

Lecture 23: Support vector machines

Reading: Chapter 9

STATS 202: Data mining and analysis

Jonathan Taylor

November 28, 2018

Slide credits: Sergio Bacallado

Review of support vector classifier

- ▶ The **support vector classifier** defines a hyperplane and two margins.

Review of support vector classifier

- ▶ The **support vector classifier** defines a hyperplane and two margins.
- ▶ **Goal:** to maximize the width of the margins, with some budget C for “violations of the margins”, i.e.

$$\sum_{\substack{x_i \text{ on the wrong} \\ \text{side of the margin}}} \text{Distance from } x_i \text{ to the margin} \leq C.$$

Review of support vector classifier

- ▶ The **support vector classifier** defines a hyperplane and two margins.
- ▶ **Goal:** to maximize the width of the margins, with some budget C for “violations of the margins”, i.e.

$$\sum_{\substack{x_i \text{ on the wrong} \\ \text{side of the margin}}} \text{Distance from } x_i \text{ to the margin} \leq C.$$

- ▶ The only points that affect the orientation of the hyperplane are those at the margin or on the wrong side of it.

Review of support vector classifier

- ▶ The **support vector classifier** defines a hyperplane and two margins.
- ▶ **Goal:** to maximize the width of the margins, with some budget C for “violations of the margins”, i.e.

$$\sum_{\substack{x_i \text{ on the wrong} \\ \text{side of the margin}}} \text{Distance from } x_i \text{ to the margin} \leq C.$$

- ▶ The only points that affect the orientation of the hyperplane are those at the margin or on the wrong side of it.
- ▶ Low budget C (high D) \iff Few samples used \iff High variance \iff Tendency to overfit.

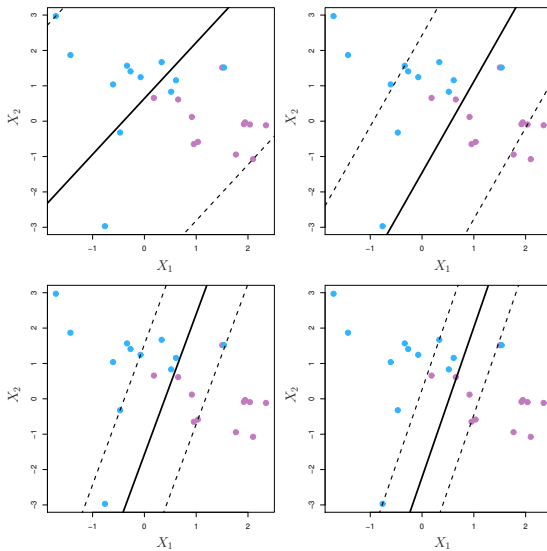
Review of support vector classifier

- ▶ The **support vector classifier** defines a hyperplane and two margins.
- ▶ **Goal:** to maximize the width of the margins, with some budget C for “violations of the margins”, i.e.

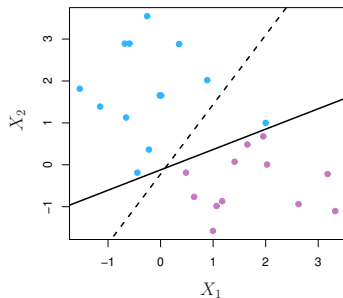
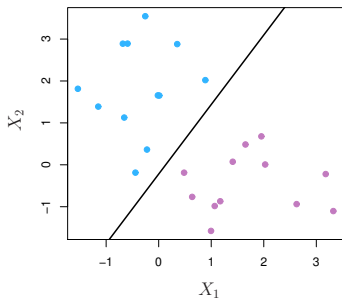
$$\sum_{\substack{x_i \text{ on the wrong} \\ \text{side of the margin}}} \text{Distance from } x_i \text{ to the margin} \leq C.$$

- ▶ The only points that affect the orientation of the hyperplane are those at the margin or on the wrong side of it.
- ▶ Low budget C (high D) \iff Few samples used \iff High variance \iff Tendency to overfit.
- ▶ Choose D (equiv. C) by cross-validation.

Tuning the budget, C (high to low)



If the budget is too low, we tend to overfit



Maximal margin classifier, $C = 0 (D = \infty)$. Adding one observation dramatically changes the classifier.

Finding the support vector classifier

The problem can be reduced to the optimization:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \arg \max_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i'=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_{i'} y_i y_{i'} (x_i \cdot x_{i'})$$

subject to $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq D$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0.$$

$$\hat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i x_i, \quad \hat{w} \cdot x_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i (x_i \cdot x_0)$$

Key fact about the support vector classifier

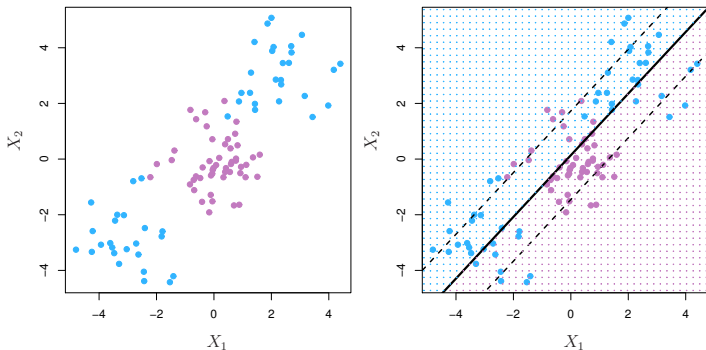
To **find the hyperplane** and **make predictions** all we need to know is the dot product between any pair of input vectors:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = (x_i \cdot x_k) = \langle x_i, x_k \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} x_{kj}$$

We call this the **kernel matrix**.

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

The support vector classifier can only produce a linear boundary.



How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ In **logistic regression**, we dealt with this problem by adding transformations of the predictors.

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ In **logistic regression**, we dealt with this problem by adding transformations of the predictors.
- ▶ The original decision boundary is a line:

$$\log \left[\frac{P(Y = 1|X)}{P(Y = 0|X)} \right] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 = 0.$$

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ In **logistic regression**, we dealt with this problem by adding transformations of the predictors.
- ▶ The original decision boundary is a line:

$$\log \left[\frac{P(Y = 1|X)}{P(Y = 0|X)} \right] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 = 0.$$

- ▶ With a quadratic predictor, we get a quadratic boundary:

$$\log \left[\frac{P(Y = 1|X)}{P(Y = 0|X)} \right] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1^2 = 0.$$

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ With a **support vector classifier** we can apply a similar trick.

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ With a **support vector classifier** we can apply a similar trick.
- ▶ The original decision boundary is the hyperplane defined by:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 = 0.$$

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ With a **support vector classifier** we can apply a similar trick.
- ▶ The original decision boundary is the hyperplane defined by:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 = 0.$$

- ▶ If we expand the set of predictors to the 3D space (X_1, X_2, X_1^2) , the decision boundary becomes:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1^2 = 0.$$

How to deal with non-linear boundaries?

- ▶ With a **support vector classifier** we can apply a similar trick.
- ▶ The original decision boundary is the hyperplane defined by:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 = 0.$$

- ▶ If we expand the set of predictors to the 3D space (X_1, X_2, X_1^2) , the decision boundary becomes:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1^2 = 0.$$

- ▶ This is in fact a linear boundary in the 3D space. However, we can classify a point knowing just (X_1, X_2) . The boundary in this projection is quadratic in X_1 .

How do we expand the space of predictors?

- **Idea:** Add polynomial terms up to degree d :

$$Z = (X_1, X_1^2, \dots, X_1^d, X_2, X_2^2, \dots, X_2^d, \dots, X_p, X_p^2, \dots, X_p^d).$$

How do we expand the space of predictors?

- ▶ **Idea:** Add polynomial terms up to degree d :

$$Z = (X_1, X_1^2, \dots, X_1^d, X_2, X_2^2, \dots, X_2^d, \dots, X_p, X_p^2, \dots, X_p^d).$$

- ▶ Does this make the computation more expensive?

How do we expand the space of predictors?

- ▶ **Idea:** Add polynomial terms up to degree d :

$$Z = (X_1, X_1^2, \dots, X_1^d, X_2, X_2^2, \dots, X_2^d, \dots, X_p, X_p^2, \dots, X_p^d).$$

- ▶ Does this make the computation more expensive?
- ▶ Recall that all we need to compute is the dot product:

$$x_i \cdot x_k = \langle x_i, x_k \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} x_{kj}.$$

How do we expand the space of predictors?

- **Idea:** Add polynomial terms up to degree d :

$$Z = (X_1, X_1^2, \dots, X_1^d, X_2, X_2^2, \dots, X_2^d, \dots, X_p, X_p^2, \dots, X_p^d).$$

- Does this make the computation more expensive?
- Recall that all we need to compute is the dot product:

$$x_i \cdot x_k = \langle x_i, x_k \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} x_{kj}.$$

- With the expanded set of predictors, we need:

$$z_i \cdot z_k = \langle z_i, z_k \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^p \sum_{\ell=1}^d x_{ij}^{\ell} x_{kj}^{\ell}.$$

Kernels

The **kernel matrix** defined by $K(x_i, x_k) = \langle z_i, z_k \rangle$ for a set of linearly independent vectors z_1, \dots, z_n is always **positive semi-definite**, i.e. it is symmetric and has no negative eigenvalues.

Kernels

The **kernel matrix** defined by $K(x_i, x_k) = \langle z_i, z_k \rangle$ for a set of linearly independent vectors z_1, \dots, z_n is always **positive semi-definite**, i.e. it is symmetric and has no negative eigenvalues.

Kernels

The **kernel matrix** defined by $K(x_i, x_k) = \langle z_i, z_k \rangle$ for a set of linearly independent vectors z_1, \dots, z_n is always **positive semi-definite**, i.e. it is symmetric and has no negative eigenvalues.

Theorem:

If K is a positive definite $n \times n$ matrix, there exist vectors (z_1, \dots, z_n) in some space \mathbf{Z} , such that $K(x_i, x_k) = \langle z_i, z_k \rangle$.

Finding the support vector classifier

With a kernel, the problem can be reduced to the optimization:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\alpha} = \arg \max_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i'=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_{i'} y_i y_{i'} K(x_i, x_{i'}) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq D \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0.\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ This is the dual problem of a *different* optimization problem than we start with.
- ▶ Predictions can be computed similarly to original kernel $K(x, y) = x \cdot y$. Details omitted.

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

- Find a mapping Φ which expands the original set of predictors X_1, \dots, X_p . For example,

$$\Phi(X) = (X_1, X_2, X_1^2)$$

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

- ▶ Find a mapping Φ which expands the original set of predictors X_1, \dots, X_p . For example,

$$\Phi(X) = (X_1, X_2, X_1^2)$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_k) \rangle.$$

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

- ▶ Find a mapping Φ which expands the original set of predictors X_1, \dots, X_p . For example,

$$\Phi(X) = (X_1, X_2, X_1^2)$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_k) \rangle.$$

Define a kernel:

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

- ▶ Find a mapping Φ which expands the original set of predictors X_1, \dots, X_p . For example,

$$\Phi(X) = (X_1, X_2, X_1^2)$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_k) \rangle.$$

Define a kernel:

- ▶ Prove that a function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ is positive definite. For example:

$$f(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^2.$$

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

- ▶ Find a mapping Φ which expands the original set of predictors X_1, \dots, X_p . For example,

$$\Phi(X) = (X_1, X_2, X_1^2)$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_k) \rangle.$$

Define a kernel:

- ▶ Prove that a function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ is positive definite. For example:

$$f(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^2.$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = f(x_i, x_k).$$

The kernel trick

Expand the set of predictors:

- ▶ Find a mapping Φ which expands the original set of predictors X_1, \dots, X_p . For example,

$$\Phi(X) = (X_1, X_2, X_1^2)$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_k) \rangle.$$

Define a kernel:

- ▶ Prove that a function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ is positive definite. For example:

$$f(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^2.$$

- ▶ For each pair of samples, compute:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = f(x_i, x_k).$$

- ▶ Often much easier!

The kernel trick

Example. The polynomial kernel with $d = 2$:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = f(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^2$$

This is equivalent to the expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(X) = & (\sqrt{2}X_1, \dots, \sqrt{2}X_p, \\ & X_1^2, \dots, X_p^2, \\ & \sqrt{2}X_1X_2, \sqrt{2}X_1X_3, \dots, \sqrt{2}X_{p-1}X_p) \end{aligned}$$

The kernel trick

Example. The polynomial kernel with $d = 2$:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = f(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^2$$

This is equivalent to the expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(X) = & (\sqrt{2}X_1, \dots, \sqrt{2}X_p, \\ & X_1^2, \dots, X_p^2, \\ & \sqrt{2}X_1X_2, \sqrt{2}X_1X_3, \dots, \sqrt{2}X_{p-1}X_p) \end{aligned}$$

- Computing $K(x_i, x_k)$ directly is $O(p)$.

The kernel trick

Example. The polynomial kernel with $d = 2$:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = f(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^2$$

This is equivalent to the expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(X) = & (\sqrt{2}X_1, \dots, \sqrt{2}X_p, \\ & X_1^2, \dots, X_p^2, \\ & \sqrt{2}X_1X_2, \sqrt{2}X_1X_3, \dots, \sqrt{2}X_{p-1}X_p) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Computing $K(x_i, x_k)$ directly is $O(p)$.
- ▶ Computing the kernel using the expansion is $O(p^2)$.

How are kernels defined?

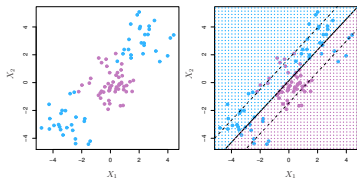
- ▶ Proving that a bilinear function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ is positive definite (PD) is not always easy.

How are kernels defined?

- ▶ Proving that a bilinear function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ is positive definite (PD) is not always easy.
- ▶ However, we can easily define PD kernels by combining those we are familiar with:
 - ▶ Sums and products of PD kernels are PD.

How are kernels defined?

- ▶ Proving that a bilinear function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ is positive definite (PD) is not always easy.
- ▶ However, we can easily define PD kernels by combining those we are familiar with:
 - ▶ Sums and products of PD kernels are PD.
- ▶ Intuitively, a kernel $K(x_i, x_k)$ defines a *similarity* between the samples x_i and x_k . This intuition can guide our choice in different problems.



Common kernels

- ▶ The polynomial kernel:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^d$$

Common kernels

- ▶ The polynomial kernel:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^d$$

- ▶ The radial basis kernel:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \exp \left(- \gamma \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ip} - x_{kp})^2}_{\text{Euclidean } d(x_i, x_k)} \right)$$

Common kernels

- The polynomial kernel:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = (1 + \langle x_i, x_k \rangle)^d$$

- The radial basis kernel:

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \exp \left(- \gamma \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ip} - x_{kp})^2}_{\text{Euclidean } d(x_i, x_k)} \right)$$

