## Support vector machines

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Machine learning

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Vapnik-Chervonenkis theory, simplest case

#### The support vector machine

Optimal margin classifier Introducing kernels (1992) Allowing for misclassification: soft margin (1995)

Implementation

#### Literature

Learning materials include but are not limited to:

- Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., and Friedman, J. (2009). The Elements of Statistics Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction (Second Edition). Springer.
  - ▶ Section 12.{1,2,3.1,3.2}.
- Slides of the lecture.
- Boser, B. E., Guyon, I. M., and V. N. Vapnik (1992).
  A training algorithm for optimal margin classifiers.
  In: Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Workshop of Computational Learning Theory, Pittsburgh, ACM, 5, 144–152.
- Cortes, C. and Vapnik, V. (1995).
  Support-vector networks.
  Machine learning, 20, 273–297.
- Vapnik, V. N. (1998).
  Statistical Learning Theory.
  John Wiley & Sons.

## Binary supervised classification (reminder)

Notation:

- ► Given: for the random pair (X, Y) in R<sup>d</sup> × {-1,1} consisting of a random observation X and its random binary label Y (class), a sample of n i.i.d.: (x<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>1</sub>), ..., (x<sub>n</sub>, y<sub>n</sub>).
- **Goal:** predict the label of the new (unseen before) observation *x*.
- Method: construct a classification rule:

$$g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \{-1,1\}, \mathbf{x} \mapsto g(\mathbf{x}),$$

so  $g(\mathbf{x})$  is the prediction of the label for observation  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Criterion:** of the performance of g is the **error probability**:

$$R(g) = \mathbb{P}[g(X) \neq Y] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}(g(X) \neq Y)].$$

**The best solution:** is to know the distribution of (X,Y):

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(2\mathbb{E}[Y|X=\mathbf{x}]-1>0).$$

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## Glivenko-Cantelli theorem

Consider the classification rule for a new observation  $\boldsymbol{x}$  given the weights vector  $\boldsymbol{w}$ :

$$m{g}(m{x},m{w}) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if }m{w}^{\, T}m{x} > 0\,, \ -1 & ext{otherwise}\,. \end{cases}$$

What can be said about the **error probability**, *i.e.* about the relationship between

$$\mathbb{P}\big(g(X,\boldsymbol{w})\neq Y\big)=\int_{\mathbb{R}^d}\mathbb{1}\big(g(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{w})\neq Y\big)dF_X \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\mathbb{1}\big(g(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{w})\neq y_i\big)\,?$$

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be a random sample on  $\mathbb{R}$ . The **empirical distribution** function is defined as

$$\mathbb{F}_n(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum \mathbb{1}(X_i \leq t).$$

#### Theorem (Glivenko-Cantelli)

If  $X_1, X_2, ...$  are i.i.d. random variables with distribution function F, then

$$\|\mathbb{F}_n - F\|_{\infty} = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |\mathbb{F}_n(x) - F(x)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0.$$

#### Uniform one-sided convergence

Under *additional* conditions, for  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$  and a probability measure  $F_X$ , for any  $\epsilon > 0$  it holds

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\sup_{\boldsymbol{w}}\left(\underbrace{\mathbb{P}(g(X,\boldsymbol{w})\neq Y)}_{L(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}))}-\underbrace{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{1}(g(X_{i},\boldsymbol{w})\neq Y_{i})}_{L_{emp}(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}))}\right)>\epsilon\right\}\underset{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow}0.$$

What can be said about the rate of convergence?

Regard finite set of classification rules  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_k)$ , k = 1, ..., N. The restriction is naturally posed by the finite number of elements in the training set.

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\sup_{k\in\{1,\ldots,N\}}\left(L(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}_{k}))-L_{emp}(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}_{k}))\right)>\epsilon\right\}$$
$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^{N}\mathbb{P}\left\{\left(L(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}_{k}))-L_{emp}(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}_{k}))\right)>\epsilon\right\}$$

## Uniform one-sided convergence

Theorem (Chernoff-Hoeffding, Bernoulli scheme) If  $X_1, ..., X_n$  are *i.i.d.* random variables taking values in  $\{0, 1\}$ , then for any  $\epsilon > 0$  it holds

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(\mathbb{E}[X_i] - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \epsilon\Big) < e^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

This allows for:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}\left\{\left(L(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w}_{k})) - L_{emp}(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w}_{k}))\right) > \epsilon\right\}$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}\left\{\left(\underbrace{\mathbb{P}(g(X, \boldsymbol{w}_{k}) \neq Y)}_{\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{1}\left(g(X, \boldsymbol{w}_{k}) \neq Y\right)\right]} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}\left(g(X_{i}, \boldsymbol{w}_{k}) \neq Y_{i}\right)\right) > \epsilon\right\}$$
$$\leq Ne^{-2\epsilon^{2}n}.$$

# Vapnik-Chervonenkis inequality

So:

$$\mathbb{P}\Big\{\sup_{k\in\{1,\ldots,N\}}\Big(L\big(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}_k)\big)-L_{emp}\big(g(\cdot,\boldsymbol{w}_k)\big)\Big)>\epsilon\Big\}\leq Ne^{-2\epsilon^2n}$$

Let us fix this probability having chosen 0  $<\eta\leq$  1, by that maintaining reliability 1  $-\eta$ :

$$Ne^{-2\epsilon^2 n} = \eta$$
 or equivalently  $\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{\log N - \log \eta}{2n}}$ 

This allows for the following result:

#### Theorem (Vapnik-Chervonenkis, 1974)

If from a set consisting of N classification rules a rule  $g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w})$  is chosen, which delivers empirical risk  $L_{emp}(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w}))$ , then with reliability  $1 - \eta$  one can state that the error probability  $L(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w}))$  is bounded from above as follows

$$L(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w})) \leq L_{emp}(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w})) + \sqrt{\frac{\log N - \log \eta}{2n}}$$

#### Particular case: linear rule

Let us try to estimate N for the linear classification rule.

The number  $\Phi(d, n)$  of all possible separations of n points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  by a hyperplane via the origin is computed as

$$\Phi(d, n) = \begin{cases} 2\sum_{l=0}^{d-1} \binom{n-1}{l} & \text{if } d \leq n, \\ 2^n & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

For  $d \leq n$ , one can approximate it from above using:

$$\Phi(d,n) \leq 3 \frac{n^{d-1}}{(d-1)!} \leq n^d \,.$$

Plugging this into the Vapnik-Chervonenkis inequality gives:

$$L(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w})) \leq L_{emp}(g(\cdot, \boldsymbol{w})) + \sqrt{\frac{d\log n - \log \eta}{2n}}$$

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## The principle

- The conservative upper bound of Vapnik and Chervonenkis is very pessimistic, as even for a linear classification rule a very large training data set is required to guarantee meaningfulness of the achieved empirical risk.
- As an example, consider the case of two linearly separable training classes. Even in this case, only little can be said about probability of points from one class inside the other one.
- Sticking to this "trivial" case, the safest separating hyperplane would be the one having maximal and equal margin to each of the classes.
- Finding such a hyperplane in a systematic way constitutes the main idea of the **optimal margin hyperplane** algorithm.

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## Optimal margin hyperplane

- ▶ Let the training sample consist of *n* pairs  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_n, y_n)$  taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^d \times \{-1, 1\}$ .
- This set is said to be **linearly separable** if there exist a non-zero vector ψ ∈ ℝ<sup>d</sup> and a scalar b ∈ ℝ such that the n following inequalities hold:

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_i + b &\geq 0 & \text{if } y_i = 1, \\ \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_i + b &\leq 0 & \text{if } y_i = -1. \end{split}$$

- ▶ Instead of simply requiring separation (the parts "≥ 0" and "≤ 0" in the above inequality) one can **introduce margin** M > 0, *i.e.*, require the distance between any two points stemming from different classes in projection onto  $\psi$  be at least 2M.
- Involving the output (in this notation corresponding to the sign) allows for rewriting the above (restricting) inequalities in the following way:

$$\frac{y_i(\boldsymbol{\psi}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_i+b)}{\|\boldsymbol{\psi}\|} \geq M, \quad i=1,...,n.$$

## Optimal margin hyperplane

The objective of the training algorithm is then to find the parameter vector ψ that maximizes M:

$$\begin{split} M^* &= \max M \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \|\psi\| = 1 \,, \\ & y_i(\psi^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq M \,, \quad i = 1, ..., n \,. \end{split}$$

▶ The (last) bound is attained for those patterns satisfying

$$\min_{i\in\{1,\ldots,n\}} y_i(\boldsymbol{\psi}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i + b) = M^*.$$

- These patterns are called the support vectors of the decision boundary.
- Thus, the problem of finding a hyperplane with maximum margin can be seen as a minimax problem:

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\psi}\in\mathbb{R}^d, \|\boldsymbol{\psi}\|=1} \min_{i\in\{1,\ldots,n\}} y_i(\boldsymbol{\psi}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i+b).$$

## Optimal margin hyperplane : illustration



## Optimal margin hyperplane

• Instead of fixing the norm of  $\psi$ , the product of the margin M and the norm of  $\psi$  can be fixed, *e.g.* by:

$$M\|oldsymbol{\psi}\|=1$$
 .

- ► Now, maximizing the margin *M* is equivalent to minimizing the norm ||ψ||.
- Then the problem of finding a maximum margin separating hyperplane, characterized by ψ, reduces to solving the following quadratic optimization problem:

$$\min rac{1}{2} \| oldsymbol{\psi} \|^2$$
  
subject to  $y_i(oldsymbol{\psi}^T oldsymbol{x}_i + b) \geq 1, \quad i = 1, ..., n$ 

► The maximum margin is:

$$M^* = rac{1}{\|oldsymbol{\psi}^*\|}\,.$$

- This approach is impractical:
  - if the **dimension** *d* is large or **infinite**,
  - because no information about support vectors is gained.

## Optimal margin hyperplane: Lagrangian

Construct a Lagrangian:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\psi}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}) = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\psi} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i (y_i (\boldsymbol{\psi}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_i + \boldsymbol{b}) - 1)$$

with  $\mathbf{\Lambda} = (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)^T$  being the vector of non-negative Lagrange multipliers corresponding to the inequality constraints.

- The solution to the optimization problem is determined by the saddle point of this Lagrangian in the (d + 1 + n)-dimensional space of  $\psi$ , b, and  $\Lambda$ .
- The minimum should be taken w.r.t. the parameters ψ and b, the maximum should be taken w.r.t. the Lagrange multipliers Λ.

## Optimal margin hyperplane: Lagrangian

• At the point of minimum (w.r.t.  $\psi$  and b) one obtains:

$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\psi}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\psi}}\Big|_{\boldsymbol{\psi}=\boldsymbol{\psi}^*} = \left(\boldsymbol{\psi}^* - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \boldsymbol{x}_i\right) = 0,$$
$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\psi}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda})}{\partial \boldsymbol{b}}\Big|_{\boldsymbol{b}=\boldsymbol{b}^*} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i = 0.$$

From the upper equality one can derive:

$$\boldsymbol{\psi}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \boldsymbol{x}_i \, .$$

- This means that the optimal hyperplane can be written as a linear combination of training observations.
- Only training observations x<sub>i</sub> with (strictly) positive Lagrange multipliers (*i.e.* with α<sub>i</sub> > 0) have an efficient contribution to the sum — the support vectors.

## Optimal margin hyperplane: Lagrangian

Substitution of the minimum conditions into the Lagrangian yields the following optimization problem:

$$\max W(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
  
subject to 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = \mathbf{0},$$
$$\alpha_i \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad i = 1, ..., n.$$

Usually it is written in the matrix form:

max 
$$W(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \mathbf{\Lambda}^T \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{\Lambda}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{\Lambda}$$
  
subject to  $\mathbf{\Lambda}^T \mathbf{Y} = 0$ ,  
 $\mathbf{\Lambda} \ge \mathbf{0}$ 

with **D** being a  $(n \times n)$ -dimensional matrix with entries  $D_{ij} = y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1, ..., y_n)^T$ , and **0** and **1** standing for *n*-dimensional vectors of zeros and ones.

## Optimal margin hyperplane: classification

After the optimal pair (ψ<sup>\*</sup>, b<sup>\*</sup>) is obtained, classification of an observation x ∈ ℝ<sup>d</sup> reduces to determining its position in the projection onto ψ<sup>\*</sup>:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\psi^{*T}\mathbf{x} + b^{*})$$
$$= \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}\alpha_{i}^{*}\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{x} + b^{*}\right).$$

From this it becomes clear how to calculate b<sup>\*</sup>: it should position the separating hyperplane exactly in the middle between two support vectors from different classes, in the projection onto ψ<sup>\*</sup>:

$$b^* = -\frac{1}{2} (\psi^{*T} \mathbf{x}_A + \psi^{*T} \mathbf{x}_B)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i^* (\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_A + \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_B)$$

with  $\mathbf{x}_A \in {\mathbf{x}_i : y_i = 1, \alpha_i^* > 0, i = 1, ..., n}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_B \in {\mathbf{x}_i : y_i = -1, \alpha_i^* > 0, i = 1, ..., n}$ .

 Only support vectors influence the classification rule. (Analogy with a mine field on the front line between two enemies.)

# Optimal margin classifier (algorithm)

#### Finding the optimal margin hyperplane (training)

Input: Training sample  $((\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)) \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \{-1, 1\}.$ 

1. Solve the constraint quadratic optimization problem to obtain  $\mathbf{A}^* = (\alpha_1^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)^T$ :

$$\begin{array}{ll} \max & \mathbf{\Lambda}^{T}\mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{\Lambda}^{T}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{\Lambda} \\ \text{subject to} & \mathbf{\Lambda}^{T}\mathbf{Y} = 0 \,, \\ & \mathbf{\Lambda} \geq \mathbf{0} \,. \end{array}$$

2. Taking any two support vectors from opposite classes  $\mathbf{x}_A \in {\mathbf{x}_i : y_i = 1, \alpha_i^* > 0}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_B \in {\mathbf{x}_i : y_i = -1, \alpha_i^* > 0}$ , calculate the threshold:

$$b^* = -\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i^* (\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_A + \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_B).$$

**Output:** The classifier:  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i^* \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b^*\right).$ 

# Optimal margin classifier: some comments

- The training phase is reduced to solving a problem of quadratic optimization, which is usually computationally tractable.
- ► The time of the training algorithm depends on dimension *d* only when calculating the matrix of quadratic coefficients *D*, the dimension of the original space is irrelevant for the optimization time.
- As only the support vectors are relevant, only these should be stored for the classification rule.
- The problem can be solved iteratively by chunks, as in each (previous) chunk only support vectors are important (for further chunks).

But:

- Linear classification rule has poor approximation performance.
- Misclassification is not allowed.

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- ► The algorithm described above constructs a hyperplane (defining by that linear classification rule) in the input space R<sup>d</sup>.
- Idea: To increase the approximation power of the classification rule but keep its algorithmic linearity, one maps the input space to a feature space, *i.e.* transforms the *d*-dimensional input vector *x* into a *D*-dimensional feature space through a choice of a *D*-dimensional vector function *φ*:

$$\phi \,:\, \mathbb{R}^d o \mathbb{R}^D$$
 .

► Then, a *D*-dimensional linear separator (ψ, b) ∈ ℝ<sup>D</sup> × ℝ is constructed for the set of transformed vectors:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = \left(\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_i), ..., \phi_D(\mathbf{x}_i)\right) \in \mathbb{R}^D, \quad i = 1, ..., n.$$

• Note:  $\mathbb{R}^D$  can be of infinite dimension.



 $(x_1, x_2)$ 

$$\mapsto (\phi(x_1, x_2))$$
  
=  $(x_1, x_2, x_1^2 + x_2^2)$ 

The classification of an unknown vector x is done by first transforming it into the feature space

$$oldsymbol{x}\mapsto \phi(oldsymbol{x})$$
 ,

and then classifying the featured vector with

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}({\boldsymbol{\psi}^*}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b^*).$$

According to the properties of the classifier, it can be written as a linear combination of the support vectors (in the feature space):

$$\psi^* = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i^* \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \, .$$

The linearity of the inner product implies that the classifier g(x) only depends on the inner products:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\psi^{*T}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + b^{*}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}\alpha_{i}^{*}\phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{T}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + b^{*}\right).$$

The quadratic problem depends only inner products as well.

• Consider the general form of the inner product in a Hilbert space:

$$\phi(\boldsymbol{u})^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(\boldsymbol{v})=K(\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{v}).$$

• According to Hilbert-Schmidt Theory any symmetric function  $K(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ , with  $K(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \in L_2$ , can be expanded in the form:

$$\mathcal{K}(\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{v}) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j \phi_j(\boldsymbol{u}) \phi_j(\boldsymbol{v})$$

with  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\phi_i$  being eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the integral operator defined by the kernel  $K(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ , *i.e.* 

$$\int \mathcal{K}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \phi_j(\boldsymbol{u}) d\boldsymbol{u} = \lambda_j \phi_j(\boldsymbol{v}) \,.$$

A sufficient condition to ensure that K(u, v) defines an inner product in the feature space is that all the eigenvalues λ<sub>i</sub> are positive.

According to Mercer's theorem, for λ<sub>i</sub>s to be positive, it is necessary and sufficient that

$$\int\int \mathcal{K}(\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{v})h(\boldsymbol{u})h(\boldsymbol{v})d\boldsymbol{u}d\boldsymbol{v}>0$$

holds for all h such that

$$\int h^2(\boldsymbol{u})d\boldsymbol{u} < \infty \, .$$

Thus, functions that satisfy the Mercer's theorem can be used as inner products in the feature space.

Examples of such functions:

• Gaussian kernel = potential function = radial basis function:

$$K(\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{v})=e^{-rac{\|\boldsymbol{u}-\boldsymbol{v}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}=e^{-\gamma\|\boldsymbol{u}-\boldsymbol{v}\|^2}$$

Polynomial kernel:

$$K(\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{v})=(\boldsymbol{u}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}+1)^{eta}$$
 .

- Using different kernel functions K(u, v) as inner products (with different parameters, e.g., σ, γ, β) one can construct different learning machines with arbitrary types of decision surfaces.
- ► To find the optimal coefficient vector Λ<sup>\*</sup> = (α<sub>1</sub><sup>\*</sup>,...,α<sub>n</sub><sup>\*</sup>), threshold b<sup>\*</sup>, and support vectors x<sub>i</sub>s, one follows the same solution scheme as for the original optimal margin classifier by solving the quadratic optimization problem.
- ▶ The only difference consists in using the matrix **D** with entries:

$$D_{ij} = y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j), \quad i, j = 1, ..., n.$$

The decision rule has then form:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i^* \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) + b^*$$
.

where one can only restrict to support vectors  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and their coefficients  $\alpha_i^* > 0$ .

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- ► The **kernel trick** allows to "ignore" the transform on the algorithmic level.
- Consider the case where the training data cannot be separated without error.
- In this case one may want to separate the training set with a minimal number of errors.
- Let us introduce non-negative variables  $\xi_i \ge 0$ , i = 1, ..., n.
- We can then **minimize** the functional

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i^o$$

for some small  $\sigma > 0$  subject to constraints

$$y_i(\psi^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i, \qquad i = 1, ..., n, \ \xi_i \ge 0, \qquad i = 1, ..., n.$$

For sufficiently small σ the minimized functional describes the number of errors on the training set.

In the minimum, strictly positive ξ<sub>ij</sub> > 0, j = 1, ..., k will identify the minimal subset of training errors:

$$(\mathbf{x}_{i_1}, y_{i_1}), (\mathbf{x}_{i_2}, y_{i_2}), ..., (\mathbf{x}_{i_k}, y_{i_k}).$$

- After these data are excluded, one can separate the remaining part of the training set without errors using the usual optimal separating hyperplane.
- Formally this can be expressed as:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \frac{1}{2} \|\boldsymbol{\psi}\|^2 + CF\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i^{\sigma}\right) \\ \text{subject to} & y_i(\boldsymbol{\psi}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \,, \qquad i = 1, ..., n \,, \\ & \xi_i \geq 0 \,, \qquad i = 1, ..., n \,. \end{array}$$

with F(u) being a monotonic convex function and C being a positive constant.

For sufficiently large C and sufficiently small σ, the pair (ψ\*, b\*) minimizing this functional will determine the hyperplane minimizing the number of errors and separating the rest with maximum margin.

- However, the problem of finding a hyperplane minimizing number of errors is NP-complete.
- For the reasons of computational tractability, we consider the (most commonly used) case:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{F}(u) &= u\,,\\ \sigma &= 1\,, \end{aligned}$$

and choose appropriate value for the regularizing constant C.

► The problem then becomes:

$$\begin{split} \min & \frac{1}{2} \|\psi\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ \text{subject to} & y_i (\psi^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i , \qquad i = 1, ..., n, \\ & \xi_i \geq 0 , \qquad i = 1, ..., n. \end{split}$$

The corresponding Lagrangian is:

$$L(\psi, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \boldsymbol{r}) = \frac{1}{2} \psi^{T} \psi + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (y_{i}(\psi^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} + b) - 1 + \xi_{i}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{i} \xi_{i}$$

with  $\mathbf{\Lambda} = (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)^T$  and  $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, ..., r_n)^T$  being the vectors of non-negative **Lagrange multipliers** corresponding to the two groups of inequality constraints.

- ► The solution to the optimization problem is determined by the saddle point of this Lagrangian in the (d + 1 + n + n + n)-dimensional space of  $\psi$ , b,  $\xi$ ,  $\Lambda$ , and r.
- The **minimum** should be taken w.r.t. the parameters  $\psi$ , *b*, and  $\xi$ , the **maximum** should be taken w.r.t. the Lagrange multipliers **A** and **r**.

• At the point of minimum (w.r.t.  $\psi$ , b, and  $\xi$ ) one obtains:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\psi}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \boldsymbol{r})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\psi}} \Big|_{\boldsymbol{\psi} = \boldsymbol{\psi}^*} &= \left(\boldsymbol{\psi}^* - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \boldsymbol{x}_i\right) = 0, \\ \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\psi}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \boldsymbol{r})}{\partial b} \Big|_{b = b^*} &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i = 0, \\ \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\psi}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \boldsymbol{r})}{\partial \xi_i} \Big|_{\xi_i = \xi_i^*} &= C - \alpha_i - r_i = 0, \quad i = 1, ..., n. \end{split}$$

This leads to the following quadratic problem:

$$\max W(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
  
subject to 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0,$$
$$0 \le \alpha_i \le C, \quad i = 1, ..., n.$$

## Support vector machine (SVM)

The training phase:

$$\begin{aligned} \max & \mathbf{\Lambda}^T \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{\Lambda}^T \boldsymbol{D} \mathbf{\Lambda} \\ \text{subject to} & \mathbf{\Lambda}^T \boldsymbol{Y} = \mathbf{0} \,, \\ & \mathbf{0} \leq \mathbf{\Lambda} \leq C \mathbf{1} \,, \end{aligned}$$

with  $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1, ..., y_n)^T$ , **0** and **1** standing for *n*-dimensional vectors of zeros and ones, *C* being a properly chosen constant, and **D** being a  $(n \times n)$ -dimensional matrix with entries

$$D_{ij} = y_i y_j K(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j), \quad i, j = 1, ..., n,$$

where  $K(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$  is a properly chosen kernel function. The result is the optimal vector  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^* = (\alpha_1^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)^T$ .

Then, taking any two support vectors  $\mathbf{x}_{i_A}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_{i_B}$  from opposite classes, *i.e.* with  $i_A \in \arg \max_{j: y_j=1, \alpha_j^* > 0} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i^* \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i)$  and  $i_B \in \arg \min_{j: y_j=-1, \alpha_j^* > 0} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i^* \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i)$ , calculate threshold:  $b^* = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \alpha_i^* \left( \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{i_A}) + \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_{i_B}) \right)$ .

## Normal location alternative

Location alternative (Normal1)



## SVM: normal location alternative

SVM (linear kernel) for Normal1 data



## Normal location-scale alternative

Location-scale alternative (Normal2)



## SVM: normal location-scale alternative

SVM (linear kernel) for Normal2 data



## SVM: normal location-scale alternative

. 15 -10 -5 -X2 0 --5 --10 --2 2 -4 0 4 6

SVM (radial kernel) for Normal2 data

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The support vector machine

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# Implementing SVM

When implementing and applying SVM, its parameters have to be chosen:

- kernel function,
- kernel parameter,
- regularization constant (=box constraint).

In practice, these parameters are usually chosen by cross-validation. This process is called **tuning of the SVM**. The SVM possesses certain degree of insensitivity w.r.t. parameters, which can be limited depending on the application of interest.

For R-software, SVM is implemented in such packages as, *e.g.*, e1071, kernlab, klaR, svmpath. For an overview, see, *e.g.*:

Karatzoglou, A., Meyer, D., and Hornik, K. (2006).
 Support vector machines in R.
 Journal of Statistical Software, 15(9).

Thank you for your attention!

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### And some references

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