Support vector machines and random forests

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Learning goals

At the end of this lecture you will:

- Have a general understanding of support vector machines for classification.
- Have a general understanding of machine learning methods based on decision trees (including random forests).

Materials:

► Chapters 9, 12 and 15 from Friedman et al., *The Elements of Statistical Learning*

Maximal margin classifier

Classification problem: find a hyperplane that separates the classes in feature space.

In p dimensions a hyperplane is a flat affine subspace of dimension p-1, with general equation.

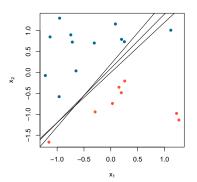
$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p = x^T \beta + \beta_0 = 0$$
 (1)

Where:

- $\beta_0 = 0$ only if the hyperplane goes through the origin
- ▶ the vector $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_p)$ is a unit vector. ($\|\beta\| = 1$) orthogonal to the surface of the hyperplane.

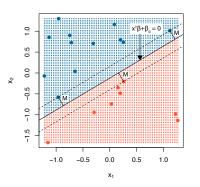
Maximal margin classifier

Imagine to have a training data of N pairs: $\{(x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2),\ldots,(x_N,y_N)\}$, with $x_i\in {\rm I\!R}^p$ and $y_i\in \{-1,1\}$. If the classes are perfectly separable, there are generally multiple hyperplanes that can separate them.



Maximal margin classifier

The *maximal margin classifier* is the one with biggest margin between the two classes.

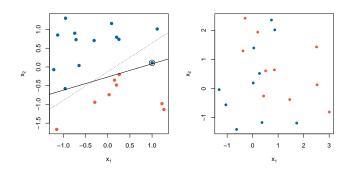


$$\max_{\beta,\beta_0,\|\beta\|=1} M$$
, subject to $y_i(x_i^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M, i = 1,\ldots,N$

Noisy or non-separable data

The maximal margin classifier has issues in case of:

- Noisy data with outliers leading to poor solution (left panel just added one data point to the previous example).
- ▶ Data non-separable by linear boundary (right panel).



Support vector classifier

The *support vector classifier* provides a solution by maximising a *soft* margin (regularization).

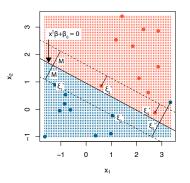
For this we can modify the optimization problem allowing some slack.

$$\max_{eta,eta_0,\|eta\|=1}M$$
, subject to $y_i(x_i^Teta+eta_0)\geq M(1-\xi_i), i=1,\ldots,N$

where $\xi_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \xi_i \leq C$. C is a constant that defines the budget we allow for the total amount of slack.

Support vector classifier

The *support vector classifier* provides a solution by maximising a *soft* margin.



$$\max_{\beta,\beta_0,\|\beta\|=1} M$$
, subject to $y_i(x_i^T\beta+\beta_0) \geq M(1-\xi_i), i=1,\ldots,N$

Support vector classifier: slack variables

The slack variables $\xi = (\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_N)$ tell us how much each point is allowed to be on the wrong side of its margin (relative amount).

- $\xi = 0$ when the *i*th observation is on the correct side of the margin
- $\xi > 0$ when the *i*th observation is on the wrong side of the margin
- $\xi > 1$ when the *i*th observation is on the wrong side of the hyperplane

Support vector classifier: regularization

The constant C (slack budget) is tunable and can be seen as a regularization parameter.

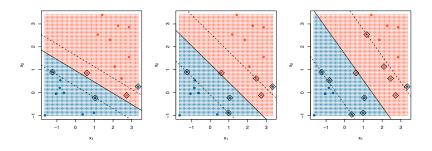
- ightharpoonup C = 0 no budget for violation of the margin (maximum margin classifier)
- ▶ increasing C allows more slack allowed (wider margins)

Therefore *C* controls the bias-variance trade-off:

- ▶ small $C \rightarrow$ narrow margins \rightarrow high fit to the data \rightarrow low bias, high variance
- ▶ large C → wide margins → more violation allowed → high bias, low variance

Support vector classifier: example

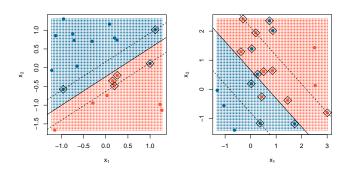
Example of support vector classifier for increasing values of C.



The *support points* (marked with diamonds), i.e. those with $\xi_i \neq 0$, are the only ones that determine the orientation of the margin.

Support vector classifier: noisy and non-separable data

The support vector classifier allows to have a good classifier in both the examples of noisy and non-separable data that we have seen earlier, where the maximal margin classifier was not working properly.



Support Vector Machines: Classification with non-linear decision boundaries

Extension of the Support vector classifier to handle **non-linear** class boundaries.

- ▶ Linear regression: use of quadratic and cubic terms.
- ► Support vector classifier: use of quadratic, cubic, and even higher-order polynomial functions of the predictors.

For instance, from p features to 2p features:

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_P, \quad \rightarrow \quad X_1, X_1^2, X_2, X_2^2, \dots, X_P, X_P^2$$

Then, the optimization problem would become:

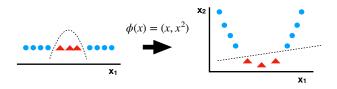
$$\max_{\beta,\beta_0,\|\beta\|=1} M, \text{ subject to } y_i(x_i^T \beta + x_i^2^T \beta + \beta_0) \geq M(1-\xi_i), i = 1,\ldots,N$$

where $\xi_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \xi_i \leq C$.



Why does this lead to a non-linear decision boundary?

- ► Enlarged feature space: linear decision boundary
- Original feature space: non-linear (quadratic polynomial)



Many possible ways to enlarge the feature space.

▶ Be careful with large number of features (computationally demanding).

The *support vector machine*(SVM): extension of the support vector classifier which enlarges the feature space by using **kernels**. Here, the kernel approach is a efficient computational methodology to enlarge the feature space.

Inner product definition: $\langle a, b \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_i b_i$,.

Observation: the solution to the support vector classifier problem involves only the inner products of the observations. The inner product of two observations x_i, x_i' is given by

$$\langle x_i, x_i' \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{i,j} x_{i,j}'$$

The linear support vector classifier can be represented as:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \langle x, x_i \rangle, i = 1, \dots, N$$

where there are n parameters α_i , one per training observation.



 α_i is nonzero only for the support vectors.

So if S is the collection of indices of these support points, we can rewrite f(x) which involves far fewer terms than before:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i \in S} \alpha_i \langle x, x_i \rangle,$$

Generalization of the inner product of the form:

$$K(x_i, x_i'),$$

where we refer to K as kernel. A kernel is a function that quantifies the similarity of two observations.

Linear kernel: $K(x_i, x_i') = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{i,j} x_{i,j}'$ Polynomial kernel of degree d: $K(x_i, x_i') = (1 + \sum_{j=1}^p x_{i,j} x_{i,j}')^d$ Radial kernel: $K(x_i, x_i') = exp(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{i,j} - x_{i,j}')^2)$

What is the advantage of using a kernel rather than simply enlarging the feature space using functions of the original features?

Computational advantage. We don't work in the enlarged feature space.

Extension to multi-class

So far, binary classification, in other words, two-class setting.

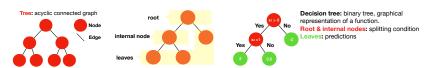
SVMs: concept of separating hyperplanes does not lend itself to more than two classes.

Two approaches for extending SVMs to K>2 classes classification:

- One-Versus-One Classification: (^K₂) SVMs comparing pair of classes. We assign the test observation to the class most frequently selected in these pairwise classification.
- ▶ One-Versus-All Classification: K SVMs, each time comparing one of the K classes to the remaining K-1 classes. We assign the test observation to the class (SVM in this case) with the best discrimination rule.

Decision tree

What does a decision tree represent?



How do we know what the optimal splitting point is at each node?

Objective function: maximize the Information Gain (IG)

$$IG(D_p, f) = I(D_p) - (\frac{N_{left}}{N_p}I(D_{left}) + \frac{N_{right}}{N_p}I(D_{right}))$$

The lower the impurity of the child nodes, the larger the information gain.

Classification Trees

Classification problem: a class vote for each tree, and then classifies using majority vote.

As impurity metric or splitting criteria:

Entropy :
$$E(t) = -\sum_{i=1}^{c} p(i|t)log_2p(i|t)$$

Gini impurity :
$$i(t) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{c} p^{2}(i|t)$$

where p(i|t) is the proportion of the samples that belong to class c for node t.

Regression Trees

Regression problem: the predictions from each tree at a target point x are simply averaged.

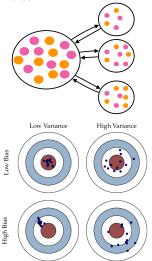
As impurity metric or splitting criteria:

Mean square error :
$$MSE(t) = -\frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{i \in D_t} (y^{(i)} - \hat{y}^t)^2$$

where N_t is the number of training samples at node t, D_t is the training subset at node t, y(i) is the true target value, and \hat{y}^t is the predicted target value

Bagging or bootstrap aggregation

Decision trees can become much more powerful when used as ensembles.



- ► The samples are drawn with replacement.
- High-variance, low-bias procedures, such as trees.
- ► From Understanding the Bias-Variance tradeoff, by Scott Fortmann Roe.
- ► The entire forest will have lower variance but not at the cost of increasing the bias.

Random Forests: motivation

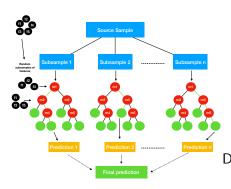
A way of bagging decision trees: combining the predictions of n different models, each of which having profound different insights into the relationships of the data.

Trees are appropriate for bagging: high-variance, low-bias procedures.

Random Forests builds a large collection of de-correlated trees, and then averages them. It brings in the insights from each of them. So this idea is called **Ensembling**.

Ensemblubg is a machine learning technique, both for regression and classification tasks. It can also be used for feature selection.

Random Forests: algorithm



Workflow:

- Bootstrap sampling: to grow the tree, a random subsample of the total dataset is used.
- Model building: a random subset of all features is chosen as a "splitter variable".
- ► Bootstrap aggregating
- Details:
 - Out of Bag Samples
 - Variable Importance
 - Overfitting

Random Forests are popular

Advantages:

- Small sample size
- High-dimensional feature space
- Complex data structures

Applications:

 Predicting drug responses for cancer cell lines [Riddick et al., Bioinformatics, 2010.]

Genomic characterizations \rightarrow Large number of features

- ightarrow RF utilize the top features based on bootstrap aggregation
- \rightarrow Good performance.