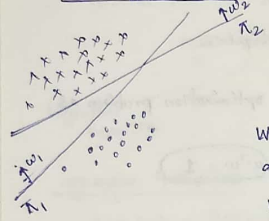


## SVM (Support Vector Machines)

### Geometric Intuition



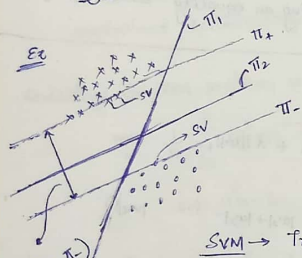
there will be many possible hyperplanes that separate positive (+ve) pts from (-ve) pts.

We had learnt in LR that the probability of a point belonging to any class given it is very close to the hyperplane will be close to 0.5

So, we want a hyperplane that separates (+ve) pts and (-ve) pts as far away as possible.

### Key Idea of SVM

such an hyperplane is called margin-maximizing hyperplane.



$\pi_2$  better than  $\pi_1$ .

$\pi_+$  → parallel to  $\pi$  & touches the closest (+ve) point to  $\pi$ .

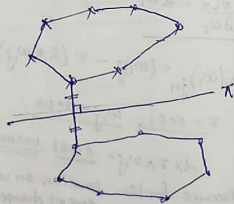
$\pi_-$  → parallel to  $\pi$  & touches the closest (-ve) point to  $\pi$ .

SVM → Try to find a  $\pi$  that maximizes the margin ( $\text{dist}(\pi_+, \pi_-)$ ).

\* The pts through which  $\pi_+$  &  $\pi_-$  pass through are called support vectors.

### Alternative geometric formulation of SVM

- 1) Perform convex-hull of (+ve) & (-ve) pts.
- 2) find the shortest line connecting these hulls.
- 3) Bisect it.



### Mathematical formulation

We need to find a hyperplane

$\pi$ : - margin maximizing.

$\pi$ :  $w^T x + b = 0$  ( $w$  not necessarily unit vector).

$\pi_+$ :  $w^T x + b = 1$

$\pi_-$ :  $w^T x + b = -1$

By simple  $w$ -coordinate concept we can get

$$d = \frac{2}{\|w\|_2}$$

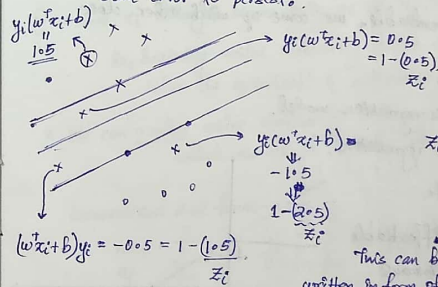
So, we have to maximize 'd' with the constraint that all (+ve) pts lie above  $\pi_+$  & all (-ve) pts below  $\pi_-$ .

So, the optimization function becomes

$$\text{constraint optimization problem} \left\{ \begin{aligned} (w^*, b^*) &= \underset{(w, b)}{\text{argmax}} \frac{2}{\|w\|} \quad \text{--- margin} \\ \text{s.t. } y_i (w^T x_i + b) &\geq 1 \quad \forall x_i \in D_{\text{train}} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \text{--- Hard-margin SVM constraint}$$

But what if we have a dataset that's not linearly separable but almost linearly separable?

→ We formulate an alternative soft-margin constraint that allows some error to persist.



We define a new metric  $\xi_i$  for all pts such that

$$\xi_i = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for correctly classified i.e. } y_i (w^T x_i + b) \geq 1. \\ \xi_i > 0 & \text{is proportional to dist away from the correct hyperplane } (\pi_+ \text{ or } \pi_-), \\ & \text{for incorrectly classified pts.} \end{cases}$$

$$y_i (w^T x_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i$$

correctly & incorrectly wrt  $\pi_+$  &  $\pi_-$  considered here.

Now, we want to minimize these errors.

So, our optimization function becomes

$$\arg \min_{w, b} \left( \frac{\|w\|^2}{2} + c \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \right)$$

$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \rightarrow$  avg dist of misclassified pts. (loss)  
 $\frac{1}{\|w\|} \rightarrow$  margin.  
 $c \rightarrow$  hyper-parameter.

$$\text{set: } y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \quad \forall i \quad \text{hinge-loss}$$

def<sup>n</sup> of  $\xi_i$   $\rightarrow$   $\xi_i \geq 0$  this is soft-margin formulation of SVM.

$c \uparrow \Rightarrow$  tendency to make mistakes  $\downarrow \Rightarrow$  overfit  $\Rightarrow$  high variance on train

$c \downarrow \Rightarrow$  underfit  $\Rightarrow$  high bias.

$$c = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

### Loss-minimization interpretation

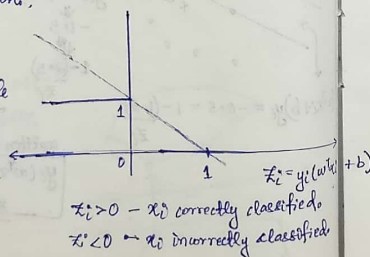
We earlier saw that 0-1 loss is ideal ~~loss~~ function. But due to it being non-differentiable, we come up with other close approximate loss functions.

logistic loss gives  $\rightarrow$  Logistic regression model.

squared loss gives  $\rightarrow$  linear regression.

hinge loss gives  $\rightarrow$  SVM.

\* Although hinge loss also isn't differentiable at  $\xi_i = 1$ , but since it is continuous unlike 0-1 loss, we can work around hacks to work with it.



$$\text{hinge-loss} = 0, \xi_i \geq 1, \quad 1 - \xi_i, \xi_i < 1$$

$$\text{Alternatively, hinge-loss} = \max(0, 1 - \xi_i)$$

### Dual form of SVM

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{w, b} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + c \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ \text{set: } & y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \quad \forall i \\ & \xi_i \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad \left| \quad \begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha_i} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j \\ \text{set: } & \alpha_i \geq 0 \\ & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{aligned} \right.$$

Primal form of Soft-margin SVM. Dual form of Soft-margin SVM.

Important observations from dual-form formulation.

- ① for every  $\xi_i$ , we have an  $\alpha_i$
- ②  $\xi_i$ 's only occur in the form of  $\xi_i^T x_j$ .

In solving we get the model as

$$f(x_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i x_i^T x_q + b$$

for non SV,  $\alpha_i = 0$ .  
So, for  $f(x_q) \rightarrow$  only the support vectors matter.

③  $\alpha_i > 0$  only for support vectors, else 0.

④ since  $\xi_i$  always occurs only as  $\xi_i^T x_j \Rightarrow x_i \cdot x_j \Rightarrow \cos(\text{sim}(x_i, x_j))$ .  
So, basically cosine similarity values are only required to solve the optimization & ultimately get the model.

\* We can replace cosine-similarity with any other kind of similarity which makes it much more powerful.

generalized dual form  $\rightarrow$

$$\max_{\alpha_i} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j)$$

called kernel functions  
can be any kind of similarity b/w  $x_i$  &  $x_j$ .

Even during evaluation  $\alpha_i$  occurs only as  $\xi_i^T x_q$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \underbrace{x_i^T x_q}_{\rightarrow K(x_i, x_q)} + b$$

So, we can use similarity values for even prediction as well.



## Kernel trick

Intuitively if we see, SVM & LR are very similar.

\* The most important idea of SVM is the kernel trick.

Kernel trick → replacing  $x_i^T x_j$  with a generalized similarity function  $k(x_i, x_j)$ .

This gives SVM potential to perform in non-linear datasets.



linear-SVM — fail.

log-reg — fail.

log-reg + feature transform — succeed.

kernel SVM + right kernel — succeed.

Just like in feature transform, we map data pts to a new space, similarly, the kernel in SVM does the mapping & then tries to find a hyperplane in that mapped space.

## Polynomial Kernel

Given circular data like above, we can

① handle using feature transforms.

$$(f_1, f_2) \xrightarrow{F, T_1} (f_1^2, f_2^2) \rightarrow$$

② fit right kernel.

General polynomial kernel of form —

$$k(x_1, x_2) = (x_1^T x_2 + c)^d$$

A quadratic kernel can be written as.

$$k(x_1, x_2) = (x_1^T x_2 + 1)^2 \quad \text{assuming } c = 1.$$

$$\text{let } \tilde{x}_1 = \langle x_{11}, x_{12} \rangle \text{ \& } \tilde{x}_2 = \langle x_{21}, x_{22} \rangle$$

$$k(x_1, x_2) = (1 + x_{11}x_{21} + x_{12}x_{22})^2$$

$$= 1 + x_{11}^2 x_{21}^2 + x_{12}^2 x_{22}^2 + 2x_{11}x_{21} + 2x_{12}x_{22} + 2x_{11}x_{21}x_{12}x_{22}$$

$$\text{Say } \langle 1, x_{11}^2, x_{12}^2, \sqrt{2}x_{11}, \sqrt{2}x_{12}, \sqrt{2}x_{11}x_{12} \rangle \rightarrow x_1'$$

$$\langle 1, x_{21}^2, x_{22}^2, \sqrt{2}x_{21}, \sqrt{2}x_{22}, \sqrt{2}x_{21}x_{22} \rangle \rightarrow x_2'$$

Then the product we have got due to quadratic kernel is equivalent to  $x_1'^T x_2'$ .

\* So, the kernel basically internally 1st maps  $x_1$  &  $x_2$  to  $x_1'$  &  $x_2'$  and then finds their similarity (cosine).

$$\text{kernelization} \rightarrow d \xrightarrow[\text{internally}]{\text{feature transform}} d' \quad (d' > d)$$

\* In our example we went from 2-D data to 6-D data.

That's what Merces's theorem says.

It says Kernel trick is basically nothing but

$$d \xrightarrow[\text{transform}]{\text{implicit}} d' \quad (d' > d).$$

data linearly separable in this space.

The challenge is to select the right kernels.

## RBF-Kernel (Radial Basis Function).

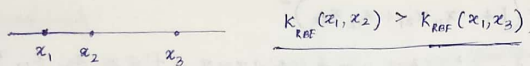
most popular and general purpose kernel.

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{\|x_1 - x_2\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

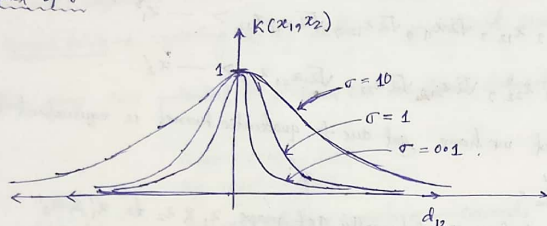
hyperparameter.

$$K(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{e^{d_{12}^2/2\sigma^2}}$$

$$d_{12} \uparrow, K(x_1, x_2) \downarrow$$



Impact of  $\sigma$



for ~~large~~ small  $\sigma$ , the kernel value (similarity value) decreases very quickly with increasing distance.

Whereas for large  $\sigma$ , the kernel value decreases gradually, slowly.

So, small  $\sigma$  is similar to small 'k' in KNN. — considering very few closest neighbours

large  $\sigma \Rightarrow$  large k  $\rightarrow$  considering more neighbours which are even a bit farther.

K-NN works pretty good but its biggest drawback is runtime ~~too~~ complexity

$\rightarrow$  needs to store all the datapoints.

or if optimised, LSH.

In RBF-SVM, we just need to store  $\alpha_i$ 's of SVs.

That's it.

And usually, #SVs  $\ll n$

If can't decide which kernels go with RBF.

2 hyperparameters —  $c, \sigma$  — Random Search

## Domain Specific Kernels

\* With research over the years we have come up with domain specific kernels.

Ex  $\rightarrow$  String kernels for text classification,  
genome kernels (Bioinformatics),  
graph kernels (for graph-data).

Domain knowledge + Appropriate feature transformations  $\rightarrow$  custom-domain specific kernels.

## Train and Runtime Complexity

Train:- SGD (Stochastic Gradient Descent)

Specialised algo to solve dual form  $\rightarrow$  sequential minimal optimization (SMO).

libSVM  $\rightarrow$  best library for training SVM.

(C/C++)

Training Time:-  $O(n^2)$  for Kernel SVMs.

(root):-  $O(nd^2)$  if  $d \ll n$

If  $n$  is large,  $O(n^2) \uparrow \uparrow$

So, typically don't use SVM when  $n$  is large.

Runtime:-  $f(x_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(x_i, x_q) + b$ .

$\uparrow$  depends on

#SVs =  $k$  (say)

then runtime complexity =  $O(kd)$   $1 \leq k \leq n$

logistic regression runtime —  $O(d)$

In normal SVM we have no control over no. of support vectors

### nu-SVM

c-SVM - original formulation.  $c$  - hyperparameter  $c \geq 0$

nu-SVM - alternative formulation. nu - hyperparameter  $0 \leq \nu \leq 1$

$$\nu \geq \text{fraction of errors}$$

$$\nu \leq \text{fraction of SVs}$$

Ex- if we want to ~~have~~ permit an error of 10% in worst case,

$$\nu = 0.1$$

Also, #SVs is greater than 10% of  $n$ .

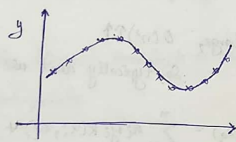
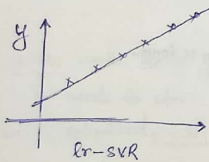
We can have an upper bound on error, but not on #SVs.

### Support Vector Regression (SVR)

$$\text{Maths: } \min_{w, b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \begin{cases} |y_i - (w^T x_i + b)| \leq \epsilon \\ |w^T x_i + b - y_i| \leq \epsilon \end{cases}$$

$\epsilon \geq 0$   
hyper-parameter.

This can also be kernelized.



$\epsilon \downarrow \Rightarrow$  errors low on training data  $\Rightarrow$  overfit  $\uparrow \Rightarrow$  high variance

$\epsilon \uparrow \Rightarrow$  errors on  $D_{\text{train}}$  higher  $\Rightarrow$  underfit  $\Rightarrow$  high bias.

### Real world cases

feature eng & transformation  $\rightarrow$  kernel design, finding the right kernel

decision surface  $\rightarrow$  lr. SVM  $\rightarrow$  hyperplane.

kernel SVM  $\rightarrow$   $d' x_i \rightarrow$  non-linear surface

$d' x_i' \rightarrow$  linear surface.

### Similarity matrix

Interpretability and feature importance -

for lr. SVM, same as LOR.

for kernel SVM, difficult.

Outliers  $\rightarrow$  generally v. little impact.

exception  $\times$  RBF with small  $\sigma$  = KNN with small  $k$ .

Bias-variance  $\rightarrow$   $c \uparrow \Rightarrow$  overfit

$c \downarrow \Rightarrow$  underfit.

large  $d \rightarrow$  v. good for SVMs. as SVMs eventually map to higher dimensions only.

Best case  $\rightarrow$  have right kernel

worst case  $\rightarrow$   $n$  is large  $\rightarrow$  high train time

#SVs large  $\rightarrow$  low latency not possible.