Advanced Machine Learning Subsidary Notes

Lecture 17: Support Vector Machines

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February 9, 2024

1 Keywords

• Support Vector Machines, maximum margins

2 Main Points

2.1 Overview

- Support vector machines are one of the most successful machine learning techniques when dealing with small data sets
 - They perform binary classification (you need many SVMs to do multi-class classification)
 - There are support vector machines for regression SVR (but I'm not sure their performance dominates other techniques)
- They are basically a perceptron that regularises itself by choosing the maximum margin separating plane
- · Of course perceptrons only work with linear separable data
 - SVMs overcome this limitations in two ways
 - 1. It often prejects the data into a high dimensional extended feature space making it more likely that the data is linear separable
 - * In the extended feature space the features will usually be non-linear functions of the original features, so we can separate data in the extended feature space that isn't necessarily linear separable in the original feature space
 - 2. It tolerates some errors using slack variables
 - st We need to tune a hyper-parameter (usually called C) to decide how much slack we want to tolerate
- SVMs can work with a huge number of features by solving the problem in the dual space
 - The dual problem depends on the number of constraints
 - There is one constraint for each pattern which states that the pattern should be on or outside a margin
 - The dual problem only depends on the inner (dot) product between vectors in the (extended) feature space
 - As positive semi-definite kernels can be represented as inner product between vectors in an extended feature space (which are the eigen-functions of the kernel) we often never need to explicitly compute the vectors in the extended feature space

2.2 Maximum Margins

- We consider data $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_k, y_k) | k = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$ with $\boldsymbol{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $y_k \in \{-1, 1\}$
- We define a dividing hyper-plane by its orthogonal vector \boldsymbol{w} and a threshold b saying how far from the origin it is
- The gap between the hyper-plane and a data point (x_k, y_k) is given by

$$d_k = y_k \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_k}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|} - b \right)$$

- Note that y_k ensures the positive class is on one side of the dividing plane and the negative class on the other
- We want to constrain these gaps to be greater than or equal to a margin Δ

$$y_k \left(\frac{oldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} oldsymbol{x}_k}{\|oldsymbol{w}\|} - b \right) \ge \Delta$$

• We can divide through by the margin size Δ giving

$$y_k \left(\bar{\boldsymbol{w}}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_k - \bar{b} \right) \geq 1$$

- where $ar{m{w}} = m{w}/(\Delta \, \| m{w} \|)$ and $ar{b} = b/\Delta$
- We note that

$$\frac{1}{2}\|\bar{\boldsymbol{w}}\|^2 = \frac{1}{2\,\Delta^2}$$

- thus if we minimise $\|\bar{\boldsymbol{w}}\|^2/2$ subject to the constraint this is equivalent to maximising Δ
- the factor of a half is just for convenience
- we minimise $\|\bar{w}\|^2$ rather than $\|\bar{w}\|$ again for convenience
- we will just drop the bar notation (i.e. we talk about w and b rather than \bar{w} and \bar{b}): after all what's in a name? (More seriously it has the same optimum whatever we call it)

Soft Margins

- So far we have constrained all the data points to lie outside the margin (this is known as hard margins)
- We can instead allow some data points to lie within the margin (or even be misclassified)
 - * This is known as a soft margin SVM
- We do this by introducing slack variables s_k so that our constraints become

$$y_k \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_k}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|} - b \right) \ge 1 - s_k$$

(I've dropped the bars for simplicity)

- We punish the slack variables by adding $C\sum\limits_{k=1}^m s_k$ to the objective function
- We also constrain the slack variables so that $s_k \geq 0$ (so we don't get a reward if $s_k < 0$)
- Optimisation problem

- Our optimisation problem becomes

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b,\boldsymbol{s}} \quad \frac{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|^2}{2} + C \sum_{k=1}^m s_k$$

subject to

$$y_k \left(\frac{{\boldsymbol w}^\mathsf{T} {\boldsymbol x}_k}{\|{\boldsymbol w}\|} - b \right) \ge 1 - s_k \quad \text{and} \quad s_k \ge 0$$

for k = 1, 2, ..., m

- We can write this as a Lagrange problem

$$\min_{oldsymbol{w},b,oldsymbol{s}} \max_{oldsymbol{lpha},oldsymbol{eta}} \mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{w},b,oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{lpha},oldsymbol{eta})$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|^2}{2} + C\sum_{k=1}^m s_k - \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k \left(y_k \left(\boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_k - b\right) - 1 + s_k\right) - \sum_{k=0}^m \beta_k s_k$$

- * α_k and β_k are Lagrange multipliers
 - · α_k ensures the margin condition
 - · β_k ensures the non-negativity of the slack variables
- * As they enforce inequality constraints we require they are non-negative

2.3 Extended Feature Space

· To help linear separability we can map our inputs to a high-dimensional feature space

$$oldsymbol{x} o oldsymbol{\phi}(oldsymbol{x})$$

- Note in the slides I wrote this as $\vec{\phi}(x)$ to make it clear that this is a different feature space (I won't do it here as it is a slightly ugly way of writing vectors)
- Note this is a function of the original feature vector meaning that if I change x I will get a different vector $\phi(x)$
- Nevertheless $\phi(x)$ is just a p' dimensional vector
- We call the space of $\phi(x)$ the extended feature space
- We can define this extended feature mapping explicitly (e.g. we might decide that $\phi_1(x) = x_1^2$, $\phi_2(x) = x_1 x_2$, etc.)
- More often this feature mapping is defined implicitly through a kernel function (more of that later)
- We usually choose the dimensionality, p', of the extended feature space to be much larger that that of the original feature space
- Usually we would be scared of this because it can lead to over-fitting
- However, because of choosing the maximal-margin hyper-plane this regularises the problem so strongly that we get good generalisation despite working in an enormous dimensional space
- · The Lagrange problem in this extended feature space is

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|^2}{2} + C \sum_{k=1}^m s_k - \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k \left(y_k \left(\boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_k) - b \right) - 1 + s_k \right) - \sum_{k=0}^m \beta_k s_k$$

- Note that the weight vector, w, is now in the extended weight space

2.4 Dual Problem

- To obtain the dual problem we compute the minimum of the Lagrangian with respect to $m{w}$, b and s
 - Weight minimisation

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathcal{L} = \boldsymbol{w} - \sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k y_k \, \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_k) = 0$$

- * So that $oldsymbol{w} = \sum\limits_{k=1}^m lpha_k \, y_k \, oldsymbol{\phi}(oldsymbol{x}_k)$
- Threshold minimisation

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b} = -\sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k y_k = 0$$

- * This gives us a global constraint on the Lagrange multipliers α_k
- Slack variable minimisation

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial s_k} = C - \alpha_k - \beta_k = 0$$

- * Thus $\alpha_k = C \beta_k$
- * When substituting back into the Lagrangian all the terms proportional to s_k cancel
- * But $\beta_m \geq 0$ so this implies $\alpha_k \leq C$ (recall that $\alpha_k \geq 0$ from the KKT condition)
- Substituting the optimal values of ${m w}$, b and ${m S}$ into the Lagrangian we obtain the dual problem

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=0}^{m} \alpha_k \, \alpha_l \, y_k \, y_l \, \boldsymbol{\phi}^\mathsf{T}(\boldsymbol{x}_k) \, \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_l) + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \alpha_k$$

subject to the conditions

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k y_k = 0, \quad \forall_k \ 0 \ge \alpha_k \ge C$$

- Note that a large number of terms vanished (you really need to go through this carefully to see that this happens)
- Amazingly adding slack variables is equivalent to preventing α_k becoming larger than C
- the dual problem is another quadratic programming problem but involves the m Lagrange multipliers α_k rather than the p' weights
- importantly the dual problem depends only on $\phi(x_k)$ through the inner product $\phi^{\mathsf{T}}(x_k) \phi(x_l)$

2.5 Working in the extended feature space

- If we work in the original feature space then the dual problem depends on the inner (dot) product $x_k^\intercal x_l$
 - this is known as a linear SVM
 - quite often a linear SVM gives the best performance
 - sometimes it will pay to solve the primal problem rather than dual problem
 - however we can work with very high dimensional feature vectors
 - * this is useful when we work with text where out input vectors are naturally high dimensional
 - * In this case we would want to solve the dual problem

- We can explicitly define our extended feature vectors
 - this has the disadvantage that they could be expensive to compute, but for some applications there may be smart ways of doing this

Kernel Trick

- There is however a really nice trick
- Any positive definite kernel, K(x, y), can be decomposed as

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathsf{T}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \, \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y})$$

(we will talk much more about this in the next lecture)

- obviously the functions $\phi_i(x)$ that form the elements of the vector $\phi(x)$ depend on the kernel we choose
- However, as the dual problem only depends on the inner product $\phi^{\mathsf{T}}(x)\,\phi(y)$ if we choose these so that $\phi^{\mathsf{T}}(x)\,\phi(y)=K(x,y)$ then we never have to explicitly compute $\phi(x)$
- Our dual problem in this case is

$$\max_{\alpha} -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=0}^{m} \alpha_k \alpha_l y_k y_l K(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_l) + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \alpha_k$$

- In using an SVM we have to determine which side of the dividing plane a new data point, x, would lie
 - * Our prediction would be

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) - b)$$

- · the function $\mathrm{sgn}(\cdot)$ outputs ± 1 depending on the sign of the argument
- * But our optimal weight vector is given by $m{w} = \sum\limits_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \, y_k \, m{\phi}(m{x}_k)$
- * Thus our prediction will be

$$\operatorname{sgn}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k \, y_k \, \boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathsf{T}}(\boldsymbol{x}_k) \, \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) - b\right) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k \, y_k \, K(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}) - b\right)$$

* Thus we don't need to computer the weight or the extended feature vectors

2.6 Practical Consideration

- To get SVMs to work in practice requires a lot of tuning
- Firstly you need to normalise the inputs
- You might need to **balance** you data set
 - SVMs perform poorly on problems where the training set has many more examples of one class than the other
 - You can balance the data set by ignoring examples from the large class or
 - Increasing the size of minority class by duplicating examples
 - Sometimes you can use data augmentation on the minority class
 - This is only a problem where the data set is strongly unbalanced
- You need to choose C (this can vary by orders of magnitudes)

- Typically found by exhaustive search start at 2^{-5} and doubling until you reach 2^{15}
- You decide on what to use by testing on a validation set
- · You also have to choose the right kernel
 - This could be no kernel (linear SVM)
 - A polynomial kernel (you have to try different degrees)
 - A radial basis kernel
 - Sometimes you use a special designed kernel for the problem
 - Kernels also come with hyper-parameters (often called γ) which you also have to tune
- It is a lot of work but for many problems (particularly with small training set) it often leads to state-of-the-art performance

• Multi-Class Classification

- Natively SVMs only perform binary classification
- If you have multiple classes you need multiple SVMs
- People use two strategies
 - * *One-versus-all*: for each class train a separate SVM using all other classes as negative examples (but see note on balancing)
 - * *All-pairs*: Train a set of SVM between all pairs of classes (this is obviously expensive when you have large classes)
- You then have to get your SVMs to vote in some way to determine the true class

3 Experiments

3.1 SVM in Practice

- SVMs are hard to code (they need a quadratic programming solver which are complicate)
- · However, there a lots of good implementations out there so have a go
- Stolen from the web...

```
#Import scikit-learn dataset library
from sklearn import datasets

#Load dataset
cancer = datasets.load_breast_cancer()
# print the names of the 13 features
print("Features: ", cancer.feature_names)

# print the label type of cancer('malignant' 'benign')
print("Labels: ", cancer.target_names)

# print data(feature)shape
cancer.data.shape

# Import train_test_split function
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

# Split dataset into training set and test set
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
```

train_test_split(cancer.data, cancer.target, test_size=0.3,random_state=109) # 70% training and 30% test

```
#Import svm model
from sklearn import svm
#Create a svm Classifier
clf = svm.SVC(kernel='linear') # Linear Kernel
#Train the model using the training sets
clf.fit(X_train, y_train)
#Predict the response for test dataset
y_pred = clf.predict(X_test)
#Import scikit-learn metrics module for accuracy calculation
from sklearn import metrics
# Model Accuracy: how often is the classifier correct?
print("Accuracy:", metrics.accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred))
# Model Precision: what percentage of positive tuples are labeled as such?
print("Precision:",metrics.precision_score(y_test, y_pred))
# Model Recall: what percentage of positive tuples are labelled as such?
print("Recall:", metrics.recall_score(y_test, y_pred))
```