#### **Applied Machine Learning**

## Support Vector Machines

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#### Motivation

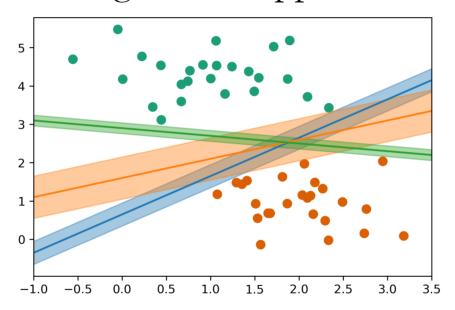
- Go from linear models to more powerful nonlinear ones.
- Keep convexity (ease of optimization).
- Generalize the concept of feature engineering.

#### Reminder on Linear SVM

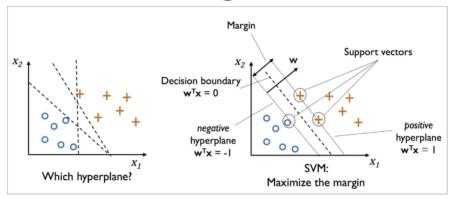
$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} C \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i w^T \mathbf{x}) + ||w||_2^2$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$$

### Max-Margin and Support Vectors



### Maximum Margin Intuition (1)



-The margin is defined as the distance between the separating hyperplane (decision boundary) and the training samples that are closest to this hyperplane, which are the so-called support vectors.

### Maximum Margin Intuition (1)

-To get an idea of the margin maximization, let's take a closer look at those positive and negative hyperplanes that are parallel to the decision boundary, which can be expressed as follows:

- $w_0 + \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{pos} = +1$  (1) and
- $w_0 + \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{neg} = -1$  (2)
- If we subtract (2) from (1) we have:  $\mathbf{w}^{T}(\mathbf{x}_{pos} \mathbf{x}_{neg}) = 2$
- We can normalize this equation by the length of the vector **w**:

$$||\mathbf{w}|| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j^2}$$

So we arrive at the following equation:

$$\frac{\mathbf{w}^T(\mathbf{x}_{pos} - \mathbf{x}_{neg})}{||\mathbf{w}||} = \frac{2}{||\mathbf{w}||}$$

 The left side is the distance between the positive and negative hyperplanes, i.e., margin

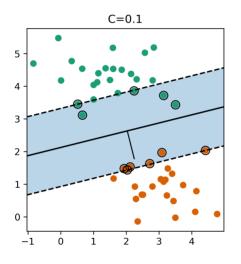
## Max-Margin and Support Vectors

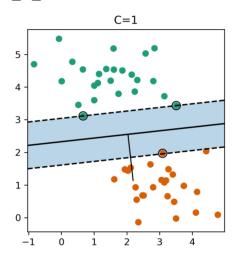
$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} C \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i w^T \mathbf{x}) + ||w||_2^2$$

Within margin  $\Leftrightarrow y_i w^T x < 1$ 

Smaller  $w \Rightarrow$  larger margin

## Max-Margin and Support Vectors





#### Reformulate Linear Models

• Optimization Theory

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

(alpha are dual coefficients. Non-zero for support vectors only)

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{sign}(w^T \mathbf{x}) \Longrightarrow \hat{y} = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i(\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x})\right)$$

$$\alpha_i \le C$$

#### Introducing Kernels

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i}^{n} \alpha_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{x})\right) \longrightarrow \hat{y} = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i}^{n} \alpha_{i}(\phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{T}\phi(\mathbf{x}))\right)$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \longrightarrow k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

k positive definite, symmetric  $\Rightarrow$  there exists a  $\phi$ ! (possilby  $\infty$ -dim)

#### Examples of Kernels

$$k_{\text{linear}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'$$

$$k_{\text{poly}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^d$$

$$k_{\text{rbf}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(\gamma ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2)$$

$$k_{\text{sigmoid}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \tanh(\gamma \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + r)$$

$$k_{\cap}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \min(x_i, x_i')$$

• If k and k' are kernels, so are  $k + k', kk', ck', \dots$ 

### Polynomial Kernel vs Features

$$k_{\text{poly}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^d$$

Primal vs Dual Optimization

Explicit polynomials  $\rightarrow$  compute on n\_samples \* n\_features \*\* d Kernel trick  $\rightarrow$  compute on kernel matrix of shape n\_samples \* n\_samples

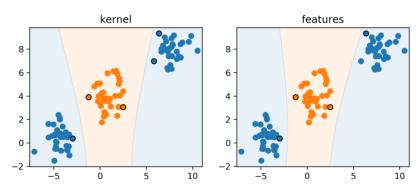
For a single feature:

$$(x^2, \sqrt{2}x, 1)^T (x'^2, \sqrt{2}x', 1) = x^2 x'^2 + 2xx' + 1 = (xx' + 1)^2$$

### Poly kernels with sklearn

```
poly = PolynomialFeatures(include_bias=False)
X_poly = poly.fit_transform(X)
print(X.shape, X_poly.shape)
print(poly.get_feature_names())
```

```
((100, 2), (100, 5))
['x0', 'x1', 'x0^2', 'x0 x1', 'x1^2']
```



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#### Understanding Dual Coefficiants

```
linear_svm.coef_
#array([[0.139, 0.06, -0.201, 0.048, 0.019]])
```

```
y = sign(0.139x_0 + 0.06x_1 - 0.201x_0^2 + 0.048x_0x_1 + 0.019x_1^2)
```

```
linear_svm.dual_coef_
#array([[-0.03, -0.003, 0.003]])
linear_svm.support_
#array([1,26,42,62], dtype=int32)
```

$$y = sign(-0.03\phi(\mathbf{x}_0)^T\phi(x) - 0.003\phi(\mathbf{x}_{26})^T\phi(\mathbf{x}) + 0.003\phi(\mathbf{x}_{42})^T\phi(\mathbf{x}) + 0.03\phi(\mathbf{x}_{63})^T\phi(\mathbf{x}))$$

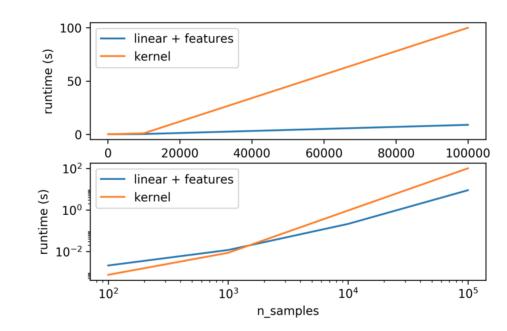
#### With Kernel

$$y = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i}^{n} \alpha_{i} k(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x})\right)$$

```
poly_svm.dual_coef_
# array([[-0.057, -0. , -0.012, 0.008, 0.062]])
poly_svm.support_
# array([1,26,41,42,62], dtype=int32)
```

$$y = \operatorname{sign}(-0.057(\mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x} + 1)^2 - 0.012(\mathbf{x}_{41}^T \mathbf{x} + 1)^2 + 0.008(\mathbf{x}_{42}^T \mathbf{x} + 1)^2 + 0.062 * (\mathbf{x}_{63}, \mathbf{x} + 1)^2$$

#### Runtime Considerations



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#### Kernels in Practice

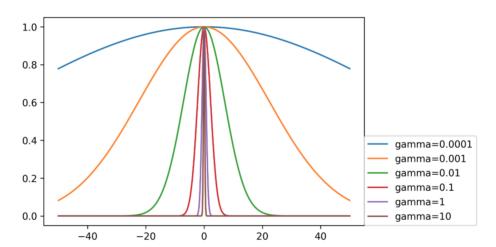
- Dual coefficients less interpretable
- Long runtime for "large" datasets (100k samples)
- Real power in infinite-dimensional spaces: rbf!
- Rbf is "universal kernel" can learn (aka overfit) anything.

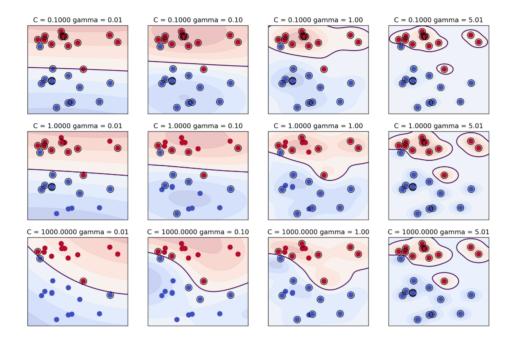
## Preprocessing

- Kernel use inner products or distances.
- StandardScaler or MinMaxScaler ftw
- Gamma parameter in RBF directly relates to scaling of data default only works with zero-mean, unit variance.

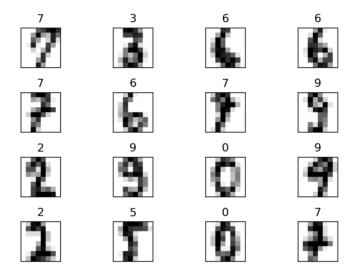
#### Parameters for RBF Kernels

- Regularization parameter C is limit on alphas (for any kernel)
- Gamma is bandwidth:  $k_{\rm rbf}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(\gamma ||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}'||^2)$





## from sklearn.datasets import load\_digits digits = load\_digits()



### Scaling and Default Params

```
gamma : float, optional (default = "auto")
  Kernel coefficient for 'rbf', 'poly' and 'sigmoid'.
  If gamma is 'auto' then 1/n_features will be used

scaled_svc = make_pipeline(StandardScaler(), SVC())
  print(np.mean(cross_val_score(SVC(), X_train, y_train, cv=10)))
  print(np.mean(cross_val_score(scaled_svc, X_train, y_train, cv=10)))

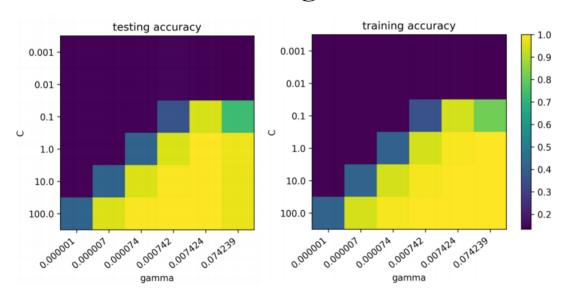
0.578
0.978

gamma = (1. / (X_train.shape[1] * X_train.std()))
  print(np.mean(cross_val_score(SVC(gamma=gamma), X_train, y_train, cv=10)))
```

0.987

#### Grid-Searching Parameters

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# Questions?