classifier on this problem. In total:
$rac{M(M-1)}{2}$ SVMs are trained.
□ New sample is assigned to class with most 'votes' from
pairwise classifiers
■ Which approach to use?
<ul> <li>As training effort for SVMs grows faster than linear with</li> </ul>
sample number $ o$ training pairwise classifiers usually less
costly (smaller training sets).
<ul> <li>Classification of new samples may be slower, but</li> </ul>
improvements are possible.
□ Procently pairwise classification is most common

## **SVM-based approaches to multi-class problems: Part 3**



- Left: One versus rest.
- Right: Pairwise (one versus one).

Picture source: https://www.baeldung.com/cs/svm-multiclass-classification



### **Support vector regression (SVR): Introduction: Part 1**

- So far: mainly interested in sign of discriminant function of SVM.
- Constraints in optimization problems were designed to maintain equal signs of training labels and discriminant function.
- Magnitude of discriminant function was neglected (except inside the margin).
- $\blacksquare$   $\rightarrow$  SVMs considered so far are useless for regression.
- → Way out: reformulate constraints such that value of discriminant function at certain training input is pushed to the actual label value.



### **Support vector regression (SVR): Introduction: Part 2**

■ The  $\varepsilon$ -insensitive loss function  $L_{\varepsilon}$  is defined as:

$$L_{\varepsilon}(y, g(\mathbf{x})) = \max(0, |y - g(\mathbf{x})| - \varepsilon)$$

- Obviously:  $L_{\varepsilon}(y, g(\mathbf{x})) = 0 \Leftrightarrow |y g(\mathbf{x})| \leq \varepsilon$ .
- lacksquare o arepsilon-insensitive loss defines arepsilon-tube around the regression function g and checks for given sample whether it is inside.  $L_{arepsilon}=0$  iff data point lies inside the tube.
- If not, loss of the sample is defined as the distance to the  $\varepsilon$ -tube.
- $\rightarrow$  basic idea behind SVR: adjust regression function such that data points are within  $\varepsilon$ -tube.

#### Linear ε-SVR: Part 1: Primal problem

Can again be solved via KKT-Theorem in the usual way.

#### **Linear** $\varepsilon$ -SVR: Part 2: Interpretation

- Still try to minimize  $\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$  which is nothing else but the steepness of the regression function.
- This has nothing to do with margin maximization anymore, but can still be understood as a measure of complexity.
- Slack variables  $\xi_i^+$  measure to which extent  $y_i$  is above the  $\varepsilon$ -tube around regression function.
- Values  $\xi_i^-$  measure to which extent  $y_i$  is below this  $\varepsilon$ -tube.
- Sum of slack variables is added to the objective function to ensure simultaneous minimization of slack values.
- The parameter *C* controls trade-off between accuracy (low slack values) and complexity (flat regression function).

#### **Linear** $\varepsilon$ -SVR: Part 3: Interpretation

For  $\varepsilon = 0$ : reformulate optimization problem as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Minimize} & & \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C\sum_{i=1}^l |\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i - b - y_i| \\ & \text{for} & & \mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^d \text{ and } b\in\mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

- Implications:
  - □ For very large C: can interpret  $\varepsilon$ -SVR with  $\varepsilon = 0$  as simple data fitting according to absolute value.
  - $\Box$  For small C: importance of term  $\frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2$  increases.
- $\rightarrow \varepsilon$ -SVR is kind of  $\varepsilon$ -insensitive minimization of training error according to absolute value loss (corresponds to sum of slack values).
- $\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$  is rather a regularization term than primary objective.

#### **Linear** ε-SVR: Part 4: Regression Function

After solving dual problem, final regression function is given as:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} - b = \sum_{i=1}^{l} (\alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-) \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} - b.$$
  $\alpha_i$  denote associated Lagrange parameters

■ To compute b: consider KKT-conditions, i.e. for i = 1, ..., l:

$$\alpha_i^+(\varepsilon + \xi_i^+ - y_i + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b) = 0$$

$$\alpha_i^-(\varepsilon + \xi_i^- + y_i - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b) = 0$$

$$(C - \alpha_i^+) \xi_i^+ = 0$$

$$(C - \alpha_i^-) \xi_i^- = 0$$

- For  $0 < \alpha_j^+ < C \to \xi_j^+ = 0$  and  $b = y_j \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j \varepsilon = y_j \sum_{i=1}^l (\alpha_i^+ \alpha_i^-) \, \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j \varepsilon.$
- Same for  $\alpha_i^-$  such that  $0 < \alpha_i^- < C$ .

#### **Linear** ε-SVR: Part 5: Regression Function

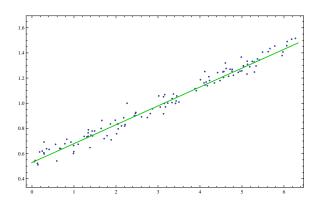
- $0 < \alpha_i^+ < C \rightarrow \xi_i^+ = 0$  and  $y_i \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b = \varepsilon$  hold simultaneously  $\rightarrow (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$  is on upper border of  $\varepsilon$ -tube.
- $0 < \alpha_i^- < C \rightarrow \xi_i^- = 0$  and  $-y_i + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i b = \varepsilon$  hold simultaneously  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$  is on lower border.
- If either  $\alpha_i^+ > 0$  or  $\alpha_i^- > 0 \rightarrow i$ -th sample contributes to regression function: support vector.
- If either  $\alpha_i^+ = C$  or  $\alpha_i^- = C \to (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$  is outside  $\varepsilon$ -tube: "classification error" (and support vector).

#### Linear $\nu$ -SVR: Intuition

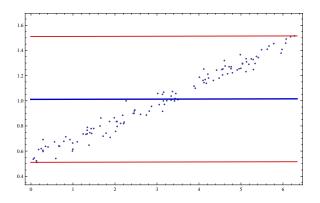


- In general: Accuracy isn't only goal of SVR. Also tries to find least complex (flattest) solution fitting into  $\varepsilon$ -tube.
- For  $\varepsilon$ -SVR: choice of  $\varepsilon$  is crucial for obtaining good results.
- In practice: ε must be chosen according to the noise level, which is often unknown.
- Way out:  $\nu$ -SVR: instead of specifying  $\varepsilon$  a priori, it is optimized simultaneously, where large  $\varepsilon$  is penalized and traded against smoothness and accuracy.
- The importance of  $\varepsilon$  in the objective function is weighted with a factor  $\nu$ .
- The parameter  $\nu$  determines the proportion of support vectors with respect to the total number of samples, i.e. which fraction of samples is on the tube border or outside.
- Will not be discussed further here. For details consider lecture notes.

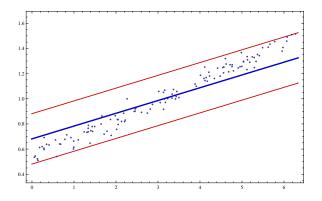
## Linear SVR example: Affine linear function plus noise



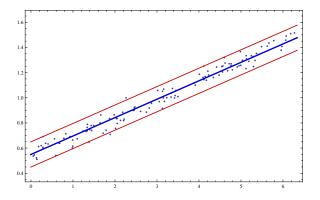
#### Linear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon = 0.5$ , C = 1



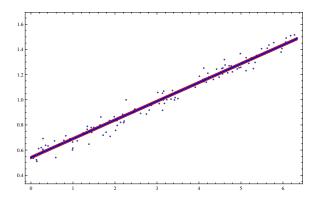
#### Linear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon = 0.2$ , C = 1



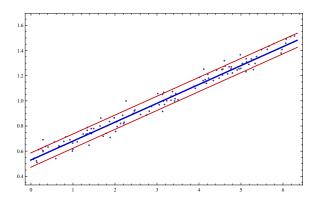
#### Linear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon = 0.1$ , C = 1



#### Linear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon = 0.01$ , C = 1



### Linear SVR example: $\nu$ -SVR, $\nu=0.2$ , C=100 $\rightarrow \varepsilon=0.057$





- It is clear that the usefulness of linear SVR is rather limited.
- Just like for classification: generalization to non-linear setting is done by using non-linear kernel and considering dual problem only.
- Once dual problem has been solved, the final regression function is given as

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{l} (\alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-) k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) - b.$$

 $\alpha_i$  denote again associated Lagrange parameters

- KKT-conditions are similar to linear case, similar conclusions can be drawn as well
- Also a corresponding nonlinear  $\nu$ -SVR variant exists, for details: lecture notes.

 Can interpret SVR as linear combination of basis functions (plus constant term b)

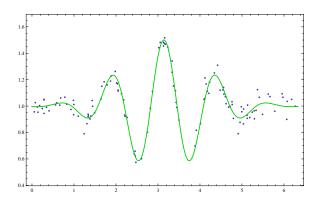
$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \mu_i g_i(\mathbf{x}) - b,$$

where  $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})$  and  $\mu_i = \alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-$ .

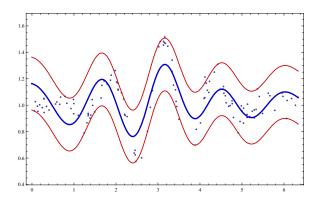
- Traditional nonlinear regression is concerned with optimizing factors  $\mu_i$  such that regression function fits data best.
- SVR instead tries to adjust factors  $\mu_i$  such that data fit into  $\varepsilon$ -tube around regression function.
- lacksquare C controls how large factors  $\mu_i$  may get to achieve this goal.

#### Nonlinear SVR example:

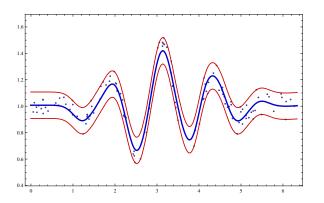
$$f(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\cos(5(x - \pi)) \cdot \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \pi)^2)$$
 plus noise



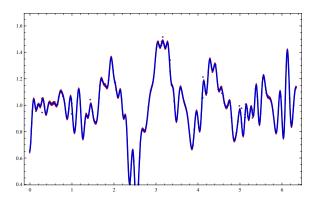
# Nonlinear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon=0.2$ , C=10, kernel=RBF, $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}=1$



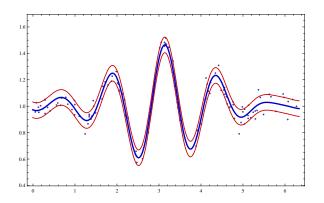
# Nonlinear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon=0.1$ , C=10, kernel=RBF, $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}=10$



# Nonlinear SVR example: $\varepsilon$ -SVR, $\varepsilon=0.01$ , C=100, kernel=RBF, $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}=100$



# Nonlinear SVR example: $\nu$ -SVR, $\nu=0.2$ , C=1000, kernel=RBF, $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}=1 \rightarrow \varepsilon=0.059$



#### What we (unfortunately) didn't discuss

- One-class SVM: unsupervised SVM useful for novelty detection, data filtering, etc.
- P-SVM: scale-invariant SVM that is able to work with dyadic data and "kernel matrices" that are not positive semi-definite; also useful for feature selection.
- How are SVMs implemented? Especially with algorithms used to solve convex quadratic optimization problems, e.g. SMO Algorithm.

### Why not use SVMs for any supervised task? Pros and cons

Pros
<ul> <li>Built on a solid theoretical foundation.</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>Both training and testing are deterministic and fast.</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>Optimization problem has global solution (not true for most</li> </ul>
other ML-algorithms).
$\ \square$ Effective if number of dimensions $d\gg$ number of samples $l.$
Cons
<ul> <li>SVMs are not suitable for large data sets.</li> </ul>
$\hfill\Box$ Not suitable if number of features for each data point $d\ll$
number of training data samples $l$ .
☐ Bad performance if data set has a lot of noise, i.e. if target
classes are overlapping.
<ul> <li>SVM puts data points above and below classifying hyper</li> </ul>

plane  $\rightarrow$  no probabilistic explanation for classification.

#### **Summary**

- Linear SVMs
  - Basics of convex optimization
  - Rigorous derivation for linearly separable data
  - Nonlinear separability: basic concepts and ideas for C-SVMs
- Nonlinear SVMs
  - Kernel trick
  - Discussion of corresponding dual problem
  - How to find the right kernels?
- Multi-class SVMs
- Support vector regression(SVR): linear (with more details)
  - + nonlinear (no details)
- Pros and Cons of SVMs in general

Next: further state of the art methods that are more suitable for large data sets