

ANALYTIX LABS

**Machine Learning:
Support Vector Machines
(SVM)**

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What we will cover today

1. **SVM: Basics**
2. **How SVM Works**
 - The Support Vector Classifier (Linear Classifier)
 - The Support Vector Machine Classifier (Non Linear Classifier)
 - Kernels
3. **A Case Example**

SVM—Support Vector Machines

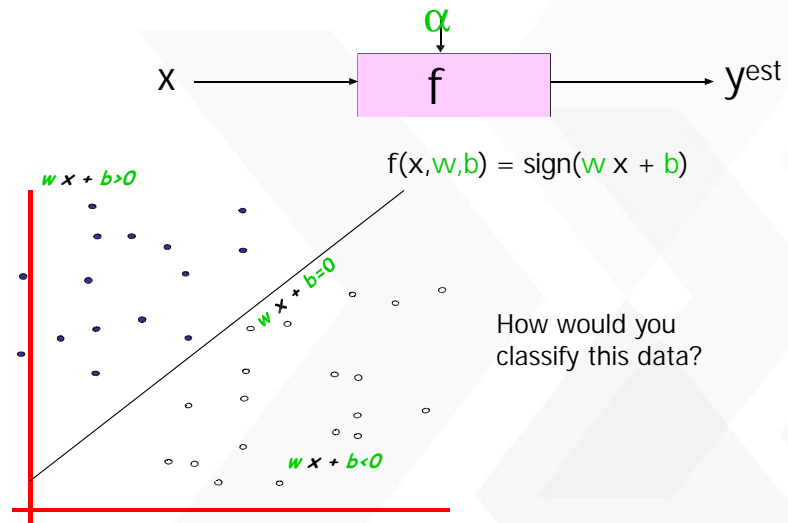
- SVM is a supervised learning method
- A relatively new classification method for both linear and nonlinear data
- It uses a nonlinear mapping to transform the original training data into a higher dimension
- With the new dimension, it searches for the linear optimal separating hyperplane (i.e., “decision boundary”)
- With an appropriate nonlinear mapping to a sufficiently high dimension, data from two classes can always be separated by a hyperplane
- SVM finds this hyperplane using support vectors (“essential” training tuples) and margins (defined by the support vectors)
- Computationally intensive and usually gives higher accuracy

SVM—History and Applications

- Vapnik and colleagues (1992)—groundwork from Vapnik & Chervonenkis’ statistical learning theory in 1960s
- Features: training can be slow but accuracy is high owing to their ability to model complex nonlinear decision boundaries (margin maximization)
- Used both for classification and regression
- Applications:
 - handwritten digit recognition, object recognition, speaker identification, text mining, benchmarking time-series prediction tests

Linear Classifier

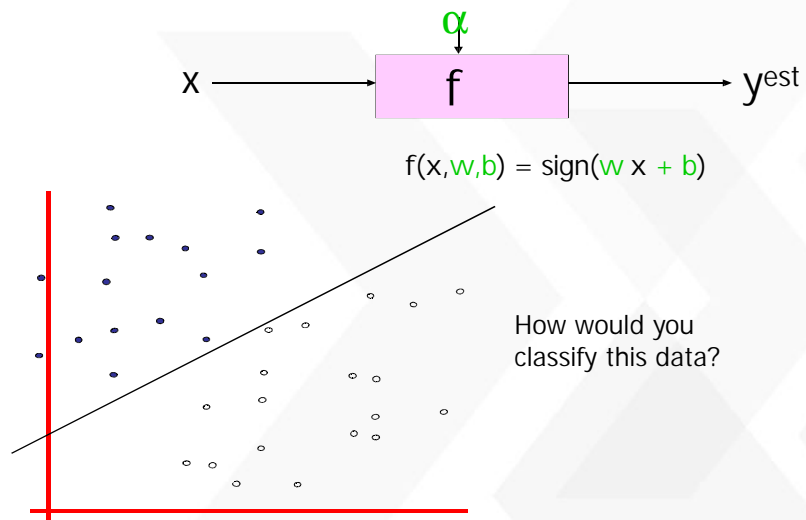
- denotes +1
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Linear Classifier

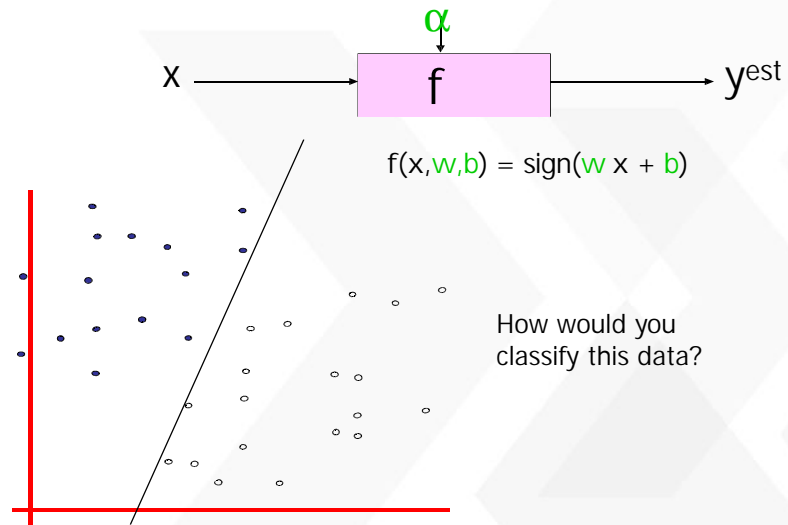
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Linear Classifier

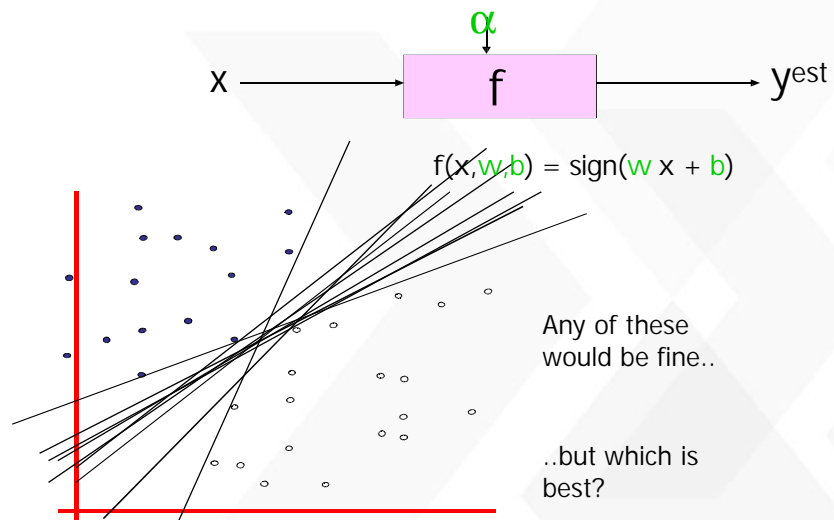
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Linear Classifier

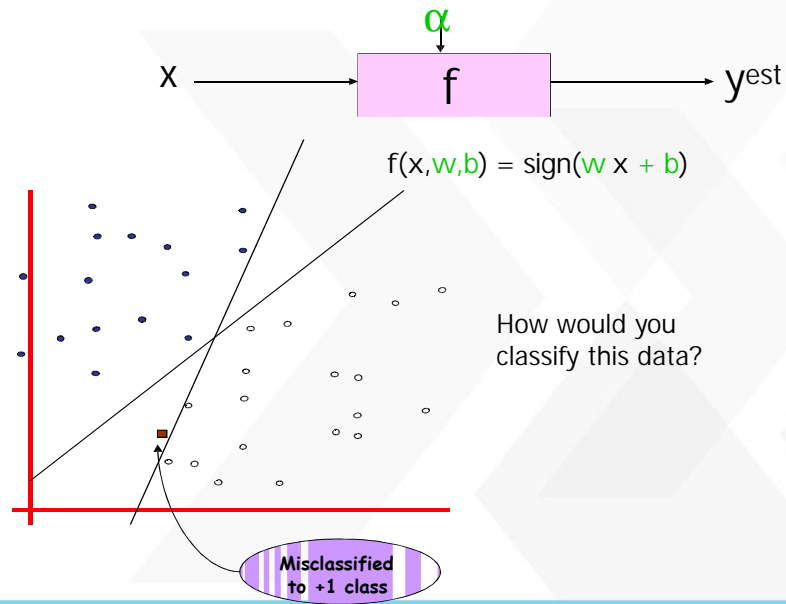
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Linear Classifier

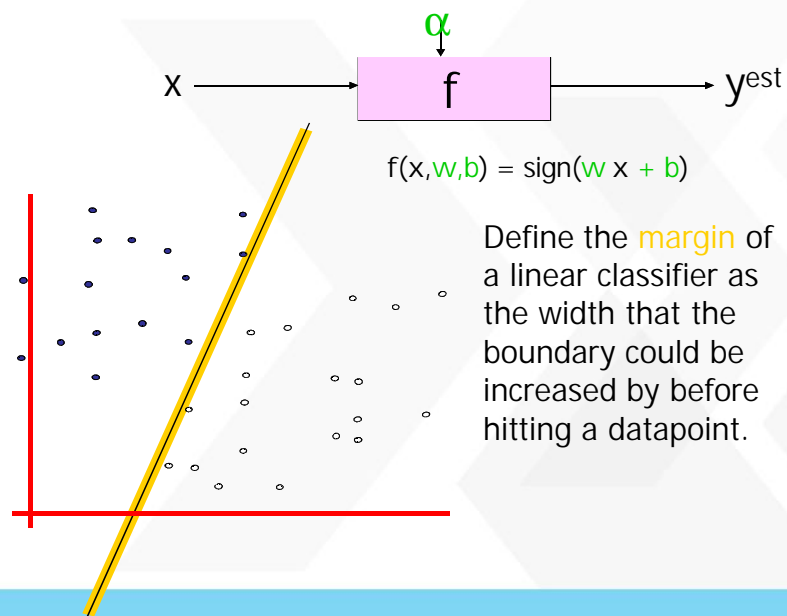
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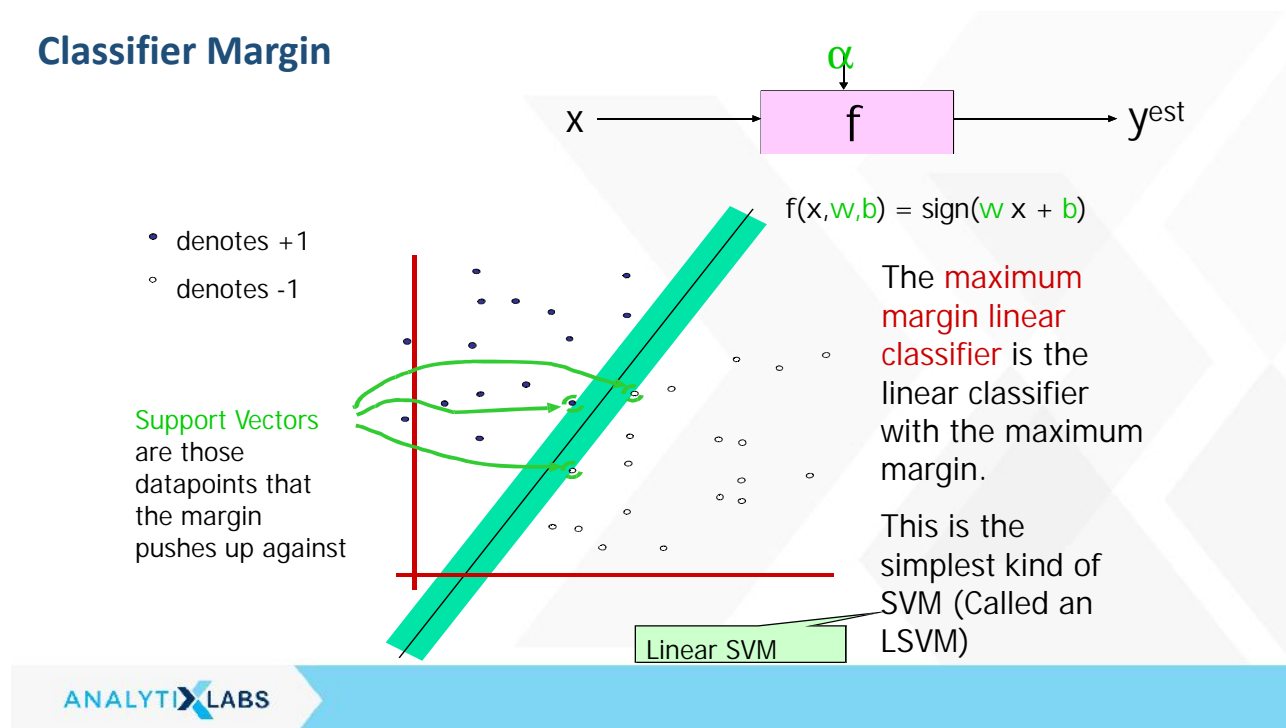
Classifier Margin

- denotes +1
- denotes -1

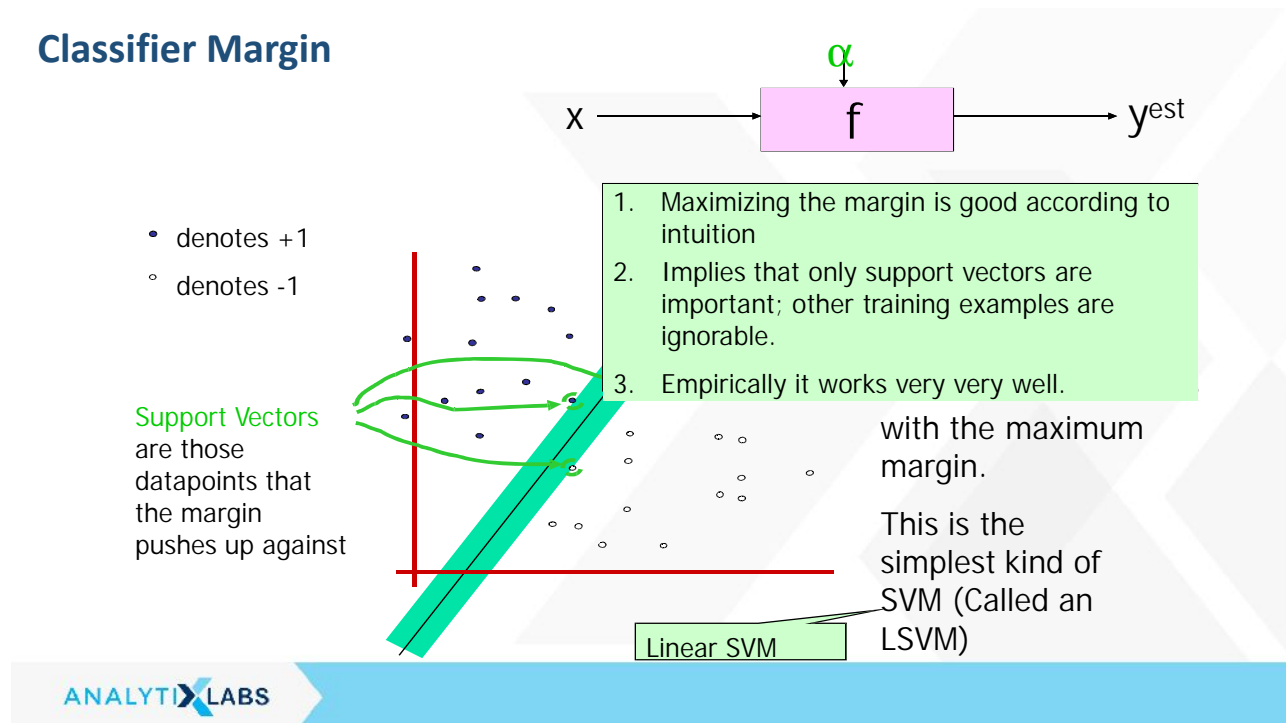


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Classifier Margin



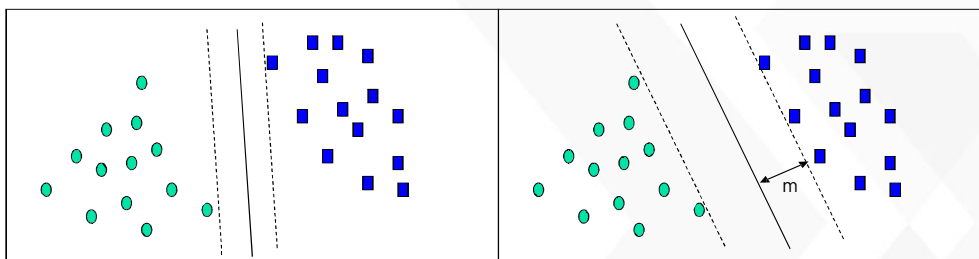
Classifier Margin



Separable Hyperplanes

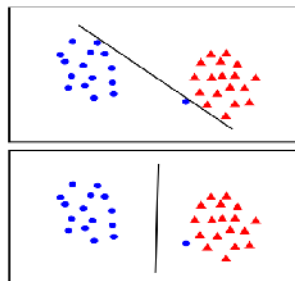
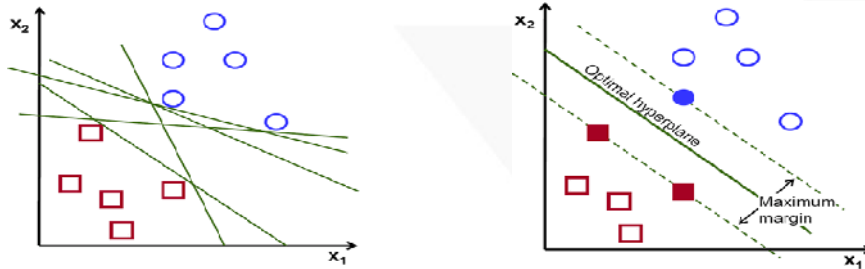
- Imagine a situation where you have a two class classification problem with two predictors X_1 and X_2 .
- Suppose that the two classes are “linearly separable” i.e. one can draw a straight line in which all points on one side belong to the first class and points on the other side to the second class.
- Then a natural approach is to find the straight line that gives the biggest separation between the classes i.e. the points are as far from the line as possible
- This is the basic idea of a support vector classifier.

SVM—When Data Is Linearly Separable



- ✓ Let data D be $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_{|D|}, y_{|D|})$, where \mathbf{x}_i is the set of training tuples associated with the class labels y_i
- ✓ There are infinite lines (hyperplanes) separating the two classes but we want to find the best one (the one that minimizes classification error on unseen data)
- ✓ SVM searches for the hyperplane with the largest margin, i.e., **maximum marginal hyperplane(MMH)**

Large Margin Intuition Effect



• the points can be linearly separated but there is a very narrow margin

C is large then – overfitting

• but possibly the large margin solution is better, even though one constraint is violated

C is low then – underfitting

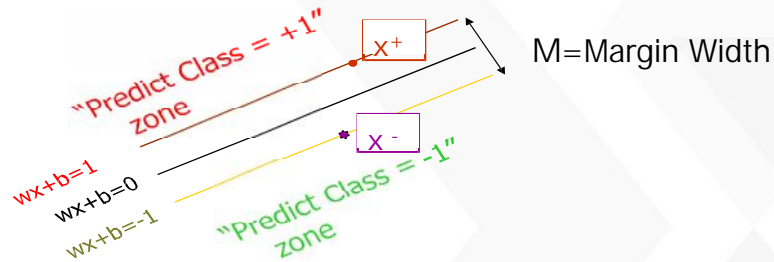
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SVM—Linearly Separable

- A separating hyperplane can be written as $W \cdot X + b = 0$
 - where $W = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n\}$ is a weight vector and b a scalar (bias)
 - For 2-D it can be written as $w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 = 0$
 - The hyperplane defining the sides of the margin:
 - $H_1: w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 \geq 1$ for $y_i = +1$, and
 - $H_2: w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 \leq -1$ for $y_i = -1$
- Any training tuples that fall on hyperplanes H_1 or H_2 (i.e., the sides defining the margin) are **support vectors**
- This becomes a **constrained (convex) quadratic optimization** problem: Quadratic objective function and linear constraints -> *Quadratic Programming (QP)* -> *Lagrangian multiplier*

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Linear SVM Mathematically



What we know:

- $w \cdot x^+ + b = +1$
- $w \cdot x^- + b = -1$
- $w \cdot (x^+ - x^-) = 2$

$$M = \frac{(x^+ - x^-) \cdot w}{|w|} = \frac{2}{|w|}$$

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Linear SVM Mathematically

- Goal: 1) Correctly classify all training data

$$wx_i + b \geq 1$$

$$wx_i + b \leq -1$$

$$y_i (wx_i + b) \geq 1$$

2) Maximize the Margin

same as minimize

if $y_i = +1$

if $y_i = -1$

for all i

$$M = \frac{2}{|w|}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} w^t w$$

- We can formulate a Quadratic Optimization Problem and solve for w and b

Minimize	$\Phi(w) = \frac{1}{2} w^t w$
subject to	$y_i (wx_i + b) \geq 1 \quad \forall i$

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Solving the Optimization Problem

Find \mathbf{w} and b such that
 $\Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$ is minimized;
 and for all $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}$: $y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1$

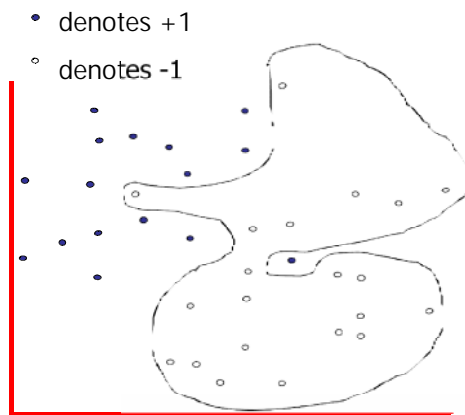
- Need to optimize a *quadratic* function subject to *linear* constraints.
- Quadratic optimization problems are a well-known class of mathematical programming problems, and many (rather intricate) algorithms exist for solving them.
- The solution involves constructing a *dual problem* where a *Lagrange multiplier* α_i is associated with every constraint in the primary problem:

Find $\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_N$ such that
 $Q(\alpha) = \sum \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum \sum \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$ is maximized and
 (1) $\sum \alpha_i y_i = 0$
 (2) $\alpha_i \geq 0$ for all α_i

Optimizing a Quadratic function with linear Constraints

Find \mathbf{w} and b such that
 $\Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$ is minimized;
 and for all $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}$: $y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1$

Dataset with noise



- **Hard Margin:** So far we require all data points be classified correctly
 - No training error
- What if the training set is noisy?

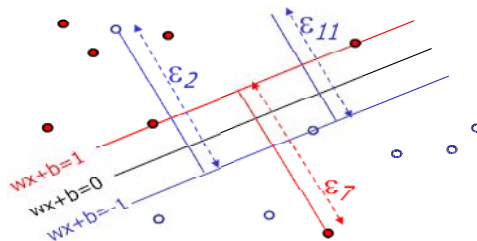
OVERFITTING!

- Solution: use very powerful kernels

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Soft Margin Classification

Slack variables ξ_i can be added to allow misclassification of difficult or noisy examples.



What should our quadratic optimization criterion be?

Minimize

$$\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{w} + C \sum_{k=1}^R \xi_k$$

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Hard Margin v.s. Soft Margin

- The old formulation:

Find \mathbf{w} and b such that
 $\Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$ is minimized and for all $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}$
 $y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1$

- The new formulation incorporating slack variables:

Find \mathbf{w} and b such that
 $\Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + C \sum_i \xi_i$ is minimized and for all $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}$
 $y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i$ and $\xi_i \geq 0$ for all i

- Parameter C can be viewed as a way to control overfitting.

Linear SVMs: Overview

- The classifier is a *separating hyperplane*.
- Most “important” training points are support vectors; they define the hyperplane.
- Quadratic optimization algorithms can identify which training points \mathbf{x}_i are support vectors with non-zero Lagrangian multipliers α_i .
- Both in the dual formulation of the problem and in the solution training points appear only inside dot products:

Find $\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_N$ such that
 $Q(\alpha) = \sum \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum \sum \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$ is maximized and
 (1) $\sum \alpha_i y_i = 0$
 (2) $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C$ for all α_i

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b$$

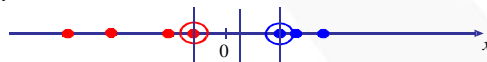
Why Is SVM Effective on High Dimensional Data?

- The complexity of trained classifier is characterized by the # of support vectors rather than the dimensionality of the data
- The support vectors are the essential or critical training examples —they lie closest to the decision boundary (MMH)
- If all other training examples are removed and the training is repeated, the same separating hyperplane would be found
- The number of support vectors found can be used to compute an (upper) bound on the expected error rate of the SVM classifier, which is independent of the data dimensionality
- Thus, an SVM with a small number of support vectors can have good generalization, even when the dimensionality of the data is high

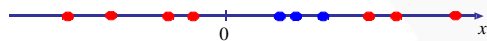
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SVM—Linearly Inseparable

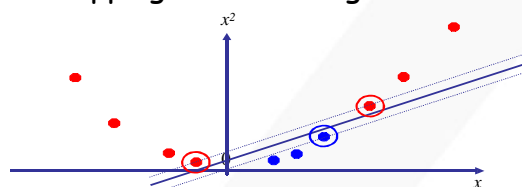
- Datasets that are linearly separable with some noise work out great:



- But what are we going to do if the dataset is just too hard?



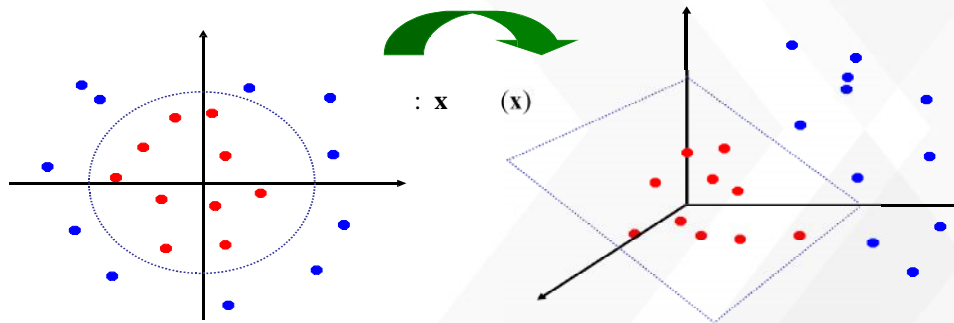
- How about... mapping data to a higher-dimensional space:



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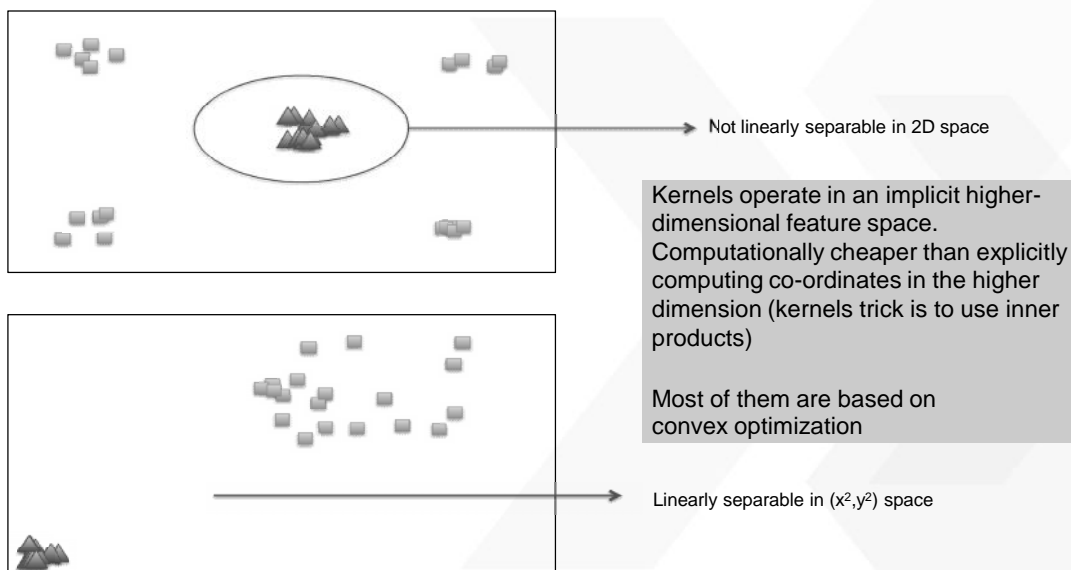
SVM—Linearly Inseparable

- General idea: The original input space can always be mapped to some higher-dimensional feature space where the training set is separable:



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Kernels - Motivation



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Non-Linear Classifier: Basis Function

- The support vector classifier is fairly easy to think about. However, because it only allows for a linear decision boundary it may not be all that powerful.
- We extended linear regression to non-linear regression using a basis function i.e.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 b_1(X_i) + \beta_2 b_2(X_i) + \dots + \beta_p b_p(X_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

Non Linear Classifier: A Basis Approach

- Conceptually, we can take a similar approach with the support vector classifier.
- The support vector classifier finds the optimal hyper-plane in the space spanned by X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p .
- Instead we can create transformations (or a basis) $b_1(x), b_2(x), \dots, b_M(x)$ and find the optimal hyper-plane in the space spanned by $b_1(\mathbf{X}), b_2(\mathbf{X}), \dots, b_M(\mathbf{X})$.
- This approach produces a linear plane in the transformed space but a non-linear decision boundary in the original space.
- This is called the Support Vector Machine Classifier.

In Reality: Kernel Function=Basis Function

- While conceptually the basis approach is how the support vector machine works, there is some complicated math (which I will spare you) which means that we don't actually choose $b_1(x)$, $b_2(x)$, ..., $b_M(x)$.
- Instead we choose something called a Kernel function which takes the place of the basis.
- Common kernel functions include
 - Linear
 - Polynomial
 - Radial Basis
 - Sigmoid

Non Linear Classifier: Kernel Function in mathematical way

- The linear classifier relies on dot product between vectors $K(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$
- If every data point is mapped into high-dimensional space via some transformation $\Phi: x \rightarrow \phi(x)$, the dot product becomes:

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$$
- A *kernel function* is some function that corresponds to an inner product in some expanded feature space.
- Example: 2-dimensional vectors $x = [x_1 \ x_2]$; let $K(x_i, x_j) = (1 + x_i^T x_j)^2$, Need to show that $K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 K(x_i, x_j) &= (1 + x_i^T x_j)^2, \\
 &= 1 + x_{i1}^2 x_{j1}^2 + 2 x_{i1} x_{j1} x_{i2} x_{j2} + x_{i2}^2 x_{j2}^2 + 2 x_{i1} x_{j1} + 2 x_{i2} x_{j2} \\
 &= (x_i)^T (x_j), \quad \text{where } (x) = [1 \ x_{i1}^2 \ 2 x_{i1} x_{i2} \ x_{i2}^2 \ 2 x_{i1} \ 2 x_{i2}]
 \end{aligned}$$

What Functions are Kernels?

- For some functions $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ checking that

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \text{ can be cumbersome.}$$

- Mercer's theorem: Every semi-positive definite symmetric function is a kernel
- Semi-positive definite symmetric functions correspond to a semi-positive definite symmetric Gram matrix:

$$K = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) & K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_3) & \dots & K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \hline K(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_1) & K(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_2) & K(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3) & & K(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \hline \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \hline K(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_1) & K(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_2) & K(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_3) & \dots & K(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Examples of Kernel Functions

- Linear: $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$
- Polynomial of power p : $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = (1 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j)^p$
- Gaussian (radial-basis function network):

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
- Sigmoid: $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \tanh(\beta_0 \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \beta_1)$

SVMs Training with Kernels

$$\min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \text{cost}_1(\theta^T f^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \text{cost}_0(\theta^T f^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2$$

- Now, we minimize using f as the feature vector instead of x
- By solving this minimization problem you get the parameters for your SVM
- Linear Kernel (Means no kernel)
 - Appropriate when high dimensional features and few examples
 - Avoid overfitting
- Gaussian Kernel
 - When low dimensional features and N is large
 - Variable normalization (Feature Scaling)
- Polynomial Kernel, String Kernel, Chi-squared Kernel, Histogram intersection Kernel

Non-linear SVMs Mathematically

Dual problem formulation: Find

$i=1 \dots N$ such that

$Q(\alpha) = \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j)$ is maximized and

(1) $\alpha_i \geq 0$

(2) $\alpha_i = 0$ for all i

- The solution is:

$$f(x) = \sum_i \alpha_i K(x, x_i) + b$$

- Optimization techniques for finding α_i 's remain the same!

Nonlinear SVM – Overview Summary

- SVM locates a separating hyperplane in the feature space and classify points in that space
- It does not need to represent the space explicitly, simply by defining a kernel function
- The kernel function plays the role of the dot product in the feature space.

SVM (Good to Know Things)

- If n (features) is large vs. m (training set)
- e.g. text classification problem
 - Feature vector dimension is 10 000
 - Training set is 10 - 1000
 - Then use logistic regression or SVM with a linear kernel
- If n is small and m is intermediate
 - $n = 1 - 1000$
 - $m = 10 - 10\,000$
- Gaussian kernel is good
- If n is small and m is large
 - $n = 1 - 1000$
 - $m = 50\,000+$
- SVM will be slow to run with Gaussian kernel
- In that case
 - Manually create or add more features
 - Use logistic regression or SVM with a linear kernel
- Logistic regression and SVM with a linear kernel are pretty similar
- SVM has a convex optimization problem - so you get a global minimum

Weakness of SVM

- It is sensitive to noise
 - A relatively small number of mislabeled examples can dramatically decrease the performance
- It only considers two classes
 - how to do multi-class classification with SVM?
 - Answer:
 - 1) with output Classes m , learn m SVM's
 - SVM 1 learns "Output==1" vs "Output != 1"
 - SVM 2 learns "Output==2" vs "Output != 2"
 - :
 - SVM m learns "Output== m " vs "Output != m "
 - (This strategy for prediction of multi-class problems using binary classifiers is known as One-against-all)
 - 2) To predict the output for a new input, just predict with each SVM and find out which one puts the prediction the furthest into the positive region.

Some Issues

- Choice of kernel
 - Gaussian or polynomial kernel is default
 - if ineffective, more elaborated kernels are needed
 - domain experts can give assistance in formulating appropriate similarity measures
- Choice of kernel parameters
 - e.g. σ in Gaussian kernel
 - σ is the distance between closest points with different classifications
 - In the absence of reliable criteria, applications rely on the use of a validation set or cross-validation to set such parameters.
- Optimization criterion – Hard margin v.s. Soft margin
 - a lengthy series of experiments in which various parameters are tested

SVM vs. Neural Network

- Neural Network
 - Relatively old
 - Nondeterministic algorithm
 - Generalizes well but doesn't have strong mathematical foundation
 - Can easily be learned in incremental fashion
 - To learn complex functions—use multilayer perceptron (not that trivial)
- SVM
 - Relatively new concept
 - Deterministic algorithm
 - Nice Generalization properties
 - Hard to learn – learned in batch mode using quadratic programming techniques
 - Using kernels can learn very complex functions

A Case Example

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