

# 07 - Support Vector Machines

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## General Idea

When we have non-linearly separable data, we map it to a higher dimension. For example: map 1D data with the following  $x \rightarrow \phi(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{pmatrix}$  This allows us to separate data in some cases (check slides) The same idea applies to more than one dimension, of course.

## Mapping to a higher dimension

We must be careful because the dimension of  $\phi$  grows rapidly with the number of features.

We train polynomial SVM in the same way as linear SVM, except we map to higher dimension.  $\rightarrow$  **run linear svm on  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$**

A higher degree polynomial gives us a more flexible boundary, but it also increases the dimensionality of the problem. **The computational complexity grows in  $O(n^3)$**  (where  $n$  is the number of features)

## HOG (Histogram of Oriented Gradients)

I think this is outside of scope of course but will double-check

## Cover's Theorem

A complex pattern classification problem mapped to a higher dimension is more likely to be linearly separable than a low dimensional space, provided that the space is **not densely populated**

Overall, higher dimensions are better. But the problem that arises is that when we deal with many many samples, the computational complexity increases.

## Lagrange Multipliers

To find a constrained minimization i.e. minimize  $f(x, y)$  subject to  $g(x, y) \leq c$  we use **Lagrange multipliers**. At the constrained minimum we have  $\exists \lambda \in$

$\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$  where  $\lambda$  is the Lagrange multiplier.

### Lagrangian Formulation of SVM optimization

$L(\mathbf{w}, \Lambda) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{n=1 \dots N} \lambda_n (t_n \tilde{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) - 1)$  Where we have  $\Lambda = [\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n]$   
(one multiplier per constraint)

**Theorem:** A solution to the constrained minimization problem must be such that  $L$  is *minimized* with respect to the components of  $\mathbf{w}$  and *maximized* with respect to the Lagrange multipliers, which are  $\geq 0$  ## The Kernel Trick Let's say that we want to map our  $x_i$  points with a function  $\phi$ . The kernel trick allows us to do this **without** having to compute  $\phi(x)$  for every point.

We just need to know how  $\phi(x)$  compares to each other point  $\phi(x')$ . Mathematically, this corresponds to doing the inner product  $\phi(x)^T \phi(x') = k(x, x')$  the **kernel function**.

The kernel function can be seen as a *similarity metric*

**Example: Linear Kernel** This corresponds to the identity function  $\phi(x) = x$ . We get  $k(x, x') = x^T x'$ .

`SVC(kernel='linear').fit(X,y)` # yields a linear decision boundary!

**Example: Polynomial Kernel** The transformation  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_2, x_1 x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2)$  corresponds to the kernel  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2$ . This is a lot easier to compute, even if the transformation is complicated.

`SVC(kernel='poly').fit(X,y)` # this will give us the polynomial kernel discussed above

**Example: RBF Kernel** Sometimes it's possible to give a kernel function for a non-linear transformation that is hard/impossible to compute. Prime example is the *RBF function*.  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = e^{-\gamma \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2}$  which actually yields **infinite dimension**

`SVC(kernel='rbf', gamma=0.01).fit(X,y)` # uses the RBF kernel

The  $\gamma$  parameter allows us to go from a smooth to a rough function. It is super easy to tweak the RBF kernel, and we don't have to worry about the output dimension.

### Formulation

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n \in S} \lambda_n t_n k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_n) + b$$

The only subset of points with  $\lambda_i \neq 0$  are the support vectors. Here we have  $t_i y_i = 1$  Here we have that  $\phi$  is implicit. In practice we only have to compute  $k$

Working with a **gaussian kernel** (RBF) virtually makes the dimension as large as the number of samples. Unfortunately, it is still computationally complex.

## Summary

SVM performs well on MNIST as we can linearly separate in high-dimension space when we can't in the input-space. Classifiers can be learned in the feature space without having to actually perform the mapping. The main issue with SVM is the  $O(n^3)$  time and space complexity which makes it difficult to exploit large datasets.