### COMPUTATIONAL INTELLIGENCE

(INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING) SS18

Lecture 5:

- Support Vector Machine (SVM)
- Kernel methods
- Multiclass classification

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINE (SVM)

#### Separation of linearly separable classes

Consider a training set consisting of m samples:

 $\langle \pmb{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)} \rangle \dots \langle \pmb{x}^{(m)}, y^{(m)} \rangle \quad \text{where} \quad y^{(i)} \in \{-1, 1\}$ 

• If samples are linearly separable, there are multiple possible decision boundaries or separation hyperplanes



#### Margin of separation

• SVM tries to find an optimal decision boundary (hyperplane) determined with  $w_o$  and  $b_o$ , for separation of two classes which maximizes the separation margin or the separation between classes – the region between classes without samples



#### Support vectors

- Support vectors (SVs) are:
  - the closest points (samples) to the separation hyperplane
  - used for definition of the optimal separation hyperplane



SVs are samples for which holds:

$$\boldsymbol{w}_o^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} + b_o = \pm 1$$

#### Separation hyperplane

- The separation hyperplane is given by  $\boldsymbol{w}_o^T \boldsymbol{x} + b_o = 0$
- Discrimination function:  $h(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{w}_o^T \boldsymbol{x} + b_o$

The class of a new sample is determined based on the sign of h(x)  $h(x) \ge 0 \implies \text{Class 0} (y_i = +1)$  $h(x) < 0 \implies \text{Class 1} (y_i = -1)$ 

• Distance of the sample from the separation hyperplane:



#### Choice of support vectors

- Scaling of  $||w_o||$  and  $b_o$  does not change the separation hyperplane
- Therefore, SVs are chosen such that:

$$h(x^{(s)}) = w_o^T x^{(s)} + b_o = \pm 1$$
 for  $y^{(s)} = \pm 1$ 

• The distance of SV from the hyperplane is:

$$r = rac{h(m{x}^{(s)})}{||m{w}_o||} = rac{\pm 1}{||m{w}_o||}$$

• The width of the resulting margin is then:

$$\rho = 2|r| = \frac{2}{||\boldsymbol{w}_o||}$$

#### Maximizing the margin of separation

- Maximizing the margin is equivalent to minimizing the ||w||
- The ||w|| norm involves the square root, so minimization of ||w|| is replaced by minimization of  $\frac{1}{2}||w||^2$ , which does not change the solution
- SVM finds the maximum margin hyperplane, the hyperplane that maximizes the distance from the hyerplane to the closest training point

### Optimization

• Optimization problem can be written as:

$$arg\min_{oldsymbol{w}}rac{1}{2}||oldsymbol{w}||^2$$

under condition for all samples (that all of them are correctly classified):

$$y^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} + b) \ge 1$$
 for  $i = 1 \dots m$ 

- 1) Using **SGD**: can be faster if we have many data points or high dimensional data but it is adapted only for linear classification
- 2) Using **quadratic** optimization in the **Dual space**: make it possible to use the **Kernel trick** (see later) and separate non-linearly separable dataset. (Breakthrough in machine learning history)

### Optimization

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$$y^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} + b) \ge 1$$
 for  $i = 1 \dots m$ 

• This problem can be solved by using Lagrange multipliers:

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2} ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i [y^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} + b) - 1]$$

$$\min_{\substack{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M} \\ max}} \max_{\substack{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M} \\ max}} \sum_{\substack{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M} \\ max}} \sum$$

where Lagrange multipliers  $\alpha_i \ge 0$ 

• Solution is in the saddle :  $\min_{w} [\max_{\alpha} J(w, b, \alpha)]$ • Dual problem is :  $\max_{\alpha} [\min_{w} J(w, b, \alpha)] = \max_{\alpha} [Q(\alpha)]$ 

#### Solution

• The solution to  $\min_{w} J(w, b, \alpha)$  can be expressed as a linear combination of training vectors (by setting  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = 0$  and  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = 0$ )

$$\boldsymbol{w}_o = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y^{(i)} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}$$
  $\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$ 

• To find Lagrange multipliers  $\alpha_i$  the dual form is used, which is solved through quadratic optimization

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j}^{m} \alpha_i \alpha_j y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \boldsymbol{x}^{T(i)} \boldsymbol{x}^{(j)}$$

under conditions:  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0$  and  $\alpha_i \ge 0$ 

• Note that only few  $\alpha_i$  will be greater then 0, and for those the corresponding samples will be support vectors!

# Separation of linearly non-separable classes (Soft margin method)

- Main idea: use a soft margin which allows for mislabeled samples
- Introduce slack variables  $\xi_i$ , one for each  $x^{(i)}$  and solve slightly different optimization problem



$$arg \min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \frac{1}{2} ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \xi_i$$
term
$$y^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$$
$$\xi_i \ge 0$$

- The free parameter C controls the relative importance of minimizing the norm ||w|| and satisfying the margin constraint for each sample
- It allows to control the sensitivity of SVM to outliers

#### SVM: pros and cons

 SVM is not necessarily better than other machine learning methods (except perhaps in situations with little training data), but it performs at the state-ofthe-art level and has a nice theoretical background

#### • Pros:

- Finding a minimum of optimization problem is guaranteed
- Usage of kernel methods (solve nonlinear problems)
- By choosing a specific hyperplane among many SVM avoids overfitting (this depends on the choice of parameter C)

#### Cons:

- Speed of execution no direct control of number of SVs
- Solution parameters are hard to interpret
- Hard to add a priori knowledge:
  - Solutions: add "artificial" samples or add additional optimization conditions

#### **SVM extensions**

- Multiclass SVM (multiple classes)
- Transductive SVM (partially labeled data, transduction)
- Structured SVM (structured output labels)
  - E.g. Input is natural language sentence, output is annotated parse tree
- Regression (Support Vector Regression)

#### **SVM** applications

- SVMs are used to solve many real world problems:
  - Text classification
  - Image classification
  - Hand-written recognition
  - Protein classification
  - ...

### **KERNEL METHODS**

#### **Motivation**

- If data samples are not linearly separable, it would be nice if we could make them linearly separable and apply well studied linear classifiers (e.g. SVM) to separate them
- Cover's theorem: given a set of training data that is not linearly separable, one can with high probability transform it into a training set that is linearly separable by projecting it into a higher dimensional space via some non-linear transformation



#### **Projection example**

Original space:

 $\boldsymbol{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ 

High-dimensional feature space:  $\varphi(\boldsymbol{x}) = (1, x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1, \sqrt{2}x_2)$ 



#### Kernels

 Kernels are functions that return the inner products between the images of data points in some space (they are often interpreted as a similarity measures)

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\boldsymbol{x}_2)$$

- They allow for operating in a high-dimensional *implicit* feature space without ever computing the coordinates of the data in that space - no need for explicit mapping!
- This operation is often computationally cheaper than the explicit computation and is called the **kernel trick**

#### Kernel example

• Consider 2-dimensional vectors:  $\boldsymbol{u} = (u_1 \quad u_2)^T$  and  $\boldsymbol{v} = (v_1 \quad v_2)^T$ and a quadratic kernel in two dimensions:

$$K(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) = (1 + \boldsymbol{u}^T \boldsymbol{v})^2$$

If  $\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = (1 \quad x_1^2 \quad \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \quad x_2^2 \quad \sqrt{2}x_1 \quad \sqrt{2}x_2)^T$  then:  $K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (1 + \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v})^2$   $= 1 + u_1^2 v_1^2 + 2u_1 v_1 u_2 v_2 + u_2^2 v_2^2 + 2u_1 v_1 + 2u_2 v_2$   $= (1 \quad u_1^2 \quad \sqrt{2}u_1 u_2 \quad u_2^2 \quad \sqrt{2}u_1 \quad \sqrt{2}u_2)^T (1 \quad v_1^2 \quad \sqrt{2}v_1 v_2 \quad v_2^2 \quad \sqrt{2}v_1 \quad \sqrt{2}v_2)$   $= \varphi(\mathbf{u})^T \varphi(\mathbf{v})$ 

#### Kernels usage

- Where:
  - Within learning algorithms that only require dot products between the vectors in the original space (choose the mapping such that the high-dimensional dot products can be computed within the original space, by means of a *kernel function*)
- *How*:
  - Calculate the kernel matrix the inner product between all pairs of data samples
- Under what condition:
  - Given by *Mercer's theorem*: the kernel matrix must be symmetric positive definite

#### Standard kernels

Polynomial kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = (\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{y} + c)^d$$

RBF kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = exp(-\frac{||\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}||^2}{2\sigma^2})$$

Sigmoid kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = tanh(a\boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{y} + b)$$

- String kernels
- Graph kernels

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#### Kernels with various methods

- Any linear model can be turned into a non-linear model by applying the "kernel trick" to the model: replacing its features by a kernel function
- Methods capable of operating with kernels:
  - SVM
  - Perceptron (Kernel perceptron)
  - Principal component analysis
  - Cluster analysis
  - Gaussian process
  - Fisher discriminant
  - ...

#### **Discrimination function (linear SVM)**

- The separation hyperplane is given by:  $w_o^T x + b_o = 0$
- Discrimination function:  $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_o^T \mathbf{x} + b_o$
- The class of a new sample is determined based on the sign of h(x)  $h(x) \ge 0 \implies \text{Class 0} (y_i = +1)$   $h(x) < 0 \implies \text{Class 1} (y_i = -1)$   $w_o^T x + b_o \ge 0$   $w_o^T x + b_o \ge 0$   $w_o^T x + b_o \ge 0$  $w_o^T x + b_o \ge 0$

#### Non-linear (kernel) SVM

- The most famous application of kernels is with SVM
- Kernels allow non-linear classification with SVMs
- The discrimination can be rewritten in the feature space as:

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})$$
 where we used  $\varphi_0(\mathbf{x}) = 1$  and  $w_0 = b_0$ 

• The solution to the optimization problem of the maximal margin can be written as:

$$oldsymbol{w}_o = \sum_{i=1}^m lpha_i y^{(i)} oldsymbol{arphi}(oldsymbol{x}^{(i)})$$

Combining these gives:

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)} \boldsymbol{\varphi} (\mathbf{x}^{(i)})^T \boldsymbol{\varphi} (\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y^{(i)} K(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x})$$

#### Applications

- Kernels can be applied on general types of data (besides vector data also on sequences, trees, graphs, etc.)
- Application areas:
  - Information extraction
  - Bioinformatics
  - Handwriting recognition
  - Text classification (string kernels)
  - 3D reconstruction
  - Image recognition

• ...

## MULTICLASS CLASSIFICATION

#### **Classification problems**

#### Some are naturally **binary**:

- Spam vs not spam
- Medical tests
- Quality control

• ...



#### But many are **mutli-class**:

- Text classification
- POS tagging

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- Object recognition
- Biological sequences



#### **Multiclass classification**

Consider a training set consisting of *m* samples:

 $\langle \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)} 
angle \dots \langle \boldsymbol{x}^{(m)}, y^{(m)} 
angle$ 

- Each training sample belongs to **only one** of the N classes

 $y^{(i)} \in [1, \dots, N]$ 

- The goal is to find a function which correctly predicts the class to which a new sample belongs
- It is different from a multilabel classification, where the goal is to assign to each sample a set of target labels (multiple classes)!

#### Classifiers

Some are directly multiclass:

- Decision trees
- Naive Bayes
- MaxEnt
- Multiclass SVM
- AdaBoost.MH

They directly output more than two class labels

Many are binary:

- Logistic regression
- Perceptron
- Neural Network
- SVM

They output only 2 class labels (e.g. 0 and 1). Can we use them for multiclass problems and how?

#### Binary classifiers for multiclass problems

#### Idea:

- Decompose multiclass problem into a set of binary problems
- Create binary classifiers for binary problems
- Combine the output of binary classifiers as a multiclass classifier
- Methods:
  - One-vs-all (OVA)
  - One-vs-one (OVO)
  - Error Correcting Output Codes (ECOC)

### One-vs-all (OVA)

- Create classifiers that distinguish each class from all other classes
- There is 1 classifier per class: N classes  $\rightarrow N$  classifiers
- Training:
  - For each class C:
    - For each sample  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)} \rangle$ : • If  $y^{(i)} = C$  create sample  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, 1 \rangle$

• Otherwise, create sample  $\langle m{x}^{(i)}, -1 
angle$ 

- Train N classifiers  $h_k({m x})$  where  $k\in [1,\ldots,N]$
- Testing:
  - Classify new sample using all classifiers
  - Select the prediction (class) with the highest confidence score

Class = 
$$arg \max_k h_k(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)})$$



### One-vs-one (OVO)

- Create classifiers that distinguish between each pair of classes
- Training:
  - For each class  $C_i$ :
    - For each class  $C_j$  :
      - For each sample  $\langle {m x}^{(l)}, y^{(l)} 
        angle$  :
        - If  $y^{(l)} = C_i$  create sample  $\langle m{x}^{(l)}, 1 
          angle$
        - If  $y^{(l)} = C_j$  create sample  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}^{(l)}, -1 \rangle$
        - Otherwise, ignore sample
- Train all the classifiers
- Testing:
  - Classify new sample using all classifiers
  - Select the class with most votes



#### Error Correcting Output Codes (ECOC)

- Each class is represented by a binary code of length *n* (e.g. NN)
- Each bit position corresponds to the output of a classifier (feature)
- Training: 1 classifier per bit position
- Testing: get the output from classifiers and find the closest binary code (distance: Euclidean, cosine, Manhattan, etc.) to decide the class
- ECOC can recover from some bit errors (caused by limited data, bad features etc.), but this can also be limited due to the correlated mistakes

#### Comparison

- The most used (and the simplest) method is OVA
- Complexity (the number of classifiers):
  - OVA: N
  - OVO: N(N-1)/2
  - ECOC: n (code length)
- OVO can be faster then OVA (due to the smaller datasets), but can have problem with overfitting (too few samples per dataset)

#### **Confusion matrix**

- Is an important tool for visualizing and analyzing the performance of a classifier for multiple classes
- It shows for each pair of classes how many samples were incorrectly assigned. From this it is easy to see if the classifier is confusing two classes
- It can help pinpoint opportunities for improving the accuracy of the system
  - e.g. one can easily identify the place(classifier) of largest error and try to introduce additional features to improve classification and reduce the error



#### **Classification metrics**

- Classification accuracy
  - Proportion of samples that were classified correctly
  - (No. of samples that were classified correctly) / N
- Precision and Recall
  - Precision = True predicted Positive / Predicted Positive
  - Recall = True predicted Positive / Real positive



# SUMMARY (QUESTIONS)

#### Some questions...

- What is the margin of separation?
- What are support vectors?
- What is SVM?
- What is the separation hyperplane and the discrimination function?
- What is a distance of a sample from the hyperplane?  $r = \frac{h(x)}{||w_{a}||}$
- Why do we use soft margin (slack variables)?
- What is a kernel?
- State Cover's theorem
- What is the kernel trick?

#### Some questions...

- What is the difference between Multiclass vs multilabel classification?
- Methods for multiclass problems
- What is OVA?
- OVA vs OVO
- What is confusion matrix and why do we use it?