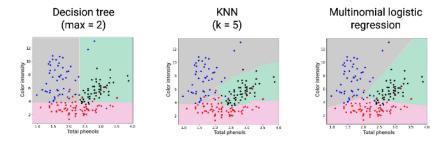
1 Module 16: Support Vector Machines

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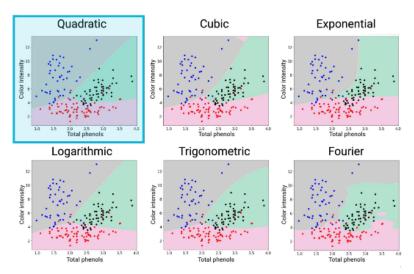
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1.1 Nonlinear Features

First-order regression methods (KNN probably overfit):



For Multinomial Logistic Regression, nonlin. ft. 'bend' boundaries.



Choosing nonlinear functions:

- Intuition of the problem characteristics
- Generate many features & use regularization (LASSO, etc.) to prune them.

1.2 Kernel Trick

Map linearly inseparable data to a new space which is more easily separable.

Algorithms depend on the "similarity" (dot product) of data points: how data is arranged geometrically in space. \rightarrow Any algo. depending only on geometry can be recast wrt. dot products & replaced with kernel fcn.

Approach:

For a linear regression $y(x_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \phi(x_i) + \dots$ with M-1 features and M coefficients:

$$\phi(x_i) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \phi_1(x_i) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_{M-1}(x_i) \end{bmatrix}, \ \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{M-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
for regression $y(x_i) = \beta^T \phi(x_i)$ (1)

We want to minimize the quadratic loss function (sum of prediction errors squared

 $y(x_i) - y_i$) with some regularization λ (1/2 is for convenience later):

$$J_{(\beta)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y(x_i) - y_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \beta_i^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\beta^T \phi(x_i) - y_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \beta_T \beta$$
(2)

→ an unconstrained convex optimization problem (single solution @ minima)

As such, we need only find where $\frac{\partial d}{\partial p} = 0$ for eqn. (2):

$$\sum_{i} (\beta^{T} \phi(x_{i}) - y_{i}) \times \phi(x_{i}) + \lambda \beta = 0$$
Convert to matrix form, defining $Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1} \\ \vdots \\ y_{N} \end{bmatrix}$, $\Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi^{T}(x_{i}) \\ \vdots \\ \phi^{T}(x_{N}) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$ (3)
$$\rightarrow \Phi^{T} \Phi \beta - \phi^{T} Y + \alpha \beta = 0$$
Solve: $\beta = (\phi^{T} \phi + \lambda I_{M})^{-1} \phi^{T} Y$

Note that for the inversion, we only need to invert a matrix as big as however many features there are as: $\Phi^T \Phi$ is $M \times M$ and λ is simply a multiple of identity. From there, simply plug back into $y(x_n) = \beta^T \phi(x_n)$

Alternative Approach: Define for every data point N:

$$\alpha_i := -\frac{\lambda}{2}(y(x_i) - y_i) = -\frac{\lambda}{2}(\beta^T \phi(x_i) - y_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, N$$

$$\tag{4}$$

Note that this approach requires $\lambda! = 0$. In matrix form, we get

$$-\lambda \alpha = \Phi \beta - Y \tag{5}$$

Plugging into eqn. (2) as before:

$$\sum_{i} (-\lambda \alpha_{i}) \phi(x_{i}) + \lambda \beta = 0$$

$$\lambda \text{s cancel } \to \beta = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} \phi(x_{i}) = \Phi^{T} \alpha$$
(6)

Combine (5) and (6) to get

$$-\lambda \alpha = \Phi \Phi^T \alpha - Y \alpha = (\Phi \Phi^T - \lambda I)^{-1} Y \tag{7}$$

Noting that $\Phi\Phi^T$ is $N\times N$. Ordinarily, the number of data points N>>M number of features. The data's geometric content is encoded in this $N\times N$ matrix:

$$\Phi\Phi^T = K = \begin{bmatrix} \phi^T(x_1)\phi(x_1) & \dots & \phi^T(x_1)\phi(x_n) \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ \phi^T(x_N)\phi(x_1) & \dots & \phi^T(x_n)\phi(x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Kernel matrix:
$$K(x_i, x_j) = \phi^T(x_i)\phi(x_j) = 1 + \phi_1(x_i)\phi_1(x_i) + \dots + \phi_{m-1}(x_i)\phi(x_j)$$
(8)

So we can replace the feature vectors with a single kernel function K. Plugging back in:

$$y(x_{\alpha}) = \beta^{T} \phi(x_{new}) = \alpha^{T} \Phi \phi(x_{new}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \phi^{T}(X_{i}) \phi(x_{new})$$

As such, prediction for each method is:

•
$$y(x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \beta_i \phi(x_{new})$$

•
$$y(x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \phi^T(x_i) \phi(x_{new}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i K(x_i, x_n)$$

Essentially, that we can use the Kernel function instead of feature vectors when using the alternative approach.

1.3 Kernel Trick Examples

	Feature-based	Kernel-based
	$\phi(\cdot)$	K(·,·)
Coefficients	β	α
# Coefficients	М	N

• Feature-based approach: Data is N (data) × M (features) with labels y

• Kernel: Data is $N \times N$ with labels y

```
Linear Kernel Function
```

```
K(x,z) = x^Tz = x \cdot z \rightarrow \texttt{linear\_kernel\_function} = \texttt{lambda x,z: np.dot(x,z)}
```

Applying Kernel Matrix

```
# For some kernel function kfunc
# and dataset X
def Kernel_matrix(kfunc, X):
   N, = X.shape
   K = np.empty((N,N))
   for i in range(N):
        for j in range(N):
            # Apply kernel to each pair of row vectors in X
           K[i,j] = kfunc(X[i,:], x[j,:])
   return K
KernelMatrix = Kernel_matrix(linear_kernel_function, train['X']) \
   + 0.1*np.eye(N) # Required regularization term as above
linreg_linkern = LinearRegression().fit(KernelMatrix, train['Y'])
   Predicting on Kernel Model
def evaluate_kernel_model(model, kfunc, trainX, testX):
   N1,_ = trainX.shape
   N2,_ = testX.shape
   K = np.empty((N2, N1))
   for i in range(N2):
        for j in range(N1):
           K[i,j] = kfunc(trainX[j,:], test[i,:])
   return model.predict(K)
```

Quadratic Kernel Function

$$K(x,z)=(x^Tz+1)^2 o ext{quad_kernel_function} = ext{lambda x,z: (np.dot(x,z) + 1)**2}$$

Plug in similarly with Kernel_matrix()

Quintic, N-degree Kernel Function

```
K(x,z)=(x^Tz+1)^5 \rightarrow \text{quintic\_kernel\_function} = \text{lambda x,z: (np.dot(x,z) + 1)**5}

K(x,z)=(x^Tz+1)^N \rightarrow \text{Nth\_kernel\_function} = \text{lambda x,z,N: (np.dot(x,z) + 1)**N}
```

Polynomial Kernel Function

$$K(x,z) = (x^Tz + 1)^d = \phi^T(X)\phi(Z)$$

For ϕ with monomials of X up to order d.
Sign of $\phi = \begin{bmatrix} M+d \\ d \end{bmatrix} = \frac{(M+d)!}{d!M!}$

Of course sklearn has this built in

Ktrain = sklearn.metrics.pairwise.polynomial_kernel(train['X'], train['X'],
 deree=3) * 0.1*np.eye(train['X'].shape[0])

model = LinearRegression().fit(Ktrain, train['Y'])

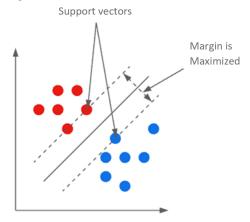
Gaussian Kernel Function (radial basis function)

$$K(x,z) = exp(-y||x-z||^2) = \phi^T(x)\phi(z)$$

Points are similar insofar as they are near eachother in space.
 $\phi(x)$ (featurespace) has inf. entries.

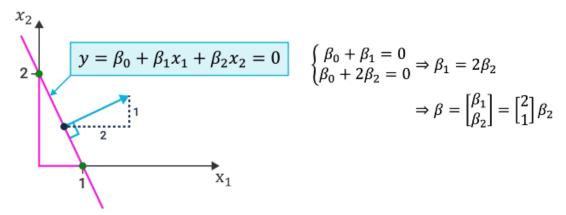
1.4 Maximum Margin Classifier

Similar to logistic regression (linear boundaries), but is works with the Kernel trick. Create hyperplanes bounded by the nearest datapoints, optimized on the maximum margin.



$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \phi_1(x) + \dots + \beta_{M-1} \phi_{M-1}(x) = \beta_0 + \beta^T \phi(x)$$
Allowing $\beta := \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{M-1} \end{bmatrix}, \ \phi(x) := \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_{M-1}(x) \end{bmatrix}$

$$(9)$$



Perpendicularizes the β vector to the hyperplane $y = \beta_0 + \beta^T \phi(x)$. We want to minimize $||\beta^2|| + C \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_i$ which satisfies $y_i(\beta_1 \phi_1(x_1) + \beta_0) \ge 1 - \delta_i$ for $\delta_i \ge 0$, $\forall i$.

1.5 Support Vector Machines

Support Vector Machine := Maximum Margin Classifier + Kernel Trick Advantages

- Preserves flexibility of kernels
- Performs well with cleanly-separated classes
- More effective in high dimensions
- Advantageous when number of dimensions > number of samples
- Requires little memory

Disadvantages

- Not suitable for large datasets
- Performs poorly with noise (class overlap)
- Classifications cannot be explained probabilistically

```
from sklearn.svm import svc SVC(kernel = 'linear').fit(X,y) \\ SVC(kernel = 'rbf', gamma = 10).fit(X,y) \\ Polynomial degree: <math>k(x,z) = (\gamma x^T z + r)^d = (gammax^T z + coef0)^{degree} \\ SVC(kernel = 'poly', gamma = 'scale', coef0 = 1, degree = 8).fit(X,y) \\
```

1.6 Visualizing decision boundaries

For a model with two features.

1.7 Sci-kit learn workflow

```
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.metrics.pairwise import polynomial_kernel, rbf_kernel

# For linear
ktrain_linear = polynomial_kernel(X,X,degree=1)
linear_logistic = LogisticRegression(max_iter=1000).fit(ktrain_linear,y)

# Cubic, etc.
ktrain_cubic = polynomial_kernel(X,X,degree=3)
cubic_logistic = LogisticRegression(max_iter=1000).fit(ktrain_cubic,y)

# Rbf
ktrain_rbf = rbf_kernel(X,X)
rbf_logistic = LogisticRegression(max_iter=1000).fit(ktrain_rbf,y)
```