Support Vector Machines



Support Vector Machines (SVM)

- SVM were introduced by Vladimir Vapnik (Vapnik, 1995).
- The main objective in SVM is to find the hyperplane which separates the d-dimensional data points perfectly into two classes.
- However, since example data is often not linearly separable, SVM's introduce the notion of a "kernel induced feature space" which casts the data points (input space) into a higher dimensional feature space where the data is separable.
- SVM's higher-dimensional space doesn't need to be dealt with directly which eliminates overfitting.

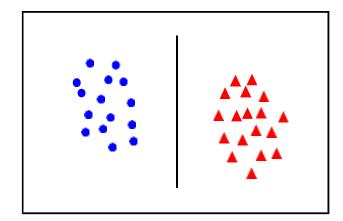
Support Vector Machines - Linear classifier

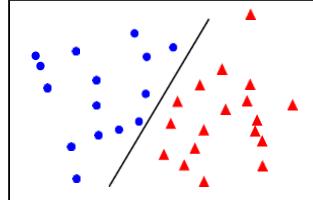
- Classification tasksare based on drawing separating lines to distinguish between objects of different class labels are known as hyperplane classifiers.
- A decision plane is one that separates between a set of objects having different class labels.

- Any new object falling to the right is labeled, i.e., classified, as GREEN (or classified as RED should it fall to the left of the separating line).
- The objects closest to the hyperplane is called support vectors

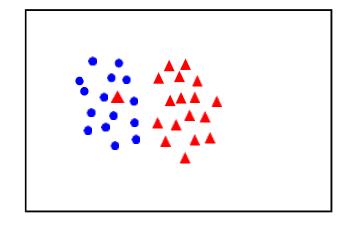
Linear separability

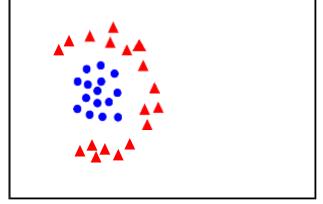
linearly separabl e



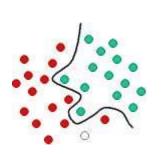


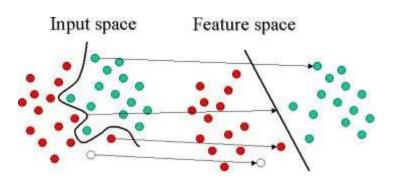
not linearly separabl e





Input Space to Feature Space

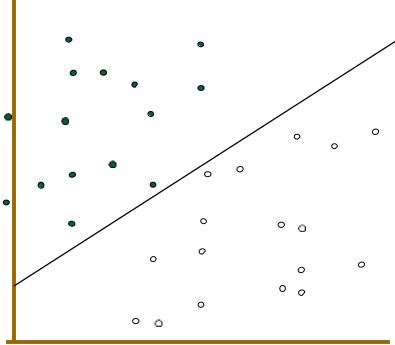




- •The original objects are transformed, using a set of mathematical functions, known as kernels.
- •Instead of constructing the complex curve, we find an optimal line that can separate the objects.

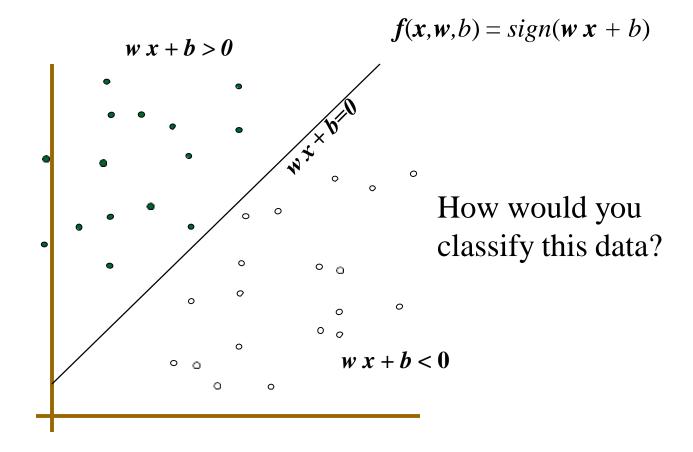
We are given l training examples $\{x_i, y_i\}$; i = 1...l, where each example has d inputs $(x_i \in \mathbf{R}^d)$, and a class label with one of two values $(y_i \in \{-1, 1\}.$

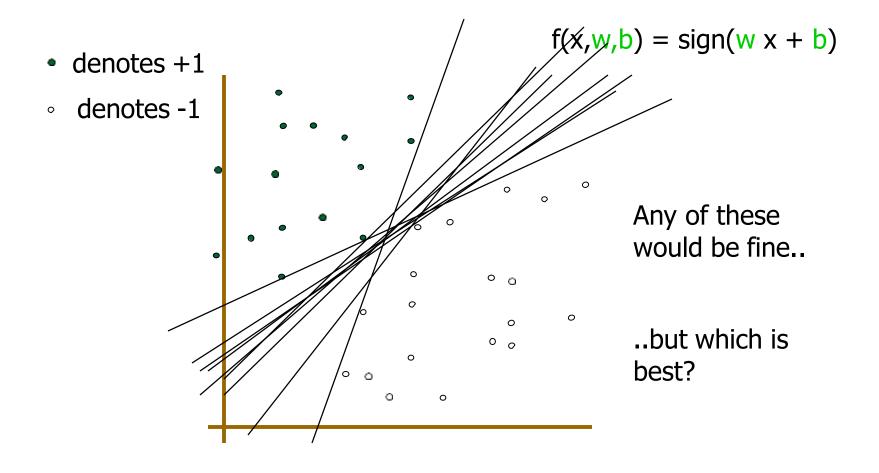
- denotes +1
- denotes -1

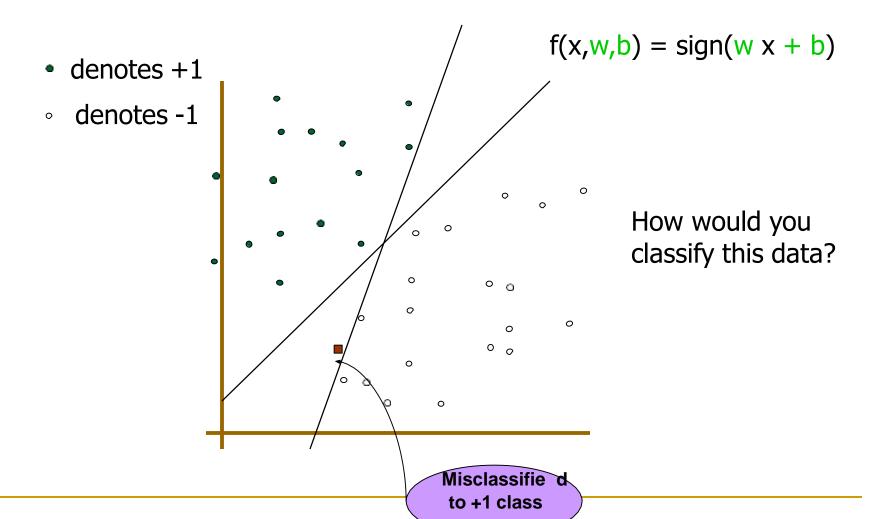


- Given such a hyperplane (w,b) that separates the data, using function f(x) = sign(w. x + b)
- •All hyperplanes in \mathbb{R}^d are parameterized by a vector (w) and a constant (b), expressed using the equation $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} = 0$
- w is the vector orthogonal to the hyperplane

- denotes +1
- denotes -1







The Perceptron Classifier

Given linearly separable data \mathbf{x}_i labelled into two categories $y_i = \{-1,1\}$, find a weight vector \mathbf{w} such that the discriminant function

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^{>} \mathbf{x}_i + b$$

separates the categories for i = 1, .., N

how can we find this separating hyperplane?

The Perceptron Algorithm

Write classifier $f(x_i) = \tilde{w}^> \tilde{x}_i + w_0 = w^> x_i$ as

where
$$w = (\tilde{w}, w_0), x_i = (\tilde{x}_i, 1)$$

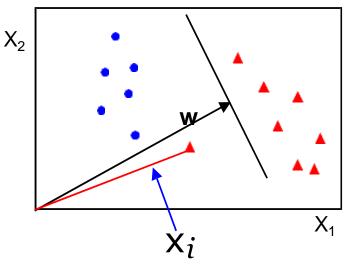
- Initialize $\mathbf{w} = 0$
- Cycle though the data points { x_i, y_i }
 - if x_i is misclassified then

- $w \leftarrow w + \alpha \operatorname{sign}(f(x_i))$ x_i
- Until all the data is correctly classified

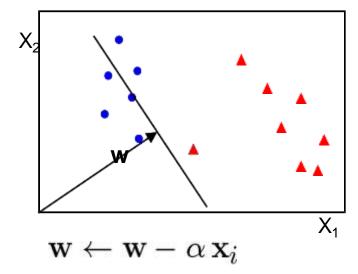
For example in 2D

- Initialize $\mathbf{w} = 0$
- Cycle though the data points { x_i, y_i }
 - if \mathbf{x}_i is misclassified then $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} + \alpha \operatorname{sign}(f(\mathbf{x}_i)) \mathbf{x}_i$
- Until all the data is correctly classified

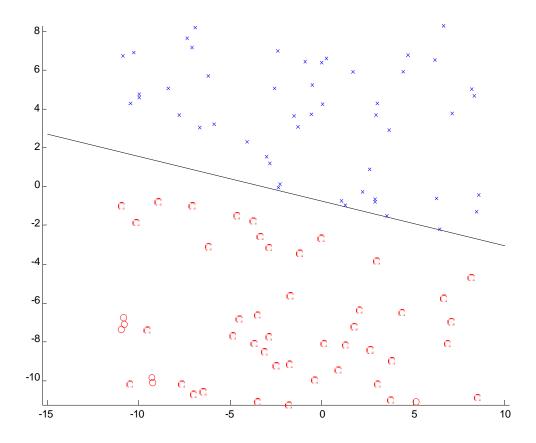
before update update



after

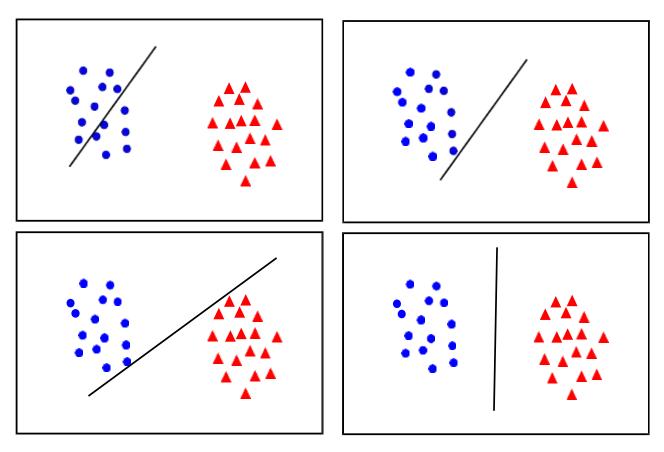


Perceptron example



- if the data is linearly separable, then the algorithm will converge
- convergence can be slow ...
- separating line close to training data
- we would prefer a larger margin for generalization

What is the best w?



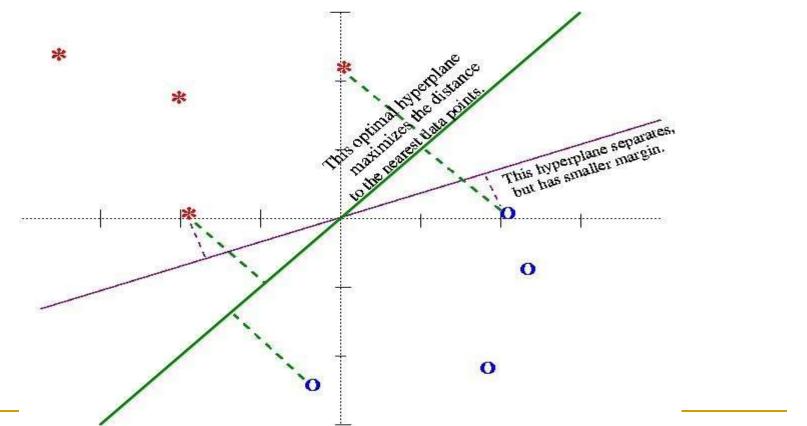
• maximum margin solution: most stable under perturbations of the inputs

Hyperplane Classifier

- A given hyperplane represented by (\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}) is equally expressed by all pairs $\{\lambda \mathbf{w}, \lambda \mathbf{b}\}$ for $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$.
- We define the hyperplane which separates the data from the hyperplane by a "distance" so that at least one example on both sides has a distance of exactly 1.
- That is, we consider those that satisfy:
- **w** $x_i + b \ge 1$ when $y_i = +1$
- $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x_i} + \mathbf{b} \le 1 \text{ when } y_i = -1$

$$y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x_i} + \mathbf{b}) \ge 1 \quad \forall i$$

- To obtain the geometric distance from the hyperplane to a data point, we normalize by the magnitude of **w**.
- We want the hyperplane that maximizes the geometric distance to the closest data points. $d((\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}), \mathbf{x}) = [y_i(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b})] / ||\mathbf{w}|| \ge 1 / ||\mathbf{w}||$

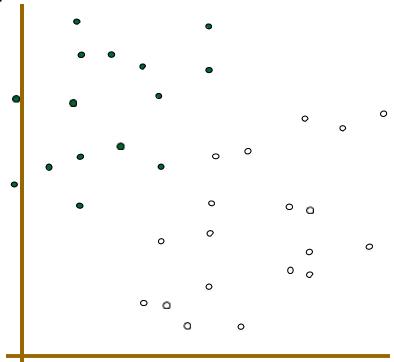


Choosing the hyperplane that maximizes the margin

Classifier Margin

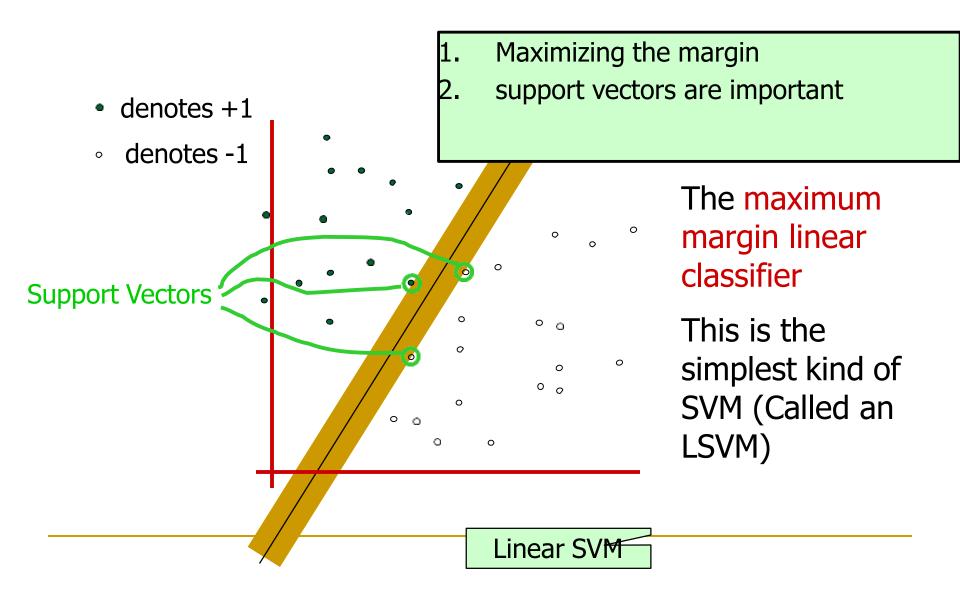
$$f(x, w, b) = sign(w x + b)$$

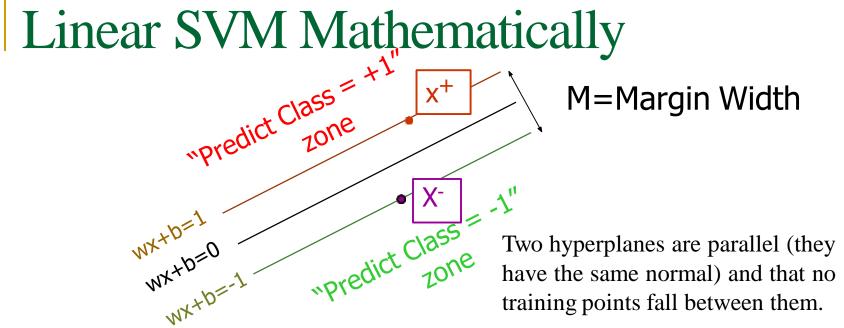
- denotes +1
- denotes -1



Define the margin of a linear classifier as the width that the boundary could be increased by before hitting a datapoint.

Maximum Margin





What we know:

•
$$\mathbf{W} \cdot \mathbf{X}^+ + b = +1$$

w .
$$x^{-} + b = -1$$

•
$$\mathbf{W} \cdot (\mathbf{X}^+ - \mathbf{X}^-) = 2$$

$$M = \frac{(x^+ - x^-) \cdot w}{\|w\|} = \frac{2}{\|w\|}$$

Linear SVM Mathematically

Goal: 1) Correctly classify all training data

$$wx_i + b \ge 1 \quad \text{if } y_i = +1$$

$$wx_i + b \le 1 \quad \text{if } y_i = -1$$

$$y_i(wx_i + b) \ge 1 \quad \text{for all } i$$

- 2) Maximize the Margir $M = \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$ or same as minimize $\frac{1}{2} w^t w$
- We can formulate a constrained optimization Problem and solve for w and b

Minimize
$$\Phi(w) = \frac{1}{2} w^t w$$
subject to
$$\forall i \quad y_i (wx_i + b) \ge 1$$

Lagrange Multipliers

- Consider a problem: $min_x f(x)$ subject to h(x) = 0
- We define the Lagrangian $L(x, \alpha) = f(x) \alpha h(x)$
- α is called "Lagrange multiplier"
- Solve: $\min_{x} \max_{\alpha} L(x, \alpha)$ subject to $\alpha \ge 0$

Original Problem:

Find w and b such that

 $\Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}$ is minimized;

and for all $i \{(\mathbf{x_i}, y_i)\}: y_i(\mathbf{w^Tx_i} + b) \ge 1$

Construct the Lagrangian Function for optimization

$$\mathcal{L}(w,b,a) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i [y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) - 1] \quad \text{S. T. } \alpha_i \ge 0; \ \forall i$$

Our goal is to: $\max_{\alpha \geq 0} \min_{w,b} \mathcal{L}(w,b,a)$ OR $\min_{w,b} \max_{\alpha \geq 0} \mathcal{L}(w,b,a)$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}^{(i)} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} = 0$$

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}^{(i)} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

The derivative with respect to b

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial b} \, \mathcal{L}_{(w,b,\alpha)} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \, y^{(i)} = 0$$

Substituting we get:

$$C(w.b.\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j (x^{(i)})^T x^{(j)} - b \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j (x^{(i)})^T x^{(j)}$$

$$\max_{\alpha} : \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j (x^{(i)}.x^{(j)})$$

Subject to
$$0 \le \alpha_i \le C$$
 for $\forall i = 1 ... m$ and $\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$

 α is the vector of m non-negative Lagrange multipliers to be determined, and C is a constant

Optimal hyperplane :
$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i x_i$$

• The vector w is just a linear combination of the training examples.

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{w},b,\alpha) &= \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}.\mathbf{w} - \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} \left[\left(\mathbf{w}.\mathbf{x}_{i} + b \right) y_{i} - 1 \right] \\ \alpha_{i} \geq \mathbf{0}, \ \forall_{i} \end{array}$$



$$\begin{aligned} y_{\pmb{i}} & (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_{\pmb{i}} + b) = 1 & \textbf{(1)} \\ y_{\pmb{i}} & y_{\pmb{i}} & (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_{\pmb{i}} + b) = y_{\pmb{i}} & \textbf{(2)} \\ & (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_{\pmb{i}} + b) = y_{\pmb{i}} & \textbf{(3)} \end{aligned}$$



$$\mathbf{w} = \sum \alpha_i \, \mathbf{y}_i \, \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$b = y_k - w^T \mathbf{x}_k$$
 for any \mathbf{x}_k such that $\alpha_k \neq 0$

$$w^{T}x + b = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i}y^{(i)}x^{(i)}\right)^{T}x + b$$

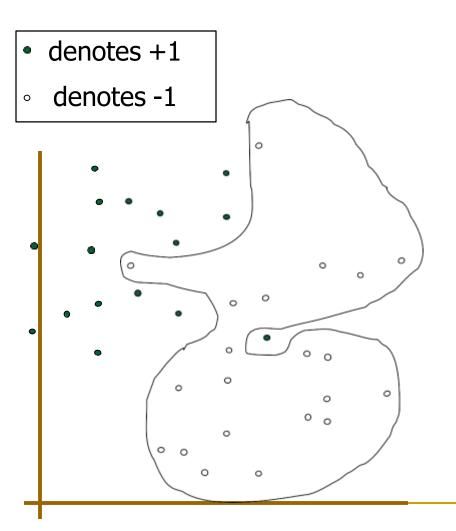
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i}y^{(i)}\langle x^{(i)}, x \rangle + b.$$

- •If we've found the α_i 's, in order to make a prediction, we have to calculate a quantity that depends only on the inner product between x and the points in the training set.
 - Each non-zero α_i indicates that corresponding x_i is a support vector.
 - Then the classifying function will have the form:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x_i}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x} + b$$

 Notice that it relies on an inner product between the test point x and the support vectors x_i.

Dataset with noise

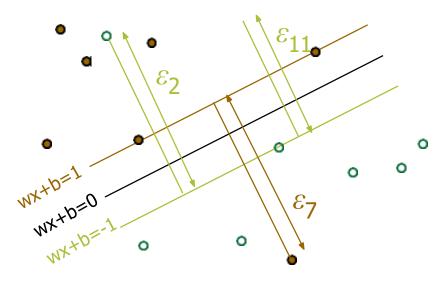


- **Hard Margin:** So far we require all data points be classified correctly.
 - No training error
- What if the training set is noisy?
 - Solution 1: use very powerful kernels

OVERFITTING!

Soft Margin Classification

Slack variables ξi can be added to allow misclassification of difficult or noisy examples.



What should our quadratic optimization criterion be?

Minimize

$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}.\mathbf{w} + \lambda \sum_{k=1}^{R} \varepsilon_k$$

Hard Margin v.s. Soft Margin

The old formulation:

```
Find w and b such that \Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w} is minimized and for all \{(\mathbf{x_i}, y_i)\} y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x_i} + \mathbf{b}) \ge 1
```

The new formulation incorporating slack variables:

```
Find w and b such that  \Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w} + \lambda \sum_{i} \xi_{i}  is minimized and for all \{(\mathbf{x_{i}}, y_{i})\}  y_{i}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b) \ge 1 - \xi_{i}  and \xi_{i} \ge 0 for all i
```

• Parameter λ can be viewed as a way to control overfitting.

Linear SVMs: Overview

- The classifier is a separating hyperplane.
- Most "important" training points are support vectors; they define the hyperplane.
- Quadratic optimization algorithms can identify which training points x_i are support vectors with non-zero Lagrangian multipliers α_i
- Both in the dual formulation of the problem and in the solution training points appear only inside dot products:

Find $\alpha_1...\alpha_N$ such that $Q(\alpha) = \sum \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum \sum \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j$ is maximized and (1) $\sum \alpha_i y_i = 0$ (2) $0 \le \alpha_i \le C$ for all α_i

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x_i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$$

Application: Pedestrian detection in Computer Vision

Objective: detect (localize) standing humans in an image

cf face detection with a sliding window classifier



reduces object detection to binary classification

does an image window contain a person or not?

Method: the HOG detector

Training data and features

Positive data – 1208 positive window examples









 Negative data – 1218 negative window examples (initially)



















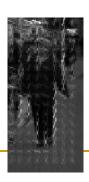






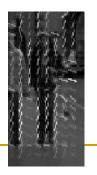










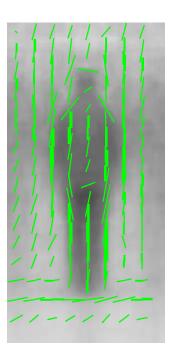


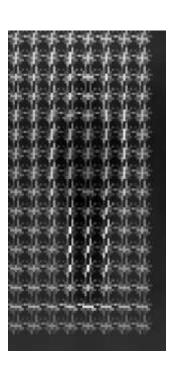




Averaged positive examples







Algorithm

Training (Learning)

Represent each example window by a HOG feature vector



Train a SVM classifier

Testing (Detection)

Sliding window classifier

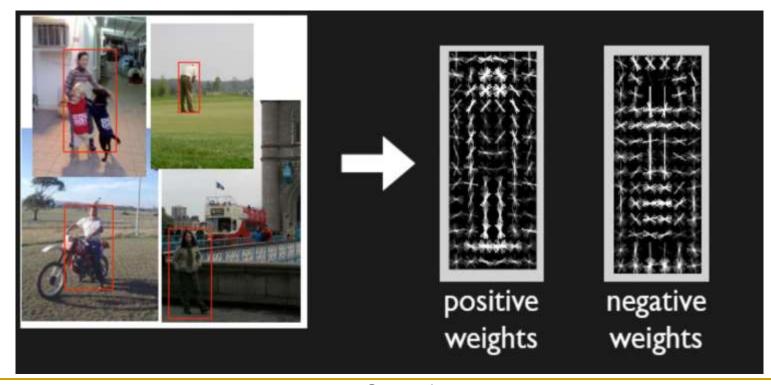
$$f(x) = w^{>}x + b$$



Dalal and Triggs, CVPR 2005

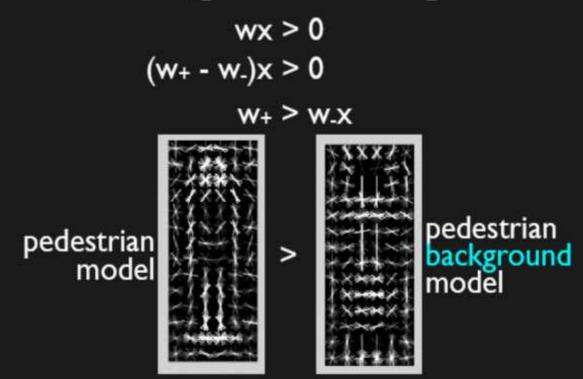
Learned model

$$f(x) = w^> x + b$$



Slide from Deva Ramanan

What do negative weights mean?



Complete system should compete pedestrian/pillar/doorway models

Discriminative models come equipped with own bg

(avoid firing on doorways by penalizing vertical edges)

Slide from Deva Ramanan

Illustration: Linear SVM

- Consider the case of a binary classification starting with a training data of 8 tuples as shown in Table 1.
- Using quadratic programming, we can solve the KKT constraints to obtain the Lagrange multipliers λ_i for each training tuple, which is shown in Table 1.
- Note that only the first two tuples are support vectors in this case.
- Let $W = (w_1, w_2)$ and b denote the parameter to be determined now. We can solve for w_1 and w_2 as follows:

$$w_1 = \sum_i \lambda_i y_i x_{i1} = 65.52 \times 1 \times 0.38 + 65.52 \times -1 \times 0.49 = -6.64$$

$$w_2 = \sum_i \lambda_i y_i x_{i2} = 65.52 \times 1 \times 0.47 + 65.52 \times -1 \times 0.61 = -9.32$$

Illustration: Linear SVM

Table 1: Training Data

X ₁	X ₂	y	λ
0.38	0.47	+	65.52
0.49	0.61	-	65.52
0.92	0.41	_	0
0.74	0.89	-	0
0.18	0.58	+	0
0.41	0.35	+	0
0.93	0.81	-	0
0.21	0.10	+	0

Illustration: Linear SVM

Figure 6: Linear SVM example.

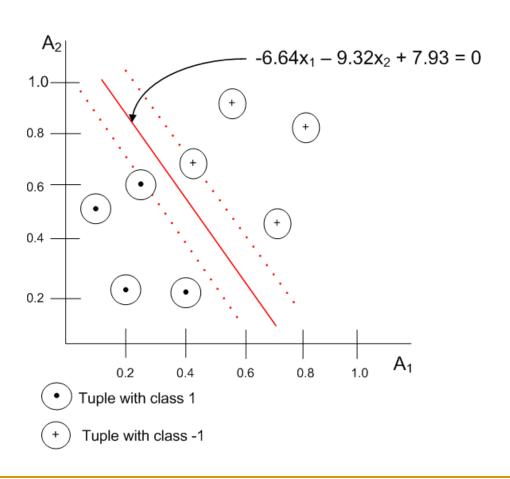


Illustration: Linear SVM

 The parameter b can be calculated for each support vector as follows

```
b_1 = 1 - W.x_1 // for support vector x_1
= 1 - (-6.64) \times 0.38 - (-9.32) \times 0.47 //using dot product
= 7.93
b_2 = 1 - W.x_2 // for support vector x_2
= 1 - (-6.64) \times 0.48 - (-9.32) \times 0.611 //using dot product
= 7.93
```

• Averaging these values of b_1 and b_2 , we get b = 7.93.

Illustration: Linear SVM

- Thus, the MMH is $-6.64x_1 9.32x_2 + 7.93 = 0$ (also see Fig. 6).
- Suppose, test data is X = (0.5, 0.5). Therefore,

$$\delta(X) = W.X + b$$

= $-6.64 \times 0.5 - 9.32 \times 0.5 + 7.93$
= -0.05
= $-ve$

This implies that the test data falls on or below the MMH and SVM classifies that X belongs to class label -.

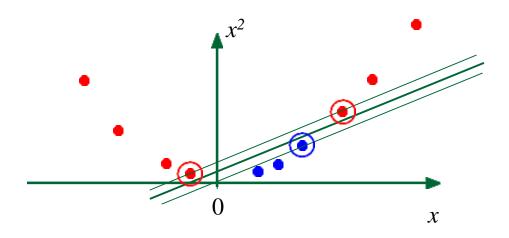
Non-linear SVMs

Datasets that are linearly separable with some noise work out great:

But what are we going to do if the dataset is just too hard?



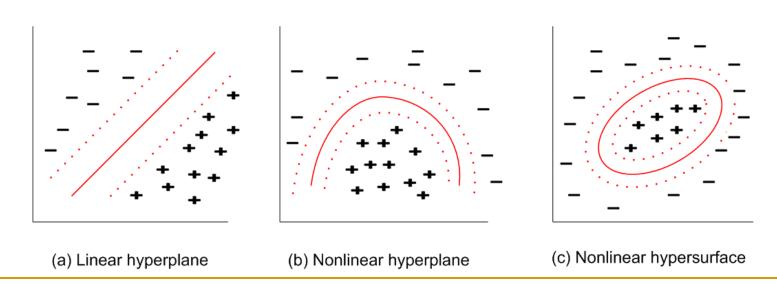
How about... mapping data to a higher-dimensional space:



Non-Linear SVM

- For understanding this, .
- Note that a linear hyperplane is expressed as a linear equation in terms of *n*-dimensional component, whereas a non-linear hypersurface is a non-linear expression.

Figure 13: 2D view of few class separabilities.



Data Analytics Autumn 2018 43 / 131

Non-Linear SVM

A hyperplane is expressed as

linear:
$$w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + c = 0$$
 (30)

Whereas a non-linear hypersurface is expressed as.

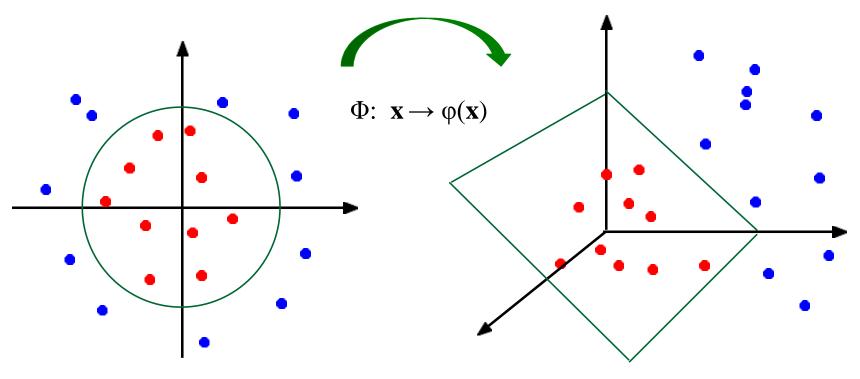
Nonlinear:
$$w_1x_1^2 + w_2x_2^2 + w_3x_1x_2 + w_4x_3^2 + w_5x_1x_3 + c = 0$$
 (31)

- The task therefore takes a turn to find a nonlinear decision boundaries, that is, nonlinear hypersurface in input space comprising with linearly not separable data.
- This task indeed neither hard nor so complex, and fortunately can be accomplished extending the formulation of linear SVM, we have already learned.

Data Analytics Autumn 2018 44 / 131

Non-linear SVMs: Feature spaces

• General idea: the original input space (nonlinear separable data) can always be mapped to some higher-dimensional feature space where the training set is linearly separable:



Mapping the Inputs to other dimensions - the use of Kernels

- Finding the optimal curve to fit the data is difficult.
- •There is a way to "pre-process" the data in such a way that the problem is transformed into one of finding a simple hyperplane.
- •We define a mapping $z = \varphi(x)$ that transforms the d-dimensional input vector x into a (usually higher) d*-dimensional vector z.
- •We hope to choose a $\varphi()$ so that the new training data $\{\varphi(x_i),y_i\}$ is separable by a hyperplane.
- How do we go about choosing $\varphi()$?

Efficient dot-product of polynomials

Polynomials of degree exactly d

$$d=1$$

$$\phi(u).\phi(v) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 = u.v$$

$$d=2$$

$$\phi(u).\phi(v) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1^2 \\ u_1u_2 \\ u_2u_1 \\ u_2^2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1^2 \\ v_1v_2 \\ v_2v_1 \\ v_2^2 \end{pmatrix} = u_1^2v_1^2 + 2u_1v_1u_2v_2 + u_2^2v_2^2$$

$$= (u_1v_1 + u_2v_2)^2$$

$$= (u.v)^2$$

For any d:

$$\phi(u).\phi(v) = (u.v)^d$$

 Taking a dot product and exponentiating gives same results as mapping into high dimensional space and then taking dot produce

The "Kernel Trick"

- The linear classifier relies on dot product between vectors $K(x_i x_j) = x_i^T x_j$
- If every data point is mapped into high-dimensional space via some transformation Φ : $x \rightarrow \phi(x)$, the dot product becomes:

$$K(x_i,x_j) = \varphi(x_i)^T \varphi(x_j)$$

- A kernel function is some function that corresponds to an inner product in some expanded feature space.
- Example:

2-dimensional vectors
$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ x_2]; \ \text{let } K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = (1 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j)^2,$$

Need to show that $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \varphi(\mathbf{x}_j):$
 $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = (1 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j)^2,$
 $= 1 + x_{iI}^2 x_{jI}^2 + 2 x_{iI} x_{jI} x_{i2} x_{j2} + x_{i2}^2 x_{j2}^2 + 2 x_{iI} x_{jI} + 2 x_{i2} x_{j2}$
 $= [1 \ x_{iI}^2 \ \sqrt{2} \ x_{iI} x_{i2} \ x_{i2}^2 \ \sqrt{2} x_{iI} \ \sqrt{2} x_{i2}]^T [1 \ x_{jI}^2 \ \sqrt{2} \ x_{jI} x_{j2} \ x_{j2}^2 \ \sqrt{2} x_{jI} \ \sqrt{2} x_{j2}]$
 $= \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i), \quad \text{where } \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = [1 \ x_I^2 \ \sqrt{2} \ x_I x_2 \ x_2^2 \ \sqrt{2} x_I \ \sqrt{2} x_2]$

Non-linear SVMs Mathematically

Dual problem formulation:

Find $\alpha_1 ... \alpha_N$ such that

 $Q(\alpha) = \sum \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j)$ is maximized and

- $(1) \ \Sigma \alpha_i y_i = 0$
- (2) $\alpha_i \ge 0$ for all α_i

The solution is:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha_i y_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) + b$$

Optimization techniques for finding α_i 's remain the same!

Examples of Kernel Functions

- Linear: $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$
- Polynomial of power p: $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = (1 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j)^p$
- Gaussian (radial-basis function network):

$$K(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{x_j}) = \exp(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x_i} - \mathbf{x_j}\|^2}{2\sigma^2})$$

• Sigmoid: $K(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{x_j}) = \tanh(\beta_0 \mathbf{x_i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x_j} + \beta_1)$

Nonlinear SVM - Overview

- SVM locates a separating hyperplane in the feature space and classify points in that space
- It does not need to represent the space explicitly, simply by defining a kernel function
- The kernel function plays the role of the dot product in the feature space.

Properties of SVM

- Flexibility in choosing a similarity function
- Sparseness of solution when dealing with large data sets
 - -only support vectors are used to specify the separating hyperplane
- Ability to handle large feature spaces
 - -complexity does not depend on the dimensionality of the feature space
- Overfitting can be controlled by soft margin approach
- Nice math property: a simple convex optimization problem which is guaranteed to converge to a single global solution
- Feature Selection

Weakness of SVM

- It is sensitive to noise
 - -A relatively small number of mislabeled examples can dramatically decrease the performance
- It only considers two classes
 - how to do multi-class classification with SVM?
 - Answer:
 - 1) with output arity m, learn m SVM's
 - SVM 1 learns "Output==1" vs "Output != 1"
 - SVM 2 learns "Output==2" vs "Output != 2"

 - SVM m learns "Output==m" vs "Output != m"
 - 2)To predict the output for a new input, just predict with each SVM and find out which one puts the prediction the furthest into the positive region.

Some Issues

Choice of kernel

- Gaussian or polynomial kernel is default
- if ineffective, more elaborate kernels are needed
- -domain experts can give assistance in formulating appropriate similarity measures

Choice of kernel parameters

- e.g. σ in Gaussian kernel
- σ is the distance between closest points with different classifications
- In the absence of reliable criteria, applications rely on the use of a validation set or cross-validation to set such parameters.
- Optimization criterion Hard margin v.s. Soft margin
 - a lengthy series of experiments in which various parameters are tested

Additional Resources

- An excellent tutorial on VC-dimension and Support Vector Machines:
 - C.J.C. Burges. A tutorial on support vector machines for pattern recognition. Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery, 2(2):955-974, 1998.
- The VC/SRM/SVM Bible:

Statistical Learning Theory by Vladimir Vapnik, Wiley-Interscience; 1998

http://www.kernel-machines.org/