Support Vector Machines (SVM)

Data Analytics Lab – Week 9

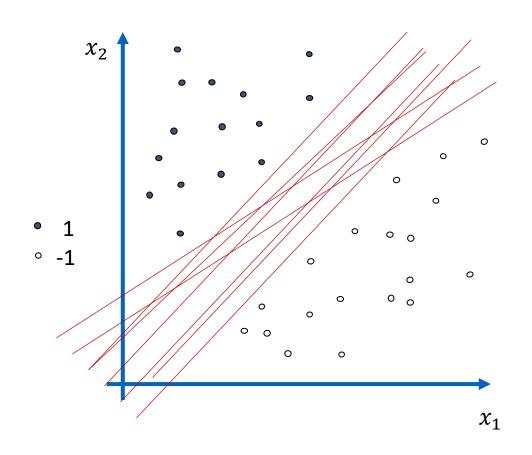
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Outline

- 1. Linear Classifiers
- 2. Max Margin Classifiers
- 3. SVMs
- 4. Linear SVM Classifier
- 5. Non-Linear SVM Classifier
- 6. Kernel Trick
- 7. Kernel Functions

Linear Classifiers

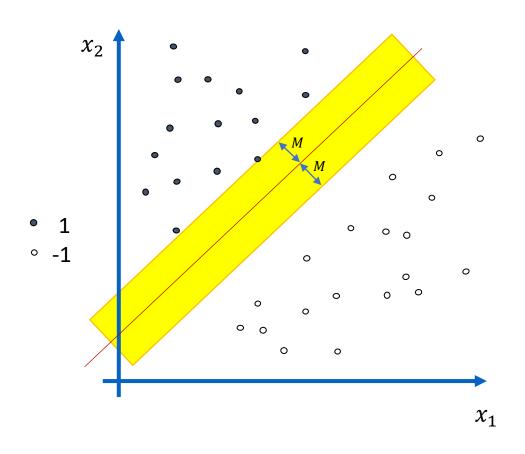


$$y = f(x, \theta)$$

How to classify this data using a hyperplane?

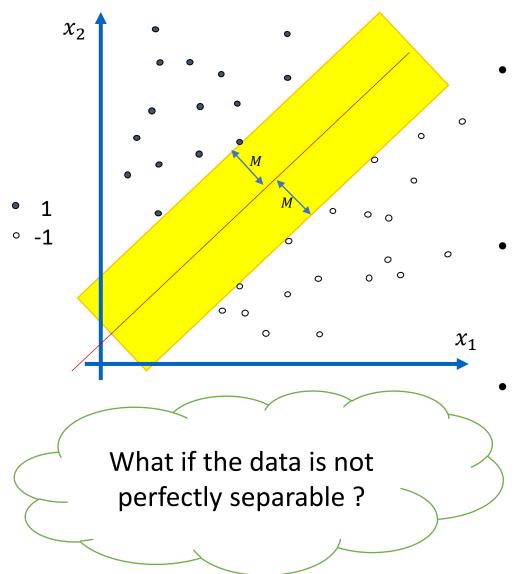
Which of these decision boundaries (hyperplanes) is best?

Margin of a Linear Classifier



- Margin (M): Perpendicular distance between the separating hyperplane and the closest data point
- Equal margin is considered on both sides of the hyperplane

Max Margin Classifier



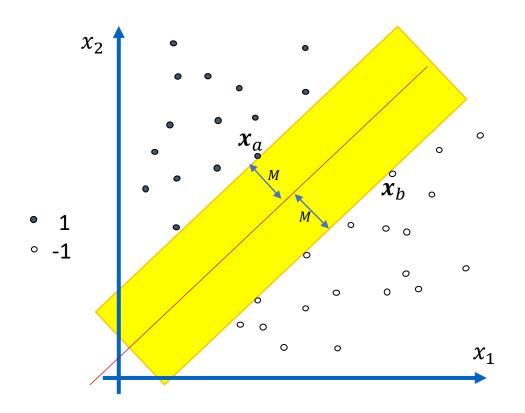
- In a max margin classifier, the best separating hyperplane is the one that separates the classes with maximum margin
- Max margin not only ensures good classification but also ensures good generalisation
 - Data points which determine the max margin are referred to as support vectors

Support Vector Machines

- Support Vector Machines work on the max margin principle and are a generalisation of max margin classifiers
- Developed by Vapnik and others in 1992
- SVMs can be even used to build classifiers to classify data which are not perfectly separable (soft margin)
- SVMs can be used to build both linear as well as non-linear classifiers by using the kernel trick (discussed later)
- SVMs can also be used for regression tasks Support Vector Regression

(Refer to this link for more details on Support Vector Regression: https://towardsdatascience.com/an-introduction-to-support-vector-regression-svr-a3ebc1672c2)

Linear Support Vector Classifier – Separable Case



Eq. of separating hyperplane:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 = \mathbf{0}$$

Assume that support vectors are at a distance of 1 from the separating hyperplane i.e., $\theta^T x_a + \theta_0 = 1$

$$oldsymbol{ heta}^T oldsymbol{x_a} + oldsymbol{ heta_0} - oldsymbol{1} \\ oldsymbol{ heta}^T oldsymbol{x_b} + oldsymbol{ heta_0} = -oldsymbol{1}$$

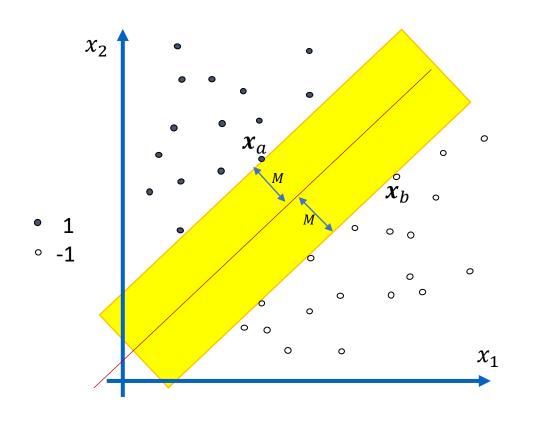
Margin:
$$2M = ||x_a - x_b||_2 = \frac{2}{\|\theta\|_2}$$

Optimization formulation: $\max_{\theta,\theta_0} \frac{2}{\|\theta\|_2}$ s.t. $\theta^T x_i + \theta_0 \ge 1$ if $y_i = 1$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^T x_i + \theta_0 \ge 1 \text{ if } y_i = -1$$

Alternately, $\|\theta\|$ can be minimised

Linear SVC – Separable Case



- Generally, the dual problem of the minimization problem is solved
- Solution is given by:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \sum \alpha_i y_i \boldsymbol{x_i}$$

$$\theta_0 = y_k - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}_k$$

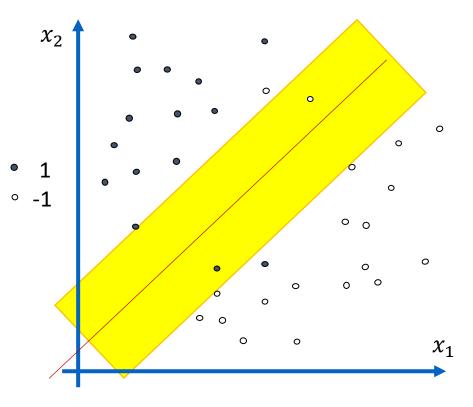
 α_i : Langrange multipliers which are non-zero for Support vectors k: Any support vector

Classifier: $f(x, \theta) = \theta = \sum \alpha_i y_i x_i^T x + b$

x: Test point to be classified

It relies on inner product between x_i and x

Linear SVC – Non Separable Case

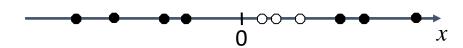


- In this case, some misclassification is allowed
- The error is measured by introducing slack variables into the optimization cost function
- A tunable parameter is also introduced to control the misclassification error to be allowed

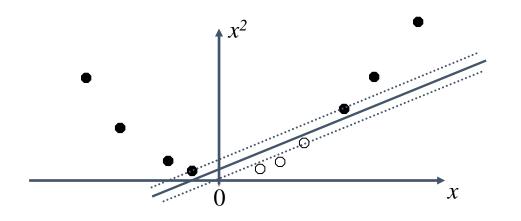
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \theta_0} \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} + C \sum_{i} \xi_i$$
s.t $y_i (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T x_i + \theta_0) \ge 1 - \xi_i$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

Non-Linear SVC

Consider 1D data shown in fig:



- No line can separate the two classes of points
- How about mapping them to a higher dimension space ?
- Say $x_1 = x$; $x_2 = x^2$
- In general, original features can be mapped to a higher dimension space : $x \to \phi(x)$ where they are linearly separable



Now they are linearly separable

Kernel Trick

- Transforming data to higher dimensional space and solving the optimization problem with transformed features is complicated and very expensive
- Instead we use something called 'kernel trick'
- Recall that inner product between pairs of data points is what is required to solve the optimization problem
- **Kernel is a function** which takes two data points as input and gives their inner product after they are transformed into a high-dimensional space

$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle$$

 So kernel trick refers to an efficient and less expensive way to transform data into higher dimensions

Kernel Example

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x_j) \rangle$$

Consider two points from a dataset with 2 features:

$$\mathbf{x_i} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i1} & x_{i2} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{x_i} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i1} & x_{i2} \end{bmatrix}$$

They are transformed to a 3-dimensional feature space

as follows:
$$\phi(x_i) = [x_{i1}^2 \quad \sqrt{2}x_{i1}x_{i2} \quad x_{i2}^2]$$
$$\phi(x_i) = [x_{i1}^2 \quad \sqrt{2}x_{i1}x_{i2} \quad x_{i2}^2]$$

Their dot product is given by:

$$x_{i1}^2 x_{j1}^2 + 2x_{i1}x_{i2}x_{j1}x_{j2} + x_{i2}^2 x_{j2}^2 = (x_i^T x_j)^2$$

• Therefore, kernel $k(x_j x_j) = (x_i^T x_j)^2$ directly gives the dot product of transformed features in 3-D space

Different Types of Kernels

- Some of the most popular kernels used in SVMs are:
 - 1. Linear Kernel: $K(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$
 - 2. Polynomial Kernel: $K(x_i, x_j) = (x_i^T x_j + 1)^d$
 - 3. Gaussian Kernel: $K(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j) = e^{\frac{-\|\boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{x}_j\|^2}{2\sigma}}$
 - 4. RBF Kernel: $K(x_i, x_j) = e^{-\gamma ||x_i x_j||^2}$; $\gamma > 0$
 - 5. Sigmoid Kernel: $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \tanh(a\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + b)$

Selection of Kernels

- There are no exact rules for selection of kernels
- Finding the best kernel for SVM is mostly done empirically by trial and error
- If the data is known to have linear relations, then linear SVM works best
- For non-linear SVM, Gaussian or RBF kernels are most popular
- Also every kernel has certain parameters which can be tuned to obtain a good SVM classifier
- Nevertheless, the selection of a kernel and its parameters depends on the distribution of data