

Support Vector Machines and KNN & their Comparison with LDA & QDA

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- ▶ Thereby we move to the more useful support vector classifiers for non-separable datasets and their further modification using kernel functions.
- ▶ Thereafter, we give a brief idea of KNN classifiers.
- ▶ Lastly, we compare these newly introduced classifiers with more other conventional techniques such as LDA, QDA etc.

Training Data and Separating Hyperplane

- ▶ Suppose our training dataset consists of N pairs $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)$, with the covariates or input features $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and each of the observations being classified to either of the two categories $\{-1, 1\}$ i.e. $y_i = \{-1, 1\}$.

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$$L = \{\mathbf{x} : f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 = 0\}. \quad (2.1)$$

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- ▶ Now a classification rule induced by $f(\mathbf{x})$ is :-

$$G(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}[\mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0] \quad (2.2)$$

i.e, a new observation with observed covariate values \mathbf{x} is classified as belonging to category -1 if $\mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 < 0$ and to category 1 otherwise.

Seperation Boundary and Margin

- So this means that we can consider the hyperplane $L = \{\mathbf{x} : f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 = 0\}$ as the seperation boundary for the two classes.

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- ▶ Also, we note that the signed distance of any point \mathbf{x}_0 from L is

$$\frac{1}{\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|} \left(\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}_0 + \beta_0 \right) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\|f'(\mathbf{x}_0)\|} \quad (2.3)$$

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- ▶ If the classes are **linearly separable**, then we can find a function $f(\mathbf{x})$ such that

$$y_i \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_i)}{\|f'(\mathbf{x}_i)\|} > 0 \iff y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i) > 0 \quad (2.4)$$

$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

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$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, N.$

- ▶ But we can find infinitely many such function $f(\mathbf{x})$ which can separate out the two classes.

Many separating hyperplanes can be drawn

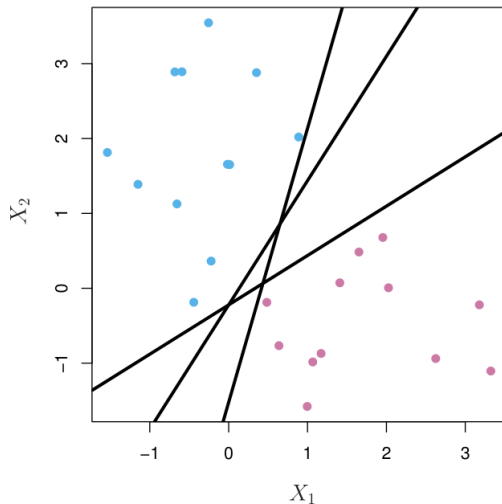


Figure: But infinitely many such hyperplanes can be drawn

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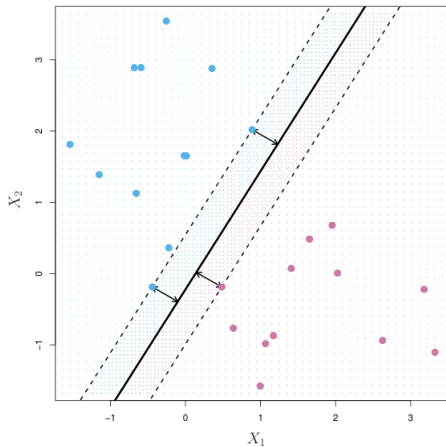


Figure: Here the margin is maximum !

Optimal Separation Boundary

- ▶ Hence, we can find the hyperplane that creates the biggest margin between the training points for class 1 and -1. This can be formulated in the form of the following optimization problem :-

$$\max_{\beta_0, \beta, ||\beta||=1} M \quad (2.5)$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M, i = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.6)$$

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- ▶ We can get rid of the constraint $||\beta|| = 1$ by replacing the conditions with :-

$$\max_{\beta_0, \beta} M \quad (2.7)$$

$$\text{subject to } \frac{1}{||\beta||} y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M, i = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.8)$$

which is equivalent to

$$\max_{\beta_0, \beta} M \quad (2.9)$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M ||\beta||, i = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.10)$$

Optimal Separation Boundary

- Here, we can arbitrarily put $M = \frac{1}{\|\beta\|}$ in the inequality constraints to reformulate the problem as :-

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \|\beta\| \quad (2.11)$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq 1, i = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.12)$$

and it's computationally more convenient to express this in the following manner :-

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 \quad (2.13)$$

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- ▶ This is a convex optimization problem (quadratic criterion with linear inequality constraint). Before we go into the specific details of the optimization procedure, it's good to know about the basics of Lagrange Dual problem, weak & strong duality and lastly the KKT conditions for strong duality.

Lagrangian

- Suppose we have the following optimization problem :-

$$\text{minimize } f_0(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.15)$$

$$\text{subject to } f_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (2.16)$$

$$h_i(\mathbf{x}) = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, p \quad (2.17)$$

with variable $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, domain \mathcal{D} and optimal value p^* .

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with variable $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, domain \mathcal{D} and optimal value p^* .

- Then the lagrangian of this problem is defined as
 $L : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with domain $\mathcal{D} \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p$, such that :-

$$L(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = f_0(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i f_i(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^p \nu_i h_i(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.18)$$

Lagrange dual function

- Now, the lagrange dual function associated with the lagrangian is $g : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined as :-

$$g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = \inf_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{D}} L(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \quad (2.19)$$

$$= \inf_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{D}} \left(f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^p \nu_i h_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \right) \quad (2.20)$$

and it can be shown that g being a pointwise infimum of a affine function is concave and can be $-\infty$ for some $\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}$.

Lagrange dual function

- Now, the most important property of g is that if $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \succeq \mathbf{0}$, then $g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \leq p^*$ since, if $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$ is a feasible solution, then

$$f_0(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}) \geq L(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \geq \inf_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{D}} L(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \quad (2.21)$$

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- and then,

$$\min_{\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathcal{F}} f_0(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \geq g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$$

(\mathcal{F} being the set of all feasible solutions.)

$$\implies p^* \geq g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$$

now, in order to find the best lower bound of p^* , we maximize $g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$ subject to $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \succeq \mathbf{0}$ which is a convex optimization problem.

Weak & Strong Duality

- ▶ If we denote the maximum obtained value of $g(\lambda, \nu)$ by d^* , then trivially, $d^* \leq p^*$ which is called **weak duality** and this always holds. Whereas exact equality ($d^* = p^*$) does not hold in general but usually holds for convex problems.

Weak & Strong Duality

- ▶ If we denote the maximum obtained value of $g(\lambda, \nu)$ by d^* , then trivially, $d^* \leq p^*$ which is called **weak duality** and this always holds. Whereas exact equality ($d^* = p^*$) does not hold in general but usually holds for convex problems.
- ▶ In order to guarantee the **strong duality** (exact equality) we impose something called the KKT (Karush-Kuhn-Tucker) conditions which are :-

1) The functions f_i and h_i are differentiable

2) primal constraints : $f_i(x) \leq 0, \forall i$

$$h_i(x) = 0, \forall i$$

3) dual constraints : $\lambda \succeq 0$

4) complementary slackness : $\lambda_i f_i(x) = 0, \forall i$

5) gradient of Lagrangian with respect to x vanishes:

$$\nabla f_0(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \nabla f_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \nu_i \nabla h_i(x) = 0$$

Back to our buisness!

- ▶ Hence, for the optimal seperating hyperplane, our primal function which is to be minimized is :-

$$L_p(\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i [y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) - 1] \quad (2.22)$$

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$$L_D(\alpha) = \inf_{\beta_0, \beta} L_p(\beta_0, \beta, \alpha) \quad (2.23)$$

$$= L_p(\beta_0^*, \beta^*, \alpha) \quad (2.24)$$

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- ▶ Putting this we get :-

$$L_D(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j \quad (2.25)$$

Back to our buisness!

- ▶ now, we maximize this dual function w.r.t α under the KKT conditions which includes

$$\text{primal constraints : } y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) - 1 \geq 0$$

$$\text{dual constraints : } \alpha_i \geq 0$$

$$\text{complementary slackness : } \alpha_i [y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) - 1] = 0$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

$$\text{zero gradient wrt } (\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\ \boldsymbol{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \end{cases}$$

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- ▶ These conditions are needed in order to ensure strong duality of the optimization problem.
- ▶ This is a comparatively simpler convex optimization problem for which standard software can be used.

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- ▶ And since, the solution vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ equals to $\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$ under the KKT conditions, we see that it's determined by only the points \mathbf{x}_i , $i \in \mathcal{S}$ where \mathcal{S} denotes the set of points which lie on the boundary of the slab. (Hence here, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \hat{\alpha}_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$)

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- ▶ The points in \mathcal{S} are called support vectors as they determine the nature of the optimal separating hyperplane.
- ▶ Thus, we obtain the optimal separating hyperplane which produces a function $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^T \mathbf{x}$ for classifying a new observation \mathbf{x} as :-

$$G(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign } \hat{f}(\mathbf{x})$$

What if the classes are not linearly separable ?!

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- ▶ One way to deal with overlap is to still maximize M but allow for some points to be on the wrong side of the margin.
- ▶ Hence, we define slack variables $\xi = (\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_N)$ corresponding to each of the observations.

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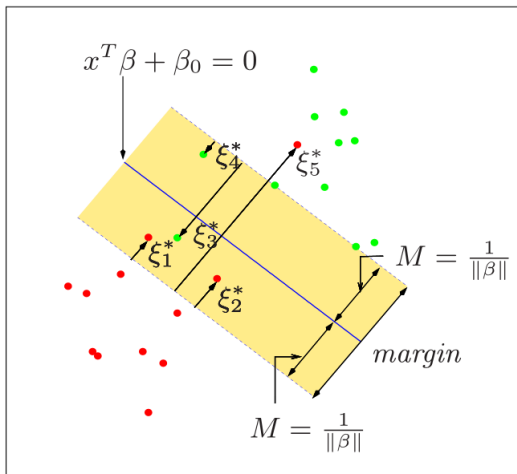


Figure: here the points are not linearly separable

What if the classes are not linearly seperable ?!

- ▶ Then we can modify the optimization problem in two possible ways firstly :-

$$\max_{\beta_0, \beta, ||\beta||=1} M \quad (3.1)$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M - \xi_i, i = 1, \dots, N \quad (3.2)$$

$$\text{also } \xi_i \geq 0 \ \forall i \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i \leq C \quad (3.3)$$

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- Or we can write it as :-

$$\max_{\beta_0, \beta, ||\beta||=1} M \quad (3.4)$$

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- Or we can write it as :-

$$\max_{\beta_0, \beta, ||\beta||=1} M \quad (3.4)$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M (1 - \xi_i), i = 1, \dots, N \quad (3.5)$$

$$\text{also } \xi_i \geq 0 \forall i \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i \leq C \quad (3.6)$$

- We generally work with the second choice as the first one results in a nonconvex optimization problem whereas the second one is convex.

Reforming our optimization problem

- As done before we can drop the norm constraint $\|\beta\| = 1$, define $M = \frac{1}{\|\beta\|}$ and rewrite the optimization problem as :-

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \|\beta\| \quad (3.7)$$

$$\text{subject to } \begin{cases} y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i, & i = 1, \dots, N \\ \xi_i \geq 0, & \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i \leq K \end{cases} \quad (3.8)$$

we note that whenever $\xi_i > 1$ for some i , the corresponding observation is misclassified. Hence, bounding $\sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i$ at value K means bounding total number of misclassification at K .

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- ▶ We similarly, re-express the above problem in the more convenient & equivalent form :-

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i \quad (3.9)$$

$$\text{subject to } \xi_i \geq 0, y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \forall i \quad (3.10)$$

where the constant C is called the “cost” of misclassification and separable case corresponds to $C = \infty$.

Lagrange Primal Function

- For this formulation, we can write the Lagrange primal function as :-

$$L_P(\beta_0, \beta, \xi, \alpha, \mu) = \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i [y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta + \beta_0) - (1 - \xi_i)] - \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i \xi_i$$

which is minimized w.r.t β_0, β, ξ . By setting the respective derivatives equal to zero, we get :-

$$\beta = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \quad (3.11)$$

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i \quad (3.12)$$

$$C - \mu_i = \alpha_i \quad \forall i \quad (3.13)$$

Dual Problem

- ▶ Putting the constraints we get the corresponding dual objective function :-

$$L_D(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j \quad (3.14)$$

which is to be maximized under the KKT conditions :-

$$\text{primal constraints : } \begin{cases} y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) - (1 - \xi_i) \geq 0 \\ \xi_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i = 1(1)N. \end{cases} \quad (3.15)$$

$$\text{dual constraints : } \alpha_i, \mu_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i = 1(1)N. \quad (3.16)$$

$$\text{complementary slackness : } \begin{cases} \alpha_i [y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) - (1 - \xi_i)] = 0 \\ \mu_i \xi_i = 0 \quad \forall i = 1(1)N. \end{cases} \quad (3.17)$$

$$\text{zero gradient wrt } (\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i = 0, \boldsymbol{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \alpha_i = C - \mu_i \quad \forall i = 1(1)N. \end{cases} \quad (3.18)$$

Classifier depends on support points only

- Here, only the points which satisfy the condition $y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) - (1 - \xi_i) = 0$, determine the fitted value of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. These points are called the support vectors. Among these support vectors, some lie on the edge of the margin ($\hat{\xi}_i = 0$), for them we get $0 < \hat{\alpha}_i < C$ and for the remainder ($\hat{\xi}_i > 0$) have $\hat{\alpha}_i = C$. The points on the margin can be used to solve for $\boldsymbol{\beta}_0$.

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- ▶ Maximizing the dual (12.13) is a simpler convex quadratic programming problem than the primal, and can be solved with standard techniques (Murray et al., 1981, for example).

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- ▶ The support vector classifier described so far creates linear boundaries in the input feature space which may or maynot seperate the training data completely.

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- ▶ We fit the SV classifier using input features $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i) = (h_1(\mathbf{x}_i), h_2(\mathbf{x}_i), \dots, h_M(\mathbf{x}_i))$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$.

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- ▶ Then fit a linear separation hyperplane in this enlarged input feature space which if converted back to the original space, gives a non-linear separation boundary.
- ▶ We demonstrate the idea using an example.

Example

- ▶ Consider this scatterplot where the points are colored according to their class with two features x and y .
- ▶ We can clearly see that they are not linearly separable.

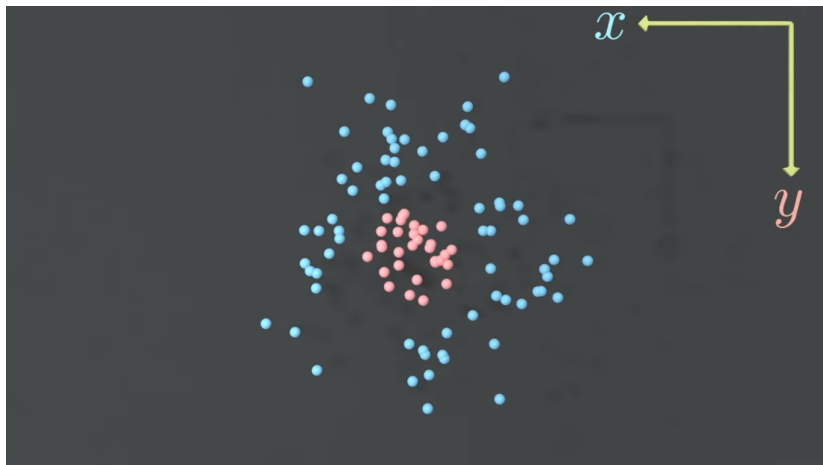


Figure: Here also the classes are not linearly separable.

Example

- ▶ But if we rather transform the points into an enlarged space as

$\mathbf{h} : \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \\ x_i^2 + y_i^2 \end{pmatrix}$, then we can easily draw a separating hyperplane in this 3 dimensional feature space.

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- ▶ Using the same optimization technique, we will fit an optimal separating hyperplane $\widehat{f}^*(x, y, z) = \widehat{\beta}_1 x + \widehat{\beta}_2 y + \widehat{\beta}_3 z + \widehat{\beta}_0$ for any point $(x, y, z)^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ but if we get back to the original feature space by putting $z = x^2 + y^2$ and write the original fitted function as $\widehat{f}(x, y) = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x + \widehat{\beta}_2 y + \widehat{\beta}_3(x^2 + y^2)$ and hence the classifier $G(x, y) = \text{Sign} \widehat{f}(x, y)$.

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- ▶ Then this classifier creates a non-linear classification boundary on the original feature space.

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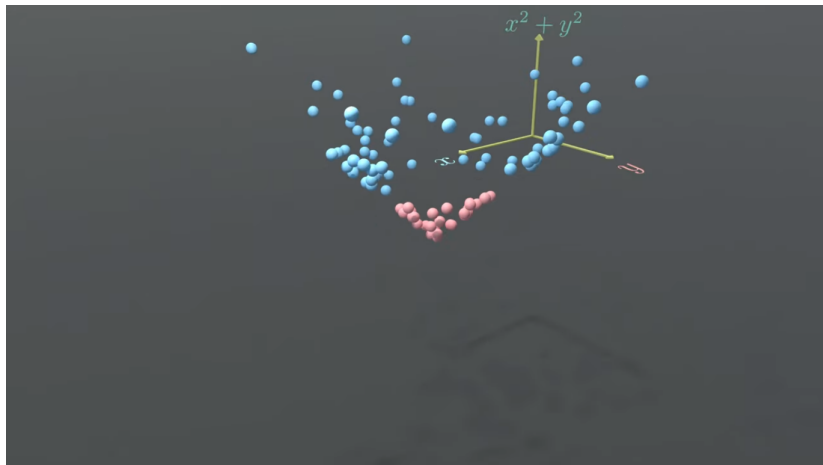


Figure: So we transform them!

Example

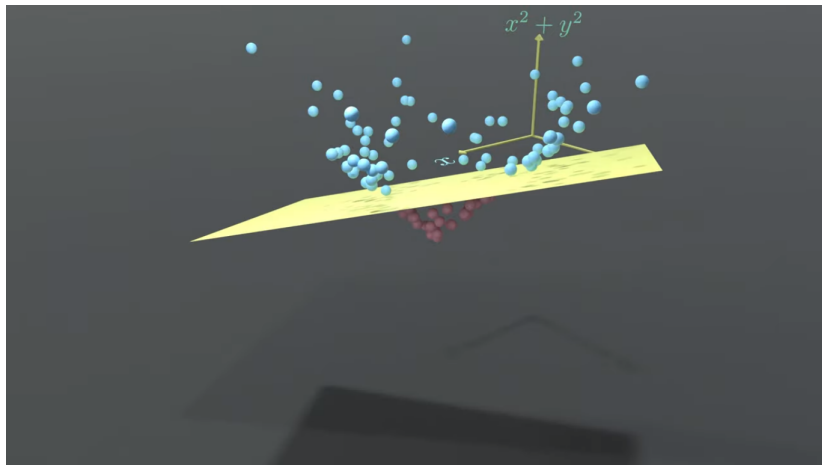


Figure: And now they are linearly separable!

Example

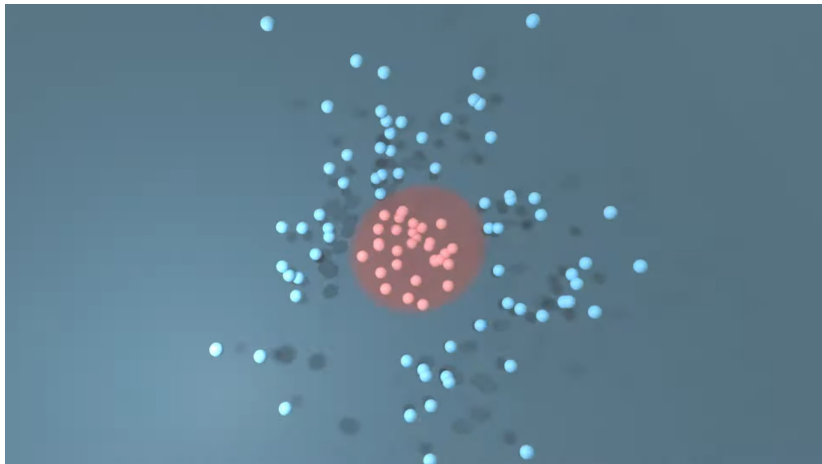


Figure: After the job is done, we get back to original feature space!

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- ▶ Note that we can write the optimization problem :-

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- ▶ As optimizing a more familiar objective function of the form loss+penalty (commonly used in statistical literature) :-

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} C \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2$$

where, L is the “hinge” loss function defined as
 $L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) = \max\{0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)\}.$

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- ▶ Also, one main thing to note is that, the dual form involves the feature inputs only in the form of dot products ($\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle$) which gives the main motivation in creating the “best” version of SV classifiers, formerly known as the Support Vector Machines.

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- ▶ We explain the idea clearly in the next few slides.

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- ▶ We can represent the original optimization problem (3.14) and its solution in a special way that only involves the input features via inner products.
- ▶ We do this directly for the transformed feature vectors $\mathbf{h}(x_i)$.
- ▶ We then see that for particular choices of \mathbf{h} , these inner products can be computed very cheaply.

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- ▶ which becomes equivalent to minimizing the lagrange dual function :-

$$L_D = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \langle \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle \quad (4.5)$$

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under the KKT conditions.

- ▶ Note that we are writing the dual function using inner products of feature space only instead of explicitly writing β .

Support Vector “Machines”

- In fact, the solution function $f(\mathbf{x})$ can also be written more conveniently as :-

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \hat{\beta}_0 \quad (4.6)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\alpha}_i y_i \langle \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle + \hat{\beta}_0 \quad (4.7)$$

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- The ingenious idea behind using kernels is that, we don't need to specify the transformation $\mathbf{h}(x)$ at all, but require only the form of the inner products $K(x, x') = \langle \mathbf{h}(x), \mathbf{h}(x') \rangle$. Only, we need that the function K is positive definite.

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- ▶ The three most popular choices of K are :-

$$\text{dth degree polynomial: } K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (1 + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle)^d \quad (4.8)$$

$$\text{Radial Basis: } K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\gamma \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2) \quad (4.9)$$

$$\text{Neural Network: } K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \tanh(\kappa_1 \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle + \kappa_2) \quad (4.10)$$

$$\text{where } \tanh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}. \quad (4.11)$$

Relation of Kernel and Feature Space

- We give an example to illustrate the relation between inner product and input feature space. Suppose we consider a classification problem with two covariates x_1 and x_2 , then the inner product for the choice $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (1 + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle)^2$ where $d = 2$ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}(1 + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle)^2 &= (1 + x_1 x'_1 + x_2 x'_2)^2 \\&= 1 + 2(x_1 x'_1) + 2(x_2 x'_2) + \\&\quad 2(x_1 x_2)(x'_1 x'_2) + (x_1^2 x_1'^2) + (x_2^2 x_2'^2) \\&= \langle \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}') \rangle\end{aligned}$$

where, $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) = (1 \quad \sqrt{2}x_1 \quad \sqrt{2}x_2 \quad \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \quad x_1^2 \quad x_2^2)$ is a 6-dimensional input feature space.

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- ▶ Similarly for other two choices of K , the input feature space is infinite dimensional.

Interpreting the Radial Kernel

- The radial kernel is of the form

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}'_i) = \exp(-\gamma \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}'_i\|^2) \quad (4.12)$$

$$= \exp\left(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x'_{ij})^2\right) \quad (4.13)$$

and we also know that the fitted classifier can be written in terms of the kernel function as :-

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\alpha}_i y_i K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

Interpreting the Radial Kernel

- ▶ Hence, if a test observation \mathbf{x}^* is far from a training observation \mathbf{x}_i in terms of Euclidean distance, then $\sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij}^* - x_{ij})^2$ will be large, and so $K(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{x}_i) = \exp\left(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij}^* - x_{ij})^2\right)$ will be tiny.

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- ▶ This means that in $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)$, \mathbf{x}_i will play virtually no role in the estimated value $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)$.
- ▶ In other words, training observations that are far from \mathbf{x}^* will play essentially no role in the predicted class label for \mathbf{x}^* .

Regularization

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- ▶ The role of the parameter C is clearer in an enlarged feature space, since perfect separation is often achievable there.
- ▶ A large value of C will discourage any positive ξ_i , and lead to an overfit wiggly boundary in the original feature space; however a small value of C will encourage the boundary to be smoother and will allow more positive ξ_i values.

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- ▶ We explain these using visuals.

Demonstration Using Examples

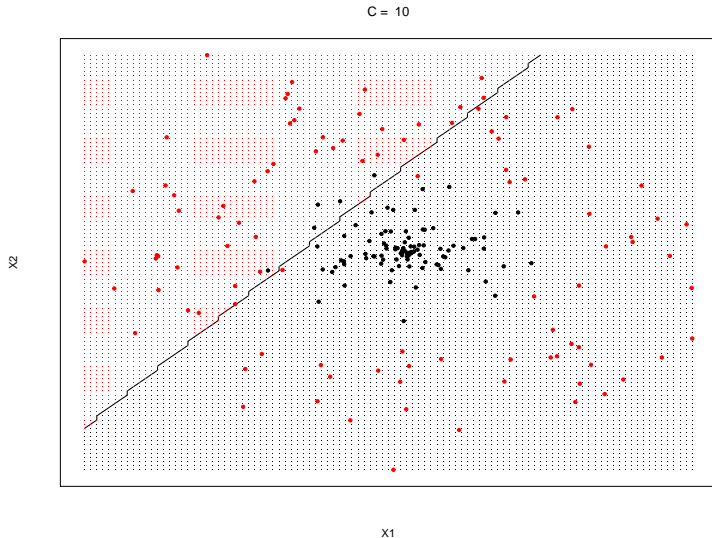


Figure: Fitting a linear classifier with $C = 10$

Demonstration Using Examples

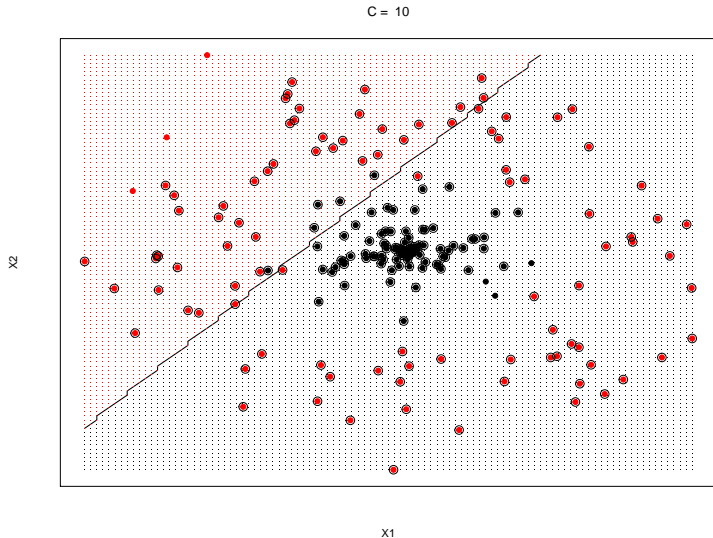


Figure: All the support points are marked.

Demonstration Using Examples

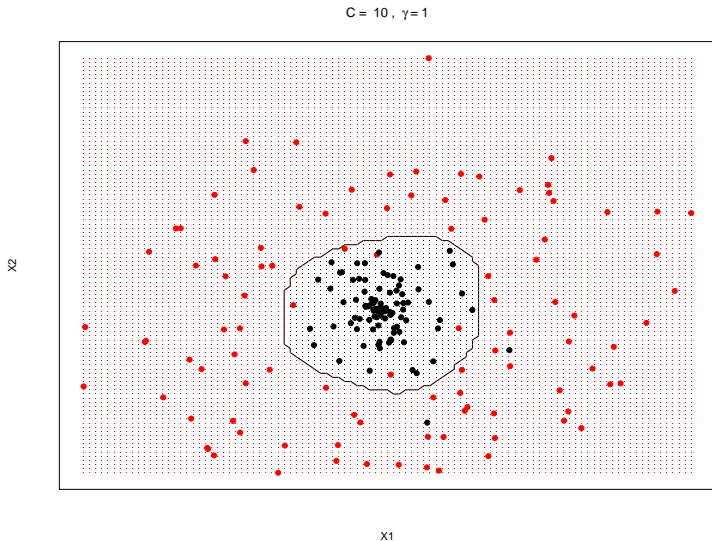


Figure: Then we fit SVM with radial kernel.

Demonstration Using Examples

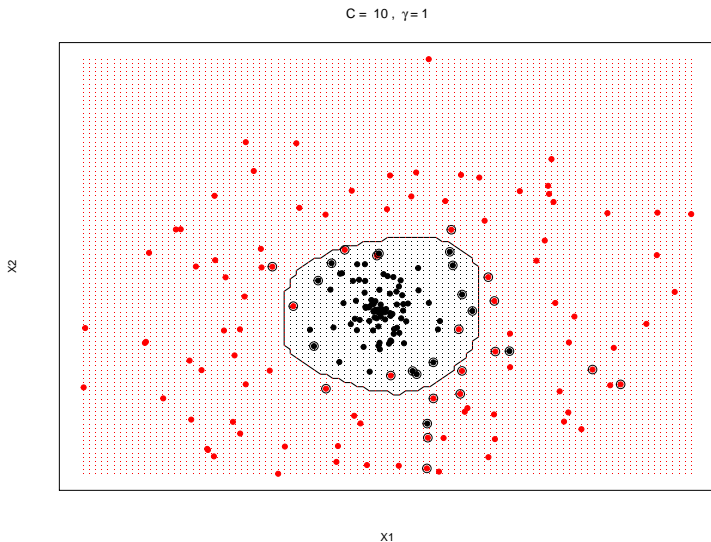


Figure: And these are the support points here.

Demonstration Using Examples

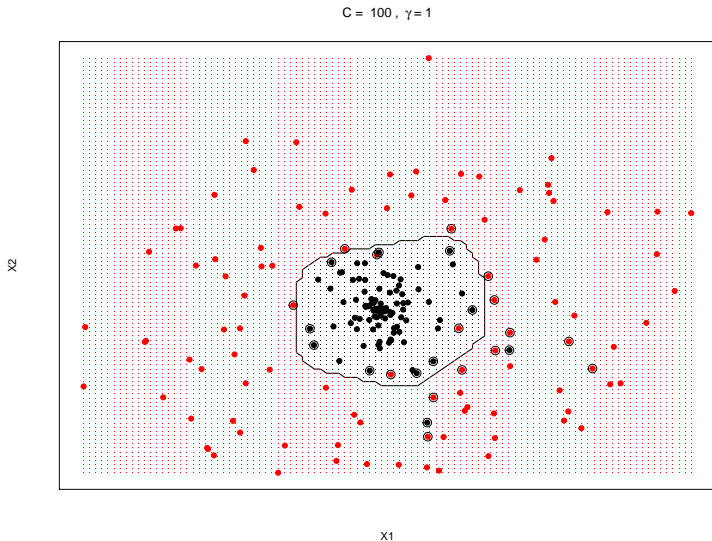


Figure: As we increase the cost, the margin shrinks decreasing the no of support points

Demonstration Using Examples

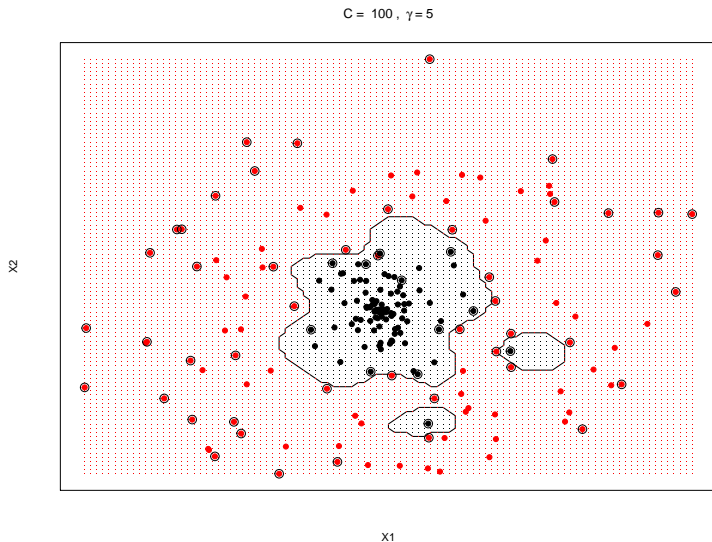


Figure: Increasing the value of γ also overfits the training set.

Demonstration Using Examples

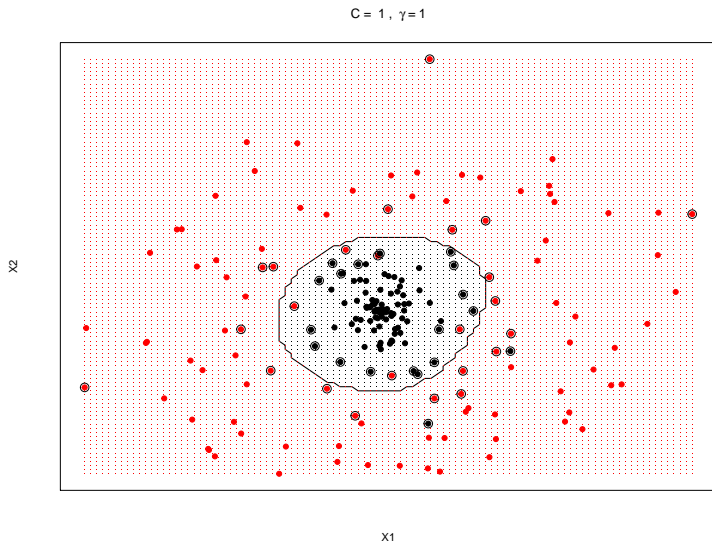


Figure: Optimal choice of C & γ using Cross-validation

Demonstration Using Examples

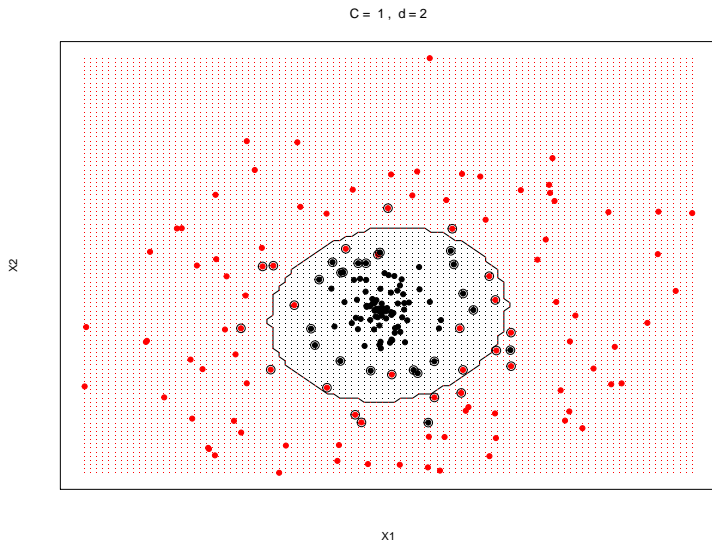


Figure: Polynomial Kernel of 2^{nd} degree

Demonstration Using Examples

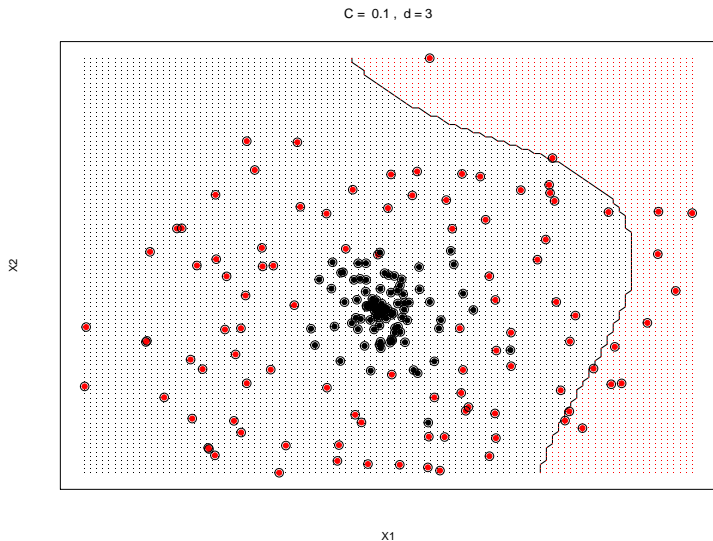


Figure: For degree 3, the polynomial kernel gives a very poor classification!

Demonstration Using Examples

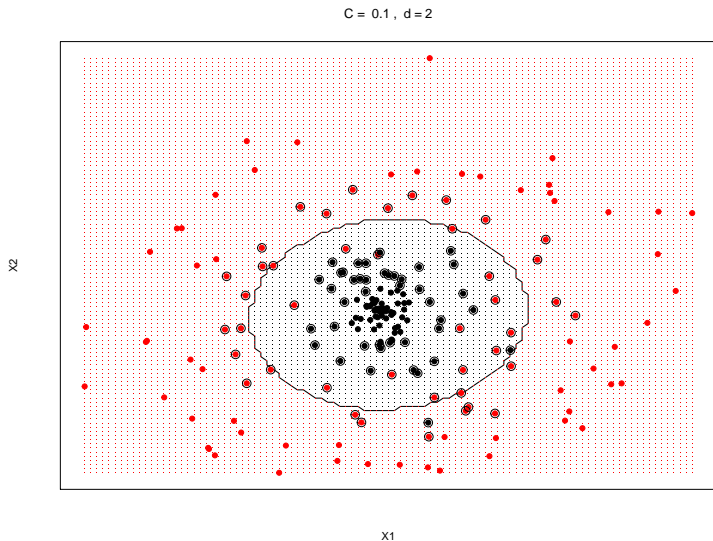


Figure: For optimal value of d and C

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- ▶ But we can extend the idea behind SVM to more general case where we have any arbitrary number of classes.
- ▶ Though a number of proposals for extending SVMs to the K-class case have been made, the two most popular are the one-versus-one and one-versus-all approaches. We briefly discuss those two approaches here.

One-Versus-One Classification

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- ▶ We classify a test observation using each of the $\binom{K}{2}$ classifiers and count the number of times the observation is classified into each of the K classes.
- ▶ Finally, we classify the observation to the class to which it was most frequently assigned in these $\binom{K}{2}$ pairwise classifications.

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- ▶ Then for a test observation \mathbf{x}^* , we assign it to the class for which $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \hat{\beta}_{0k} + \sum_{i=1}^p \hat{\beta}_{ik} x_i^*$ is largest.

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- ▶ Then, the k -Nearest Neighbor method use the observations in the training set to classify a new observation \mathbf{x} . To be specific, it predicts the probability that the observation belongs to the class j , as :-

$$\Pr(y(\mathbf{x}) \in j) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in N_k(\mathbf{x})} I(y_i = j)$$

where, $N_k(\mathbf{x})$ denotes the set of K closest training observation wrt to some choice of metric. (commonly Euclidean distance). Then the point \mathbf{x} is classified to the class j^* which has the largest value of the probability.

The KNN Classifier

- ▶ Hence, if we have $g = 2$ and we take the value of k to be 1 then the 1-NN classifier will essentially classify each observation \mathbf{x} to the class y_i corresponding to the point \mathbf{x}_i that is closest in the feature space to \mathbf{x} .

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- ▶ We draw the classification boundary using 1–NN classifier for the same dataset used before in SVM :-

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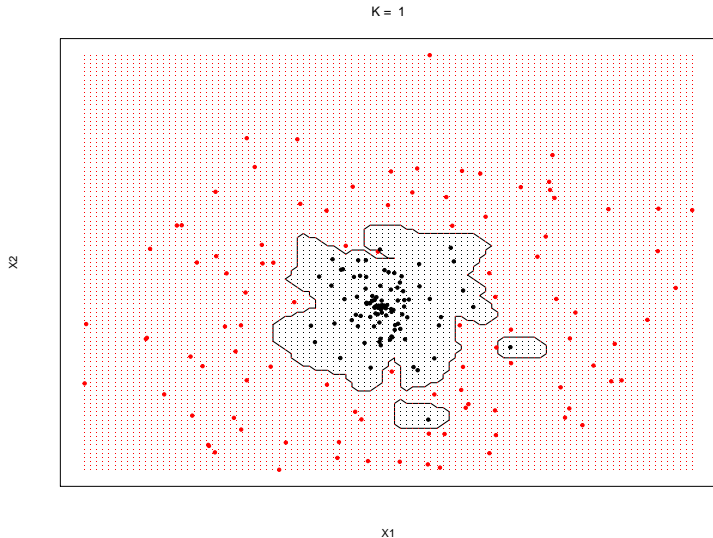


Figure: The KNN Classifier creates a wiggly boundary for $K = 1$

The KNN Classifier

- ▶ As we can see that the 1-NN classifier creates a wiggly boundary, we increase the value of k to get a smoother boundary for example for $k = 20$ we get :-

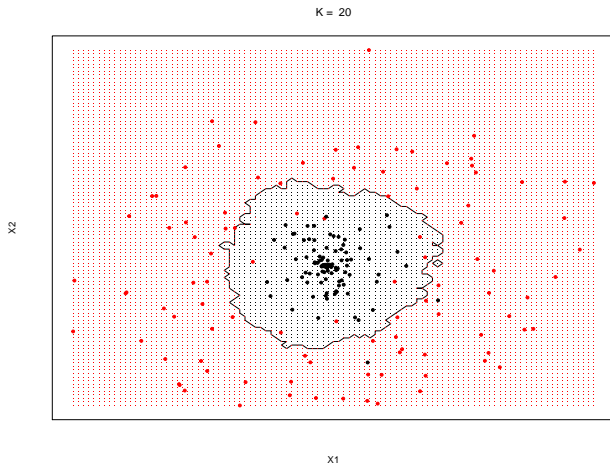


Figure: The boundary is smoother for $K=20$

The KNN Classifier

- So in order to find an optimal value of k , we choose a set of values of k in the range 1 : 90 and for each of them we plot the average test error for 5 validation sets that the data is split into.

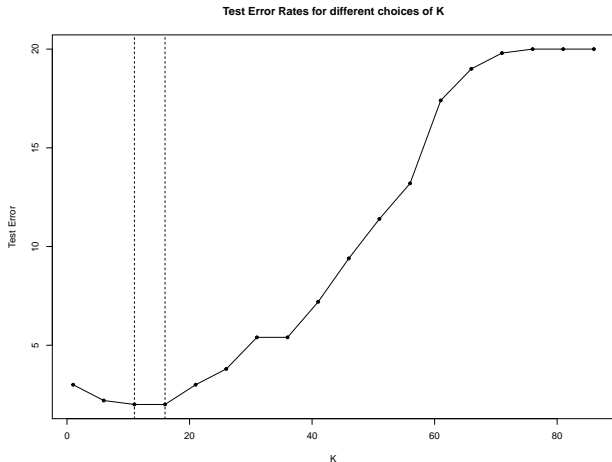


Figure:

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- ▶ In our first example, we classify first 100 random samples from $N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^{p \times 1}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{p \times p})$ where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^{p \times 1} = 5\mathbf{1}_p$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{p \times p} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{p \times p} = \text{diag}(1, 2, \dots, p)$, classify them as -1 and second 100 random samples from $N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2^{p \times 1}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{p \times p})$ where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2^{p \times 1} = 9\mathbf{1}_p$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{p \times p} = 4\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{p \times p}$ which we classify as $+1$.

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- ▶ Then we vary the value of p from 5 to 50 and for each value of p , we simulate observations from both classes and then fit a classifier using different methods and calculate the total number of misclassifications for each of the methods at each values of p to compare.

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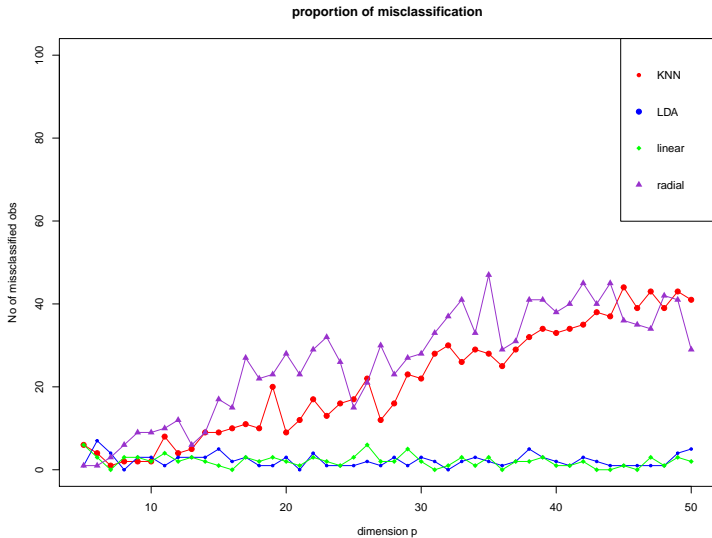


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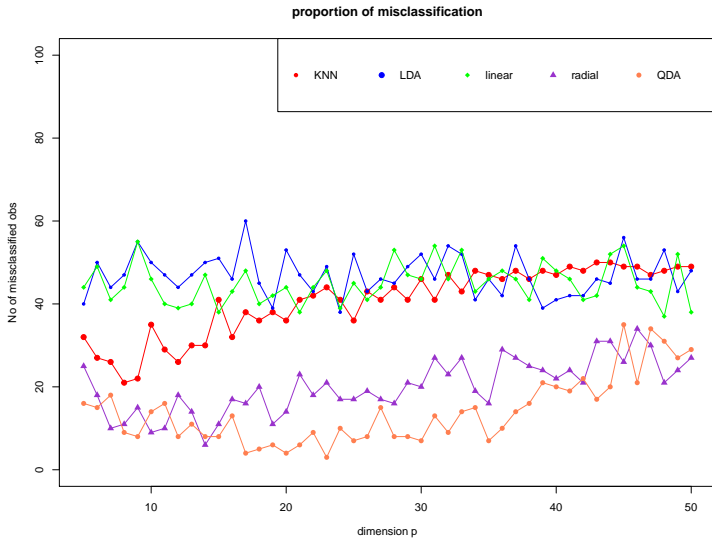


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- ▶ And hence it's expected that QDA classifier will perform well here and it does perform well.
- ▶ Though Support vector classifier didn't perform well here, SVM classifier with radial kernel performed much better than most of the other classifiers and is comparable with the ideal classifier here, (i.e. the QDA classifier).

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- ▶ Moreover, the idea of using a kernel to expand the feature space in order to accommodate non-linear class boundaries appears to be a unique and valuable characteristic.
- ▶ Hence, we can consider SVMs as a very flexible and powerful tool in the toolbox of classifiers.

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- ▶ Here our response variable is the **Price Range of a Mobile Phone** which is divided into four classes namely 0,1,2,3. The predictors/covariates are :-
 - 1) Battery Power
 - 2) Clock Speed
 - 3) FC
 - 4) Internal Memory
 - 5) Mobile Depth
 - 6) Mobile Weight
 - 7) Number of Cores
 - 8) PC
 - 9) px_height
 - 10) px_width
 - 11) RAM
 - 12) sc_h
 - 13) sc_w
 - 14) talk time.

Case Study

- We have 2000 observations in our dataset.

Here is how the data looks like :-

	battery_power	clock_speed	fc	int_memory	m_dep	mobile_wt	n_cores	pc
1	842	2.2	1	7	0.6	188	2	2
2	1021	0.5	0	53	0.7	136	3	6
3	563	0.5	2	41	0.9	145	5	6
4	615	2.5	0	10	0.8	131	6	9
5	1821	1.2	13	44	0.6	141	2	14
6	1859	0.5	3	22	0.7	164	1	7

	px_height	px_width	ram	sc_h	sc_w	talk_time	price_range
1	20	756	2549	9	7	19	1
2	905	1988	2631	17	3	7	2
3	1263	1716	2603	11	2	9	2
4	1216	1786	2769	16	8	11	2
5	1208	1212	1411	8	2	15	1
6	1004	1654	1067	17	1	10	1

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- ▶ Initially, we divide our training set further into two sets containing 1500 and 500 observations respectively for training and validation of our model.
- ▶ Then using these two datasets, we compare the 4 methods i.e. which model makes the least number of missclassification in the test dataset.

LDA Classifier

We fit the LDA classifier and get the following classification table for the 4 categories :-

```
pred.lda  0  1  2  3
0 121  3  0  0
1  6 121 11  0
2  0  3 118  3
3  0  0  0 114
```

So, here the classifier performs pretty well with total of just

```
[1] 26
```

misclassified observations in the test set out of 500 observations.

QDA Classifier

We fit the LDA classifier and get the following classification table for the 4 categories :-

```
pred.qda  0  1  2  3
0 123  8  0  0
1  4 110  7  0
2  0  9 117  2
3  0  0  5 115
```

Here the QDA classifier makes a total of

```
[1] 35
```

misclassified observations in the test set.

KNN Classifier

We fit the KNN classifier and get the following classification table for the 4 categories :-

```
mod.knn      0    1    2    3
0 125     8    0    0
1   2  113    9    0
2   0   6  113    8
3   0   0   7  109
```

We note that since, the feature space is quite large here, KNN becomes inefficient and slow and we can also see it makes a total of

```
[1] 40
```

misclassified observations in the test set out of 500 observations which is the highest number till now.

SV Classifier

Lastly, we fit the SVM classifier using one-vs-one method and get the following classification table for the 4 categories :-

	0	1	2	3
0	126	3	0	0
1	1	119	7	0
2	0	5	122	1
3	0	0	0	116

And quite surprisingly, the SV classifier misclassified only

```
[1] 17
```

many observations in the test set out of 500 observations which is the lowest in all the methods.

Conclusion

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- ▶ We repeat this process for all the 5 randomly generated validation sets and plot the total number of misclassification values for the four different classifiers in order to get better idea about their performance.

Conclusion

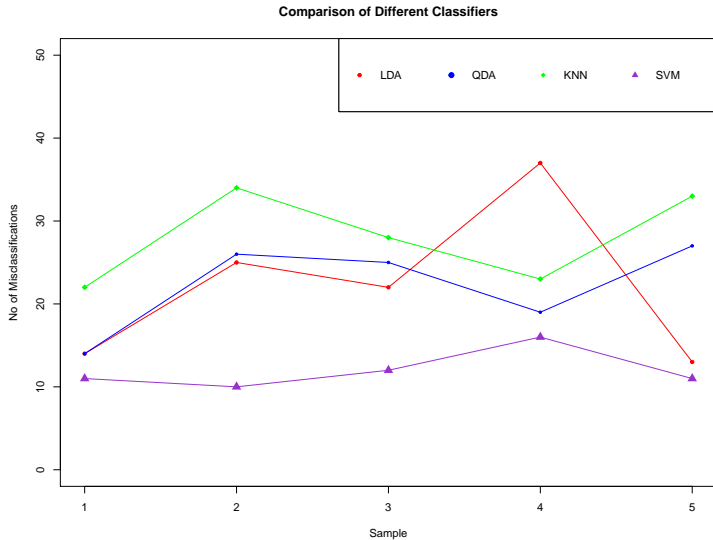


Figure: Test errors for 5 validation sets

Conclusion

- ▶ From the plot we can clearly see that the SV classifier performs better throughout the different validation sets which is an evidence in favour of its better performance than other methods.

Books

- ▶ Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., Friedman, J. (2001). The Elements of Statistical Learning. New York, NY, USA: Springer New York Inc.
- ▶ Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani. An Introduction to Statistical Learning : with Applications in R. New York :Springer.
- ▶ Vapnik, V. N. (1998). Statistical Learning Theory. Wiley-Interscience.
- ▶ Gill, P. E., Murray, W., Wright, M. H. (1981). Practical Optimization. New York: Academic.

R Packages

- ▶ Sarkar D (2008). Lattice: Multivariate Data Visualization with R. Springer, New York. (Link)
- ▶ Venables WN, Ripley BD (2002). Modern Applied Statistics with S. Springer, New York. (Link)
- ▶ e1071 : Misc Functions of the Department of Statistics, Probability Theory Group (Formerly: E1071), TU Wien. (Link)
- ▶ Genz A, Bretz F, Miwa T, Mi X, Leisch F, Scheipl F, Hothorn T (2021). mvtnorm: Multivariate Normal and t Distributions. (Link)

Other resources

- ▶ <https://hastie.su.domains/M00C-Slides/svm.pdf>.
- ▶ https://youtu.be/_YPScrckx28 (Figure 5-9).
- ▶ Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., Friedman, J. (2001). The Elements of Statistical Learning. (Figure 1-4)
- ▶ Curry, Haskell B. (1944). "The Method of Steepest Descent for Non-linear Minimization Problems". Quart. Appl. Math.
- ▶ <https://www.robots.ox.ac.uk/~az/lectures/ml/lect2.pdf>.
- ▶ Bottou, Léon (1998). "Online Algorithms and Stochastic Approximations". Online Learning and Neural Networks. Cambridge University Press.

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