CS-UY 4563: Lecture 14 Support Vector Machines

NYU Tandon School of Engineering, Prof. Christopher Musco

COURSE LOGISTICS

- · Project topic/teams due on Wednesday via email.
 - · Sign up for a meeting time after you send me the email.
- Lab lab_grad_descent_partial.ipynb due Thursday night.
 - We don't have enough time to do the topic of optimization justice, so take my class next semester if you want to learn more.

LAST LECTURE

How to use non-linear kernels with logistic regression.

- Often leads to better classification than basic linear logistic regression.
- Equivalent to feature transformation, but often computationally faster.

EXAMPLES OF NON-LINEAR KERNELS

Commonly used positive semidefinite (PSD) kernel functions:

- Linear (inner-product) kernel: $k(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle$
- Gaussian RBF Kernel: $k(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = e^{-\|\vec{x} \vec{y}\|_2^2/\sigma^2}$
- Laplace Kernel: $k(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = e^{-\|\vec{x} \vec{y}\|_2/\sigma}$
- Polynomial Kernel: $k(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = (\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle + 1)^q$.

Recall: Every PSD kernel has a corresponding feature transformation $\phi: \mathbb{R}^d \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

$$k(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \phi(\vec{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\vec{y}) \mathbf{\tilde{z}}$$

$$< \phi(\hat{x}), \phi(\hat{z}) \rangle$$

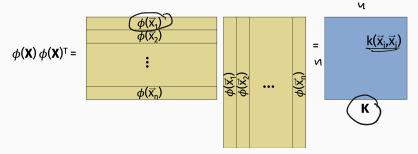
KERNEL FUNCTIONS AND FEATURE TRANSFORMATION

Sometimes $\phi(\vec{x})$ is simple and explicit. More often, it is not.

$$\vec{\underline{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \phi(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_3 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ x_3^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_2x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
Degree 2 polynomial kerne $k(\vec{x}, \vec{w}) = (\vec{x}^T \vec{w} + 1)^2$.
$$(x) = (x)^2 + (x)^2$$

KERNEL MATRIX

Typically doesn't matter because we <u>only need</u> to compute the <u>kernel Gram matrix</u> **K** to retrofit algorithms like logistic or linear regression to use non-linear kernels.



(If this stuff interests you, understanding the kernel feature maps ϕ which correspond to different kernels is a large part of my current research. This understanding can lead to faster kernel methods.)

TODAY

Support Vector Machines (SVMs): Another algorithm for finding <u>linear classifiers</u> which is as popular as logistic regression.

- · Can also be combined with kernels.
- · Developed from a pretty different perspective.
- · But final algorithm is not that different.



- Invented in 1963 by Alexey Chervonenkis and Vladimir Vapnik. Also founders of VC-theory.
- First combined with non-linear kernels in 1993.

SVM'S VS. LOGISTIC REGRESSION

For some reason, SVMs are more commonly used with non-linear kernels. For example, **sklearn**'s SVM classifier (called SVC) has support for non-linear kernels built in by default. Its logistic regression classifier does not.

- I believe this is <u>mostly</u> for historical reasons and connections to theoretical machine learning.
- In the early 2000s SVMs where a "hot topic" in machine learning and their popularity persists.
- It is not clear to me if they are better than logistic regression, but honestly I'm not sure...

SVM'S VS. LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Next lab: $lab_mnist_partial.ipynb$.

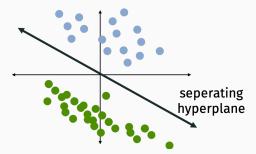


Machina-a-machina comparison of SVMs vs. logistic regression for a MNIST digit classification problem. Which provides better accuracy? Which is faster to train?

20% extra credit on lab if you can beat my simple baseline.

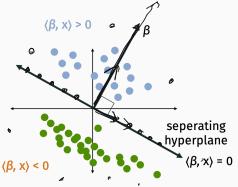
LINEARLY SEPARABLE DATA

We call a dataset with binary labels <u>linearly separable</u> if it can be perfectly classified with a linear classifier:



LINEARLY SEPARABLE DATA

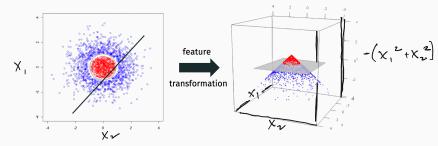
Formally, there exists a parameter $\vec{\beta}$ such that $\langle \vec{\beta}, \vec{x} \rangle > 0$ for all \vec{x} in class 1 and $\langle \vec{\beta}, \vec{x} \rangle < 0$ for all \vec{x} in class 0.



Note that if we multiply $\vec{\beta}$ by any constant c, $c\vec{\beta}$ gives the same separating hyperplane because $\langle c\vec{\beta}, \vec{x} \rangle = c \langle \vec{\beta}, \vec{x} \rangle$.

LINEARLY SEPARABLE DATA

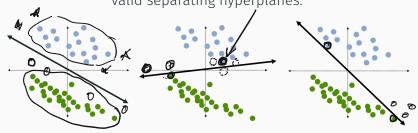
A data set might be linearly separable when using a non-kernel/feature transformation even if it is not separable in the original space.



This data is separable when using a degree-2 polynomial kernel. If suffices for $\phi(\vec{x})$ to contain x_1^2 and x_2^2 .

MARGIN

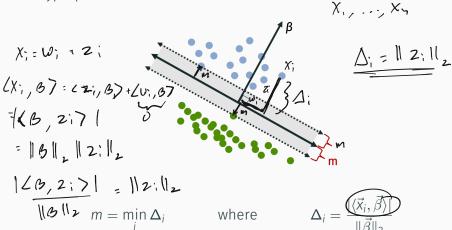
When data is linearly separable, there are typically multiple valid separating hyperplanes.



Which hyperplane/classification rule is best?

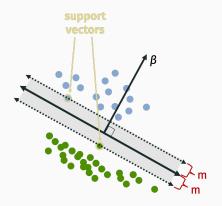
MARGIN

The margin m of a separating hyperplane is the minimum ℓ_2 (Euclidean) distance between a point in the dataset and the hyperplane.

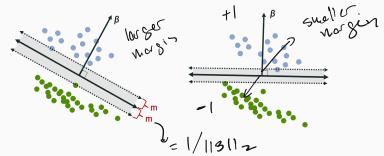


SUPPORT VECTOR

A **support vector** is any data point \vec{x}_i such that $\frac{|\langle \vec{x}_i, \vec{\beta} \rangle|}{\|\vec{\beta}\|_2} = m$.

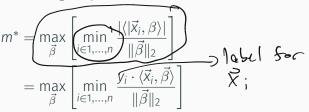


A hard-margin Support vector machine (SVM) classifier finds the maximum margin (MM) linear classifier.



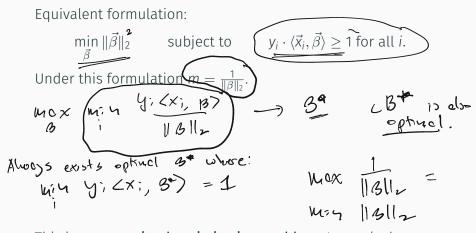
I.e. the separating hyperplane which maximizes the margin m.

Denote the maximum margin by m*.



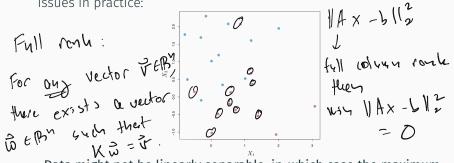
where $y_i = -1, 1$ depending on what class \vec{x}_i .¹

¹Note that this is a different convention than the 0,1 class labels we typically use.



This is a **constrained optimization problem.** In particular, a <u>linearly constrained quadratic program</u>, which is a type of problem we have efficient optimization algorithms for.

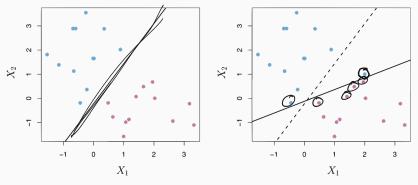
While important in theory, hard-margin SVMs have a few critical issues in practice:



Data might not be linearly separable, in-which case the maximum margin classifier is not even defined.

Less likely to be an issue when using a non-linear kernel. If **K** is full rank then perfect separation is always possible. And typically it is, e.g. for an RBF kernel or moderate degree polynomial kernel.

While important in theory, hard-margin SVMs have a few critical issues in practice:



Hard-margin SVM classifiers are not robust.

Solution: Allow the classifier to make some mistakes!

Hard margin objective:

$$\min_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_2^{\mathbf{r}} \quad \text{subject to} \quad y_i \cdot \langle \vec{x}_i, \vec{\beta} \rangle \ge 1 \text{ for all } i.$$

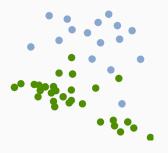
Soft margin objective:

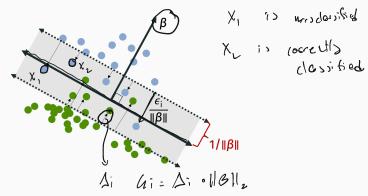
$$\min_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_2^{\frac{1}{2}} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_i$$
 subject to $\underline{y_i \cdot \langle \vec{x}_i, \vec{\beta} \rangle} \ge 1 - \epsilon_i$ for all i .

where $\epsilon_i \ge 0$ is a non-negative "slack variable". This is the magnitude of the "error" made on example \vec{x}_i .

 $C \ge 0$ is a non-negative tuning parameter.

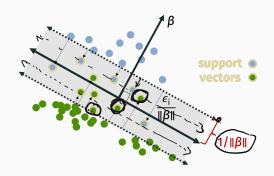
Example of a non-separable problem:





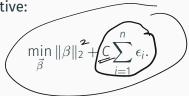
Soft margin objective:

$$\left(\min_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2}^{\nu} + C\sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_{i}\right) \text{ subject to } y_{i} \cdot \langle \vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\beta} \rangle \geq 1 - \epsilon_{i} \text{ for all } i.$$



Any \vec{x}_i with a non-zero ϵ_i is a <u>support vector</u>.



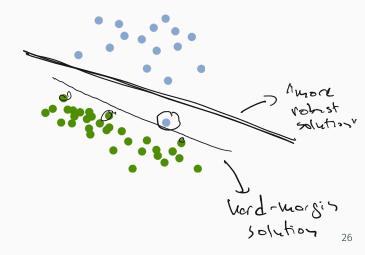


- Large C means penalties are punished more in objective
 ⇒ smaller margin, less support vectors.
- Small C means penalties are punished less in objective
 ⇒ larger margin, more support vectors.

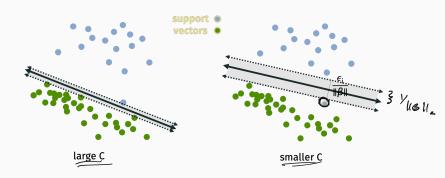
When data is linearly separable, as $C \to \infty$ we will always get a separating hyperplane. A smaller value of C might lead to a more robust solution.

EFFECT OF C

Example dataset:



EFFECT OF C



The classifier on the right is intuitively more robust. So for this data, a smaller choice for *C* might make sense.

DUAL FORMULATION

Reformulation of soft-margin objective:

$$\lim_{\vec{\alpha}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} y_i y_j \alpha_i \alpha_i (\vec{x}_i, \vec{x}_j) - \frac{1}{2C} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^2 \quad \text{of } E^{\text{T}}$$
subject to $\alpha_i \ge 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$. $\mathbb{K}(\vec{x}_i, \vec{x}_j)$

Obtained by taking the <u>Lagrangian dual</u> of the objective. Beyond the scope of this class, but important for a few reasons:

- Objective only depends on inner products $\langle \vec{x_i}, \vec{x_j} \rangle$, which makes it clear how to combine the soft-margin SVM with a kernel.
- Dual formulation can be solved faster in low-dimensions.
- Possible to prove that α_i is only non-zero for the support vectors. When classifying a new data point, only need to compute inner products (or the non-linear kernel inner product) with this subset of training vectors.

Some basic transformations of the soft-margin objective:

$$\min_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_{i}.$$

$$\min_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_{i} \cdot \langle \vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\beta} \rangle).$$

$$\min_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_{i} \cdot \langle \vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\beta} \rangle).$$

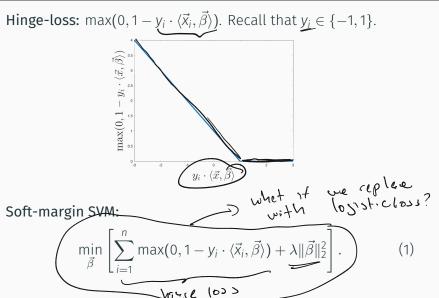
$$\lim_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_{i} \cdot \langle \vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\beta} \rangle).$$

$$\lim_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_{i} \cdot \langle \vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\beta} \rangle).$$

$$\lim_{\vec{\beta}} \|\beta\|_{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_{i} \cdot \langle \vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\beta} \rangle).$$

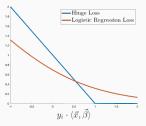
These are all equivalent $\lambda = 1/C$ just another scaling parameter.

HINGE LOSS



Compare this to the logistic regression loss (slightly reformulated for $\underline{y_i} \in \{-1, 1\}$): Hinge Loss Logistic Regression Loss $y_i \cdot \langle \vec{x}, \vec{\beta} \rangle$

So, in the end, the function minimized when finding $\vec{\beta}$ for the standard **soft-margin SVM** is <u>very similar</u> to the objective function minimized when finding $\vec{\beta}$ using **logistic regression** with ℓ_2 regularization. Sort of...



Both functions can be optimized using first-order methods like gradient descent. This is now a common choice for large problems.

The jury is still out on how different these methods are...



- Work through demo_mnist_svm.ipynb.
- Then complete lab lab_mnist_partial.ipynb.