

UVA CS 6316: Machine Learning

Lecture 11b: Support Vector Machine (nonlinear) Kernel Trick and in Practice

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What Left in SVM?

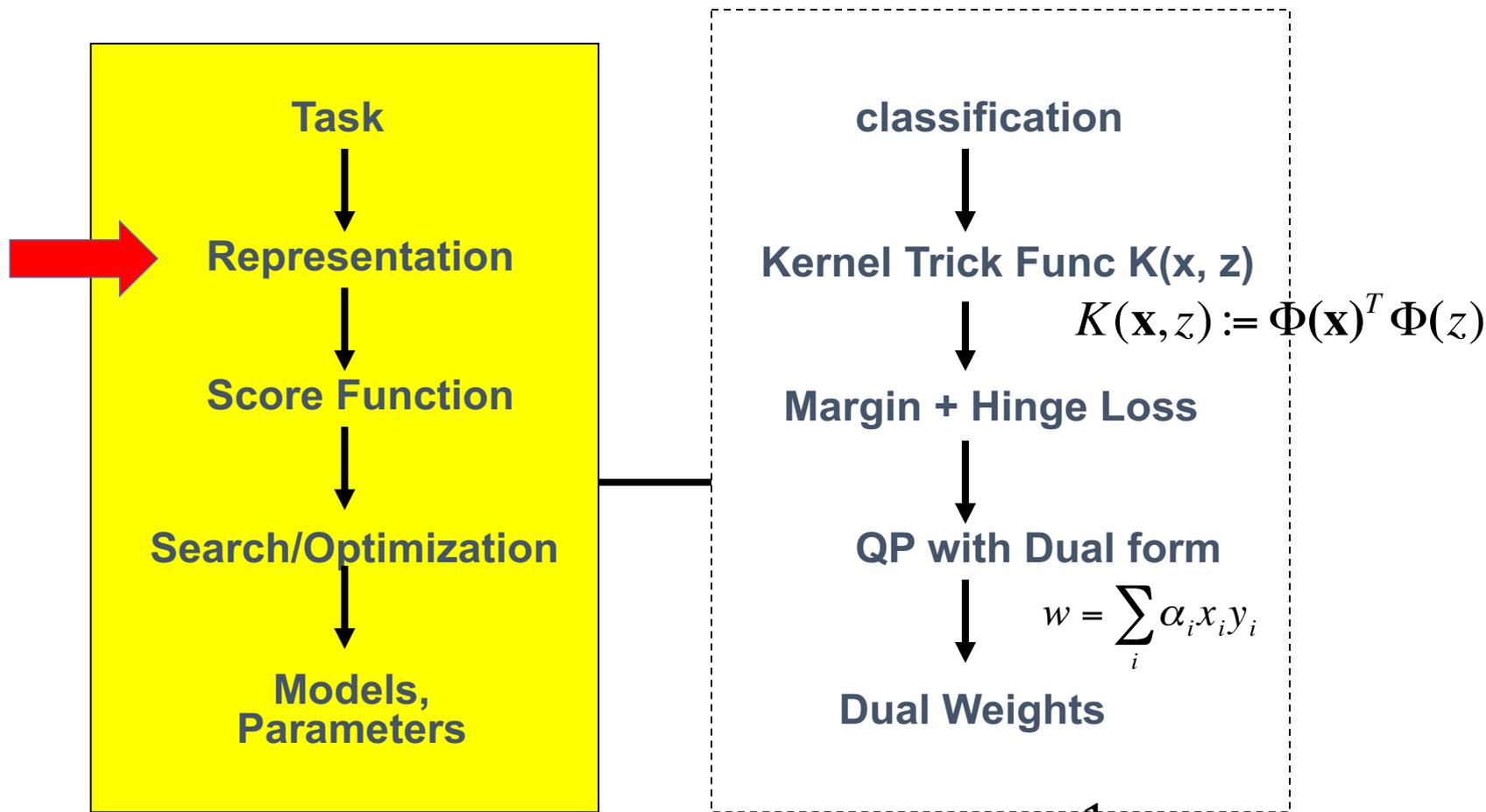
- ❑ Support Vector Machine (SVM)
 - ✓ History of SVM
 - ✓ Large Margin Linear Classifier
 - ✓ Define Margin (M) in terms of model parameter
 - ✓ Optimization to learn model parameters (w, b)
 - ✓ Linearly Non-separable case (soft SVM)
 - ✓ Optimization with dual form
 - ✓ Nonlinear decision boundary
 - ✓ Practical Guide

Today

- ❑ Support Vector Machine (SVM)
 - ✓ History of SVM
 - ✓ Large Margin Linear Classifier
 - ✓ Define Margin (M) in terms of model parameter
 - ✓ Optimization to learn model parameters (w, b)
 - ✓ Non linearly separable case
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Support Vector Machine



$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}, b} \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall \mathbf{x}_i \in D_{\text{train}} : y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{w} + b) \geq 1 - \varepsilon_i$$



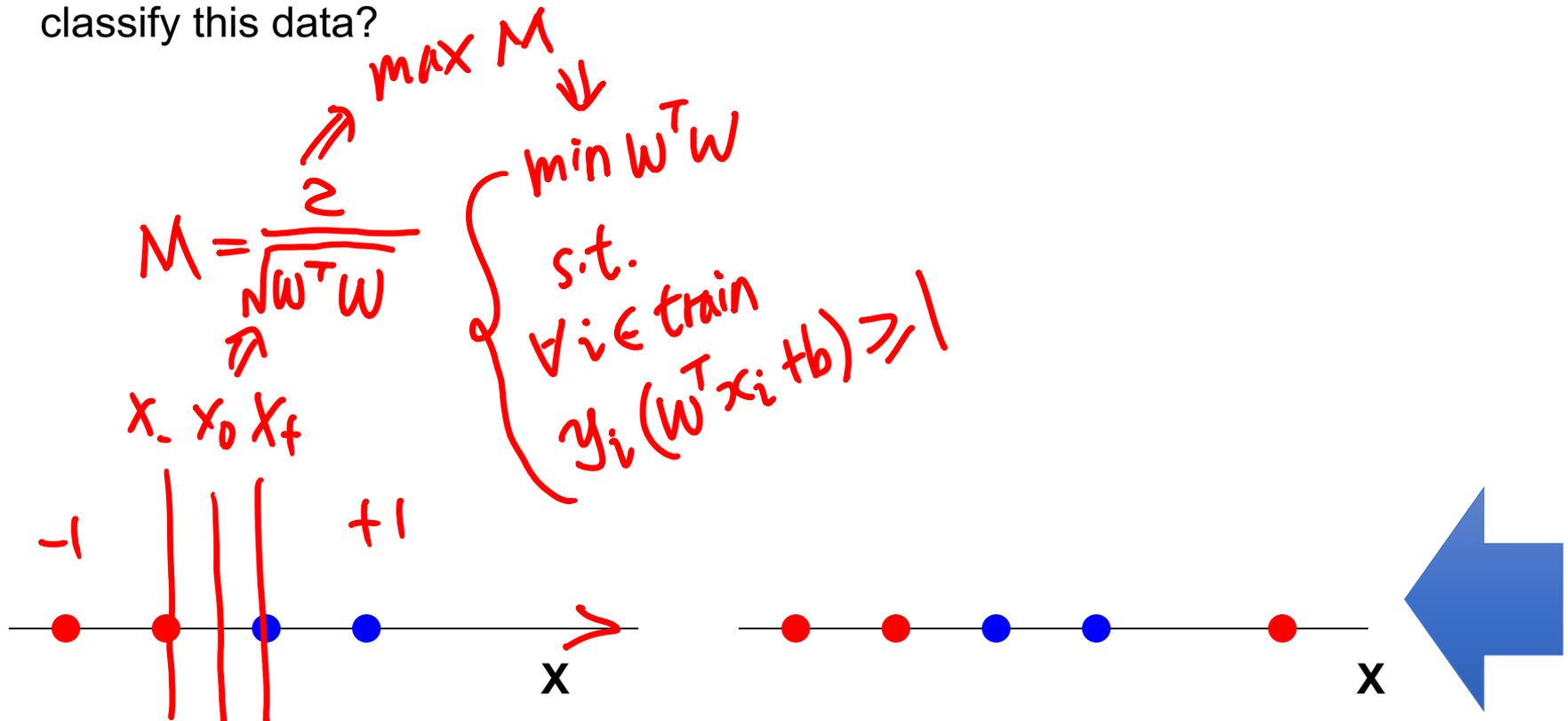
$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad \alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$$

Classifying in 1-d

Can an SVM correctly classify this data?

What about this?



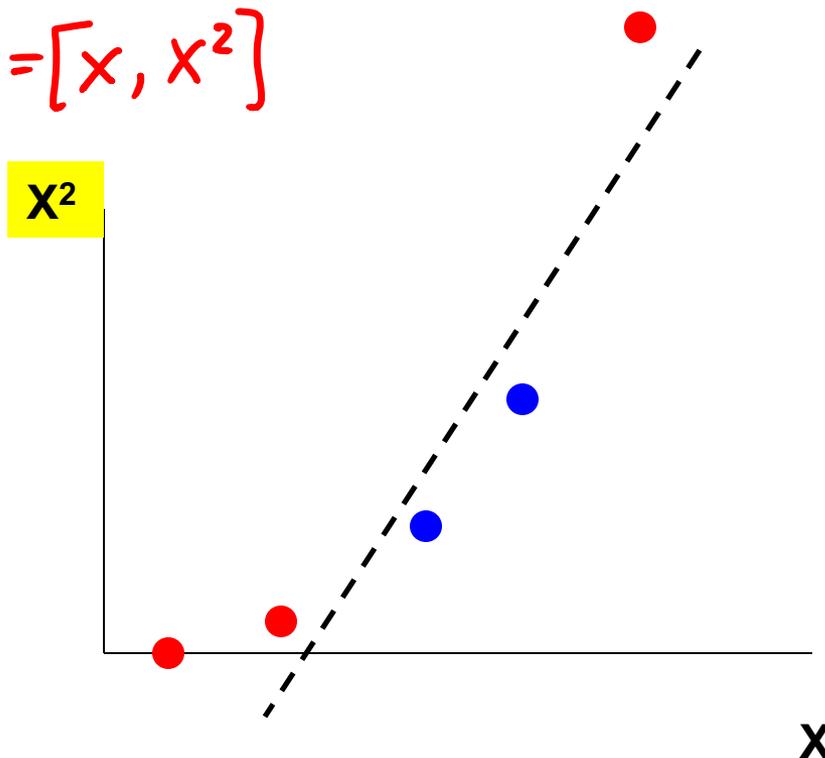
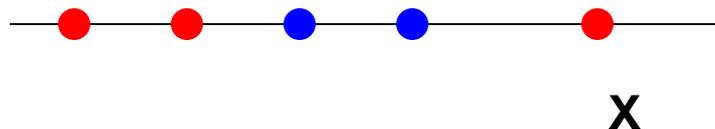
Classifying in 1-d

$\int \rightarrow$ separable
 $\lfloor \rightarrow$ nonlinear

Can an SVM correctly classify this data?

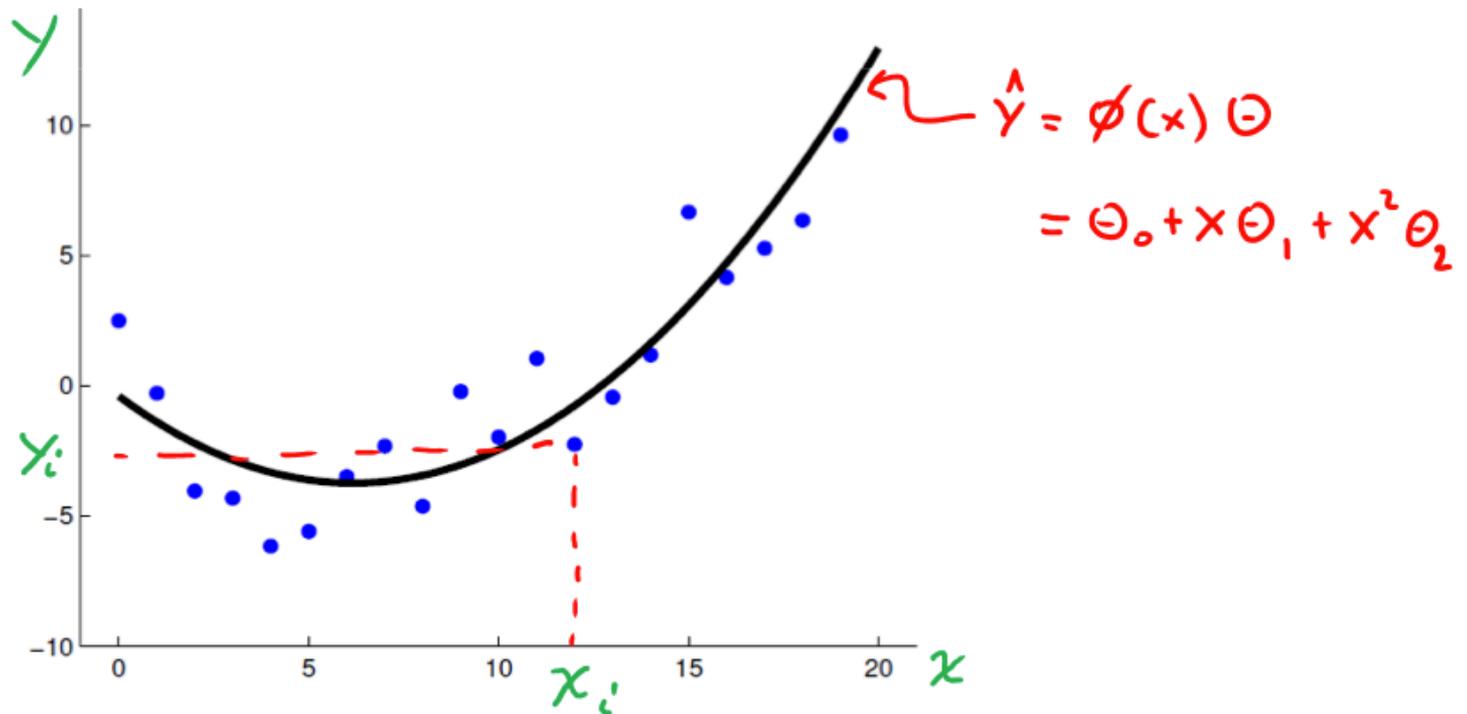
And now? (extend with polynomial basis)

$(x) \rightarrow \Phi(x) = [x, x^2]$



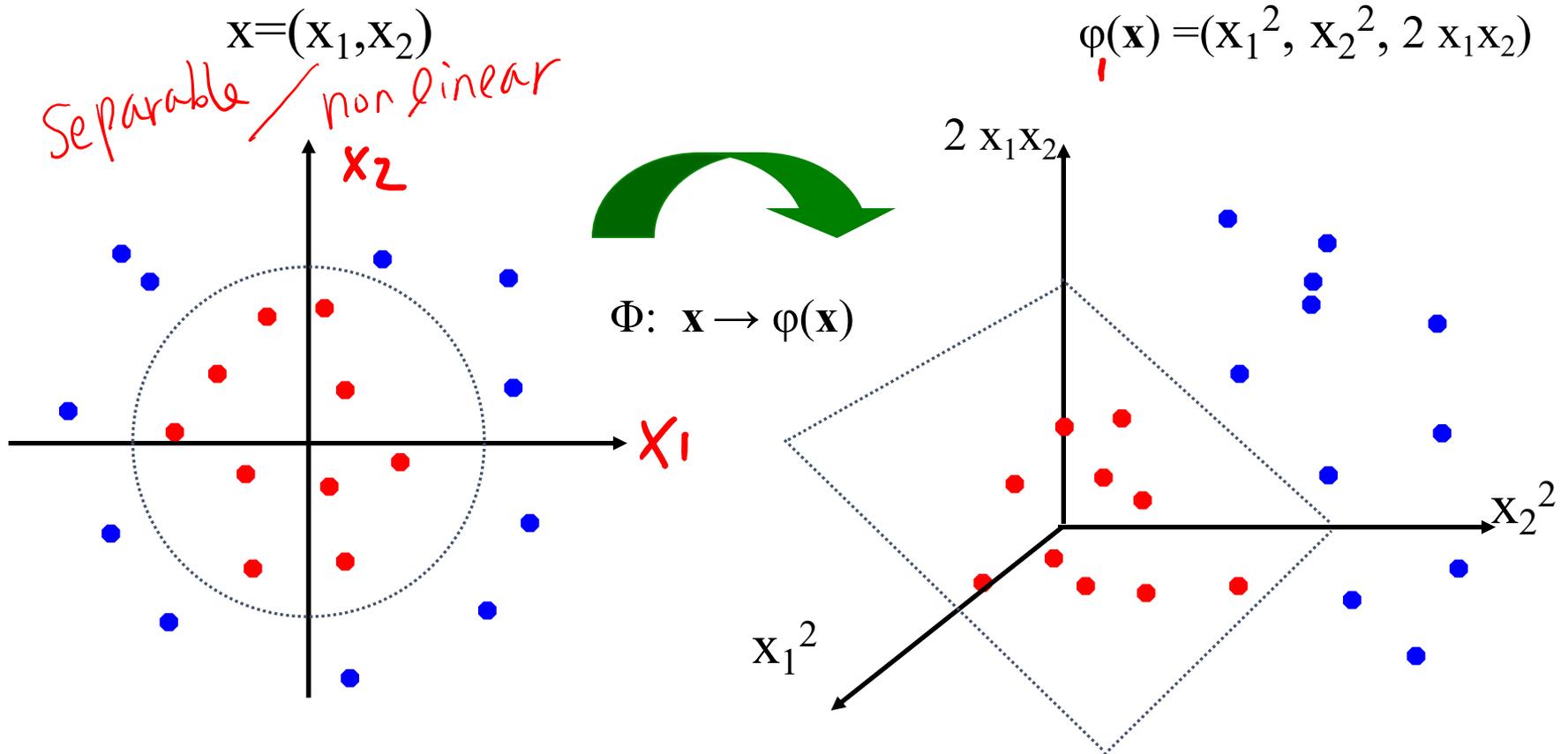
RECAP: Polynomial regression

For example, $\phi(x) = [1, x, x^2]$



Non-linear SVMs: 2D

- The original input space (\mathbf{x}) can be mapped to some higher-dimensional feature space ($\phi(\mathbf{x})$) where the training set is separable:

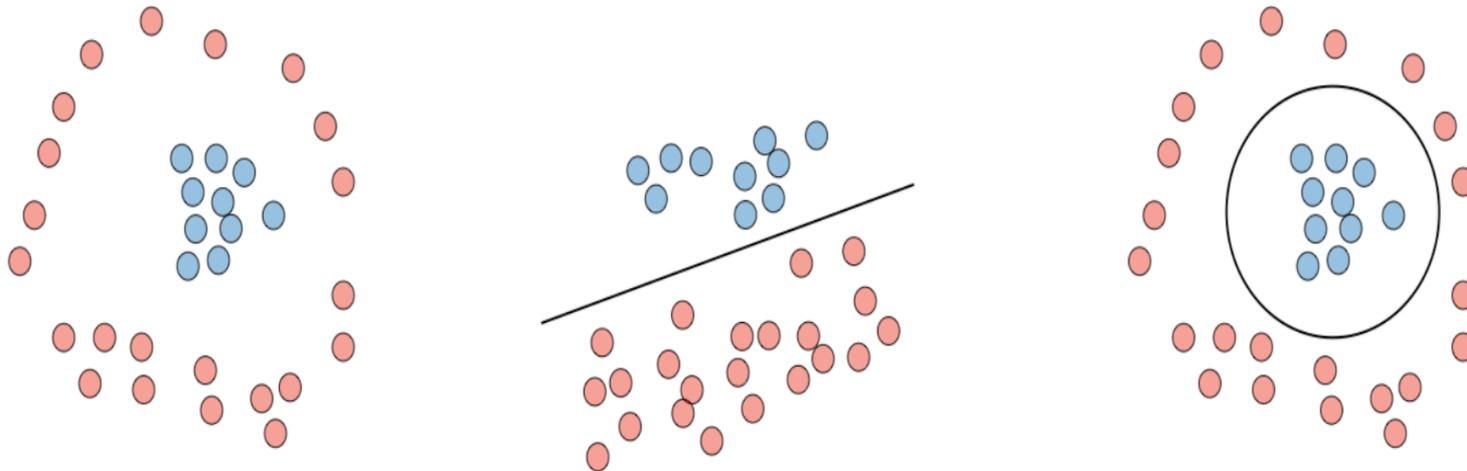


□ **Kernel** – Given a feature mapping ϕ , we define the kernel K to be defined as:

$$K(x,z) = \phi(x)^T \phi(z)$$

In practice, the kernel K defined by $K(x,z) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-z\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ is called the Gaussian kernel and is commonly used.

RBF $\phi_2(x)^T \phi_2(z)$



Non-linear separability \longrightarrow Use of a kernel mapping ϕ \longrightarrow Decision boundary in the original space

When ~~we say~~ we say that we use the "kernel trick" to compute the cost function using the kernel ~~trick~~ we actually don't need to know the explicit mapping ϕ , which is often very complicated. Instead, only the values $K(x,z)$ are needed.

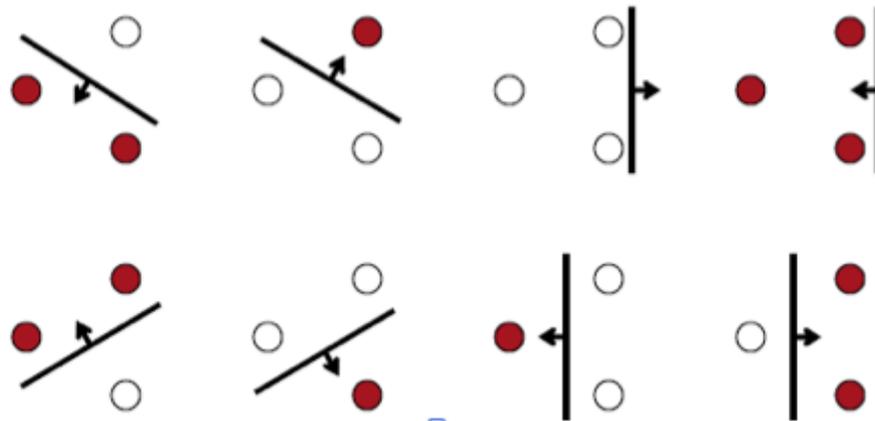
A little bit theory: $X \rightarrow \phi(X) \geq N-1$

Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) dimension

If data is mapped into sufficiently high dimension, then samples will in general be linearly separable;
 N data points are in general separable in a space of N-1 dimensions or more!!!

- **VC dimension of the set of oriented lines in R^2 is 3**

- It can be shown that the VC dimension of the family of oriented separating hyperplanes in R^N is at least N+1



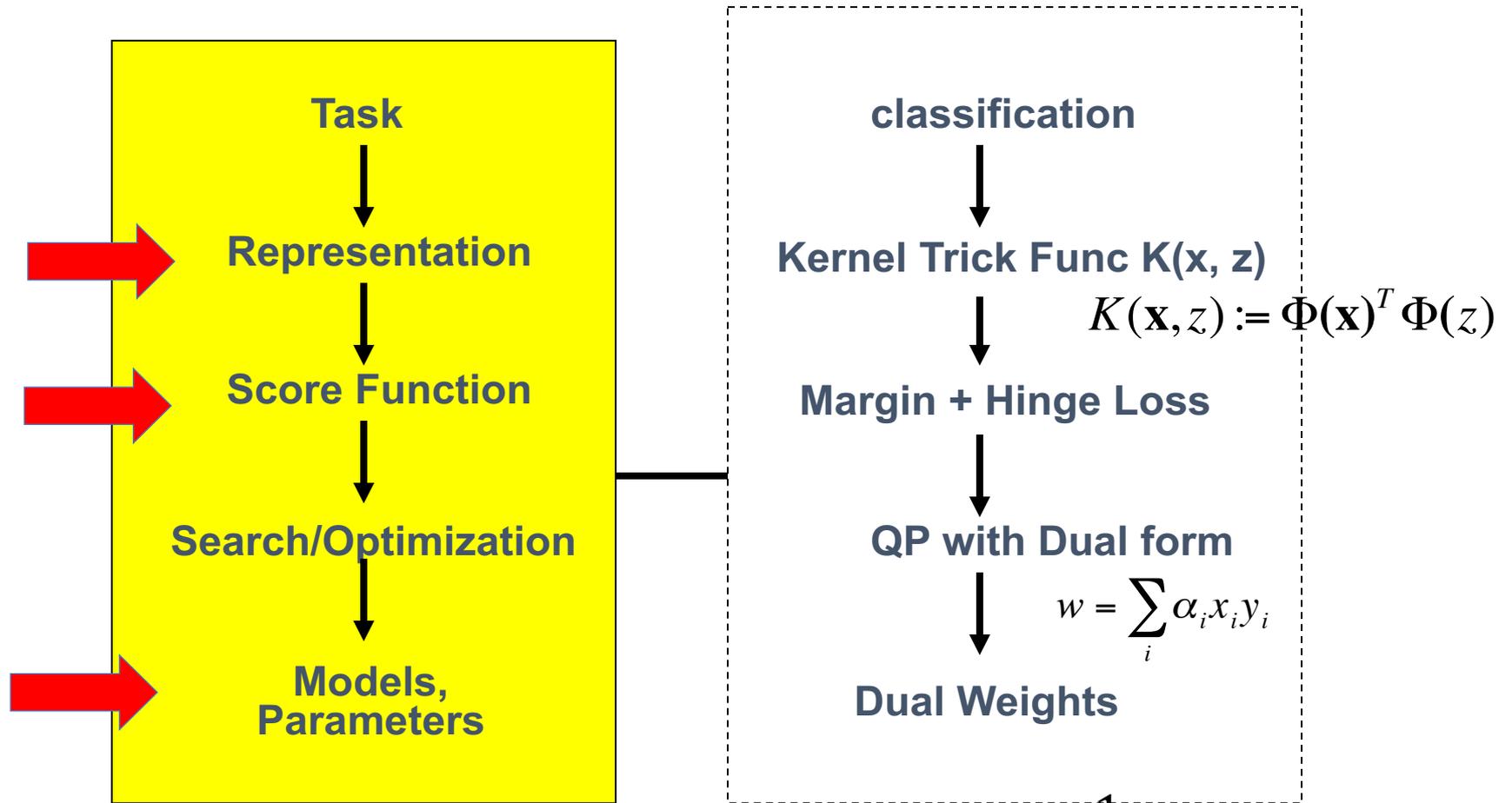
If data is mapped into sufficiently high dimension, then samples will in general be linearly separable;

N data points are in general separable in a space of $N-1$ dimensions or more!!!

$$X \rightarrow \Phi(X)$$

Linearly separated into
two classes $\{+1, -1\}$

Next Lesson for: Support Vector Machine



$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}, b} \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall \mathbf{x}_i \in D_{\text{train}} : y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{w} + b) \geq 1 - \varepsilon_i$$

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad \alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$$

Optimization Reformulation (for linearly separable case)

$$x_i \rightarrow \phi(x_i)$$

$$f(x, w, b) = \text{sign}(w^T x + b)$$

1. Correctly classifies all points
2. Maximizes the margin (or equivalently minimizes $w^T w$)

$$\text{Min } (w^T w)/2$$

subject to the following constraints:

For all x in class + 1

$$w^T x + b \geq 1$$

For all x in class - 1

$$w^T x + b \leq -1$$

A total of n constraints if we have n input samples



$y_i \in \{+1, -1\}$
Quadratic Objective

$$\text{argmin}_{w, b} \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 = \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall x_i \in D_{\text{train}}: y_i (w^T x_i + b) \geq 1$$

Handwritten notes under the constraint:
 $w^T x_i$ is written as $|x| \cdot |w| \cdot \cos(\theta)$
 $|x|$ is written as $|x|$
 $|w|$ is written as $|w|$
 $\cos(\theta)$ is written as $\cos(\theta)$

Quadratic programming
i.e.,

- Quadratic objective
- Linear constraints

An alternative representation of the SVM QP

- Instead of encoding the correct classification rule and constraint we will use Lagrange multipliers to encode it as part of our minimization problem

$$\text{Min } (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}) / 2$$

s.t.

$$(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) y_i \geq 1$$

Recall that Lagrange multipliers can be applied to turn the following problem:

$$L_{\text{primal}}(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i \left(\underbrace{y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1}_{\geq 1} \right)$$

$\forall i, \alpha_i \geq 0$ every training

The Dual Problem (Extra)

$$\max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \min_{w, b} \mathcal{L}(w, b, \alpha)$$

Dual formulation

- We minimize \mathcal{L} with respect to w and b first:

$$\nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, b, \alpha) = w - \sum_{i=1}^{\text{train}} \alpha_i y_i x_i = 0, \quad (*)$$

$$\nabla_b \mathcal{L}(w, b, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{train}} \alpha_i y_i = 0, \quad (**)$$

Note that (*) implies:

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{train}} \alpha_i y_i x_i$$

$$f(x) = \text{Sign}(\tilde{w}^T \tilde{x} + b)$$

(***)

- Plus (***) back to \mathcal{L} , and using (**), we have:

$$\mathcal{L}(w, b, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j (\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j)$$

SVM goal

Summary: Dual SVM for linearly separable case

Dual formulation

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$
$$\alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$$

$n \alpha_i$

$$\text{Min } (\underline{w^T w})/2$$

subject to the following inequality constraints:

For all x in class + 1

$$\underline{w^T x + b} \geq 1$$

For all x in class - 1

$$\underline{w^T x + b} \leq -1$$

A total of n constraints if we have n input samples



Easier than original QP, more efficient algorithms exist to find α_i , e.g. SMO (see extra slides)

Dual SVM for linearly separable case – Training / Testing

Our dual target function: $\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$ { $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ }

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

Dot product for all training samples

$$\alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$$

{ most $\alpha_i = 0$
only support vectors $\alpha_i > 0$

Dual SVM for linearly separable case – Training / Testing

Our dual target function: $\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

Dot product for all training samples

$$\alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$$

Dot product with (“all” ??) training samples

To evaluate a new sample \mathbf{x}_{ts} we need to compute:

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{ts} + b = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_{ts} + b$$

$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{ts}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_{ts})$

 $\hat{y}_{ts} = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{i \in \text{SupportVectors}} \alpha_i y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_{ts}) + b \right)$

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$C > \alpha_i \geq 0, \forall i$$

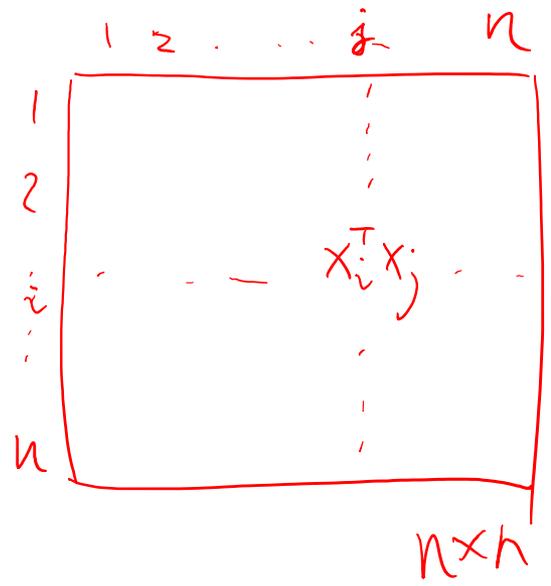
$$\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j = \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i$$

nonlinear

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

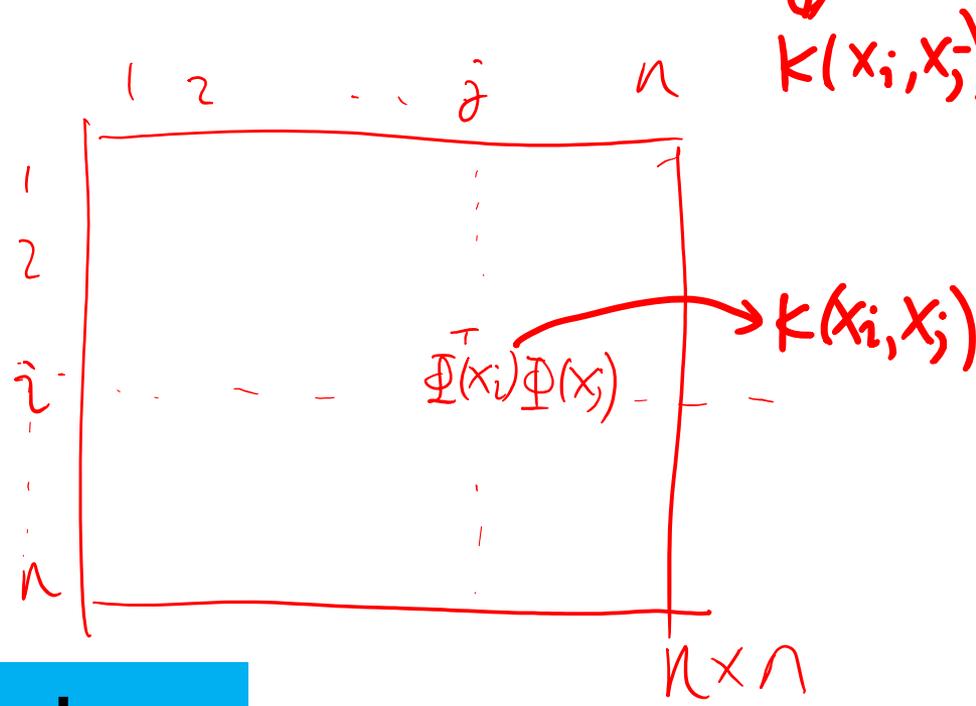
$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$C > \alpha_i \geq 0, \forall i$$



$$O(p \cdot n^2 / 2)$$

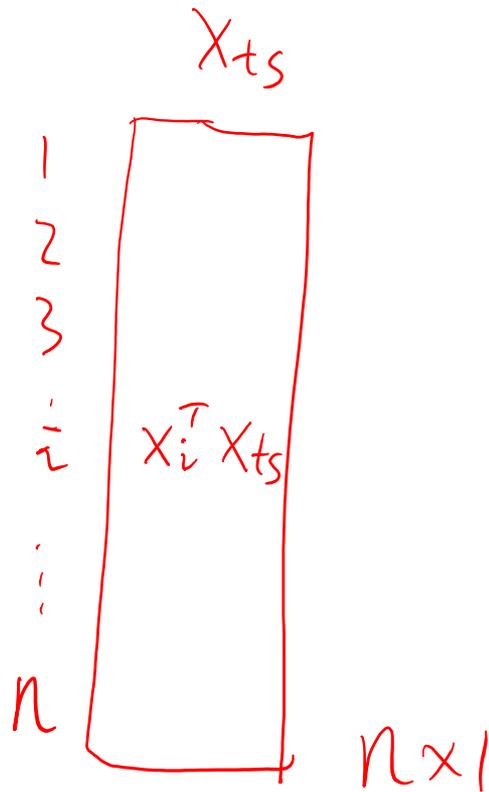
Training



$$O(p \cdot n^2 / 2)$$

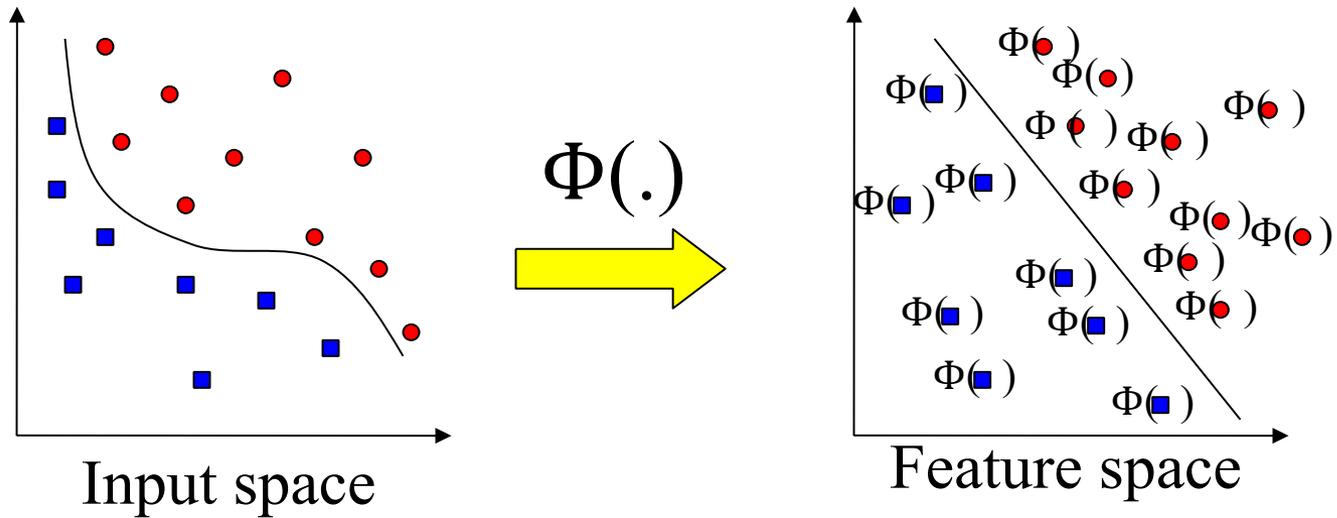
$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{ts} + b = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_{ts} + b$$

$$\hat{y}_{ts} = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{i \in \text{SupportVectors}} \alpha_i y_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_{ts}) + b \right)$$



$$\Rightarrow \sum_{SV} \alpha_i y_i \underbrace{\Phi(x_i) \Phi(x_{ts})}_{+b}$$

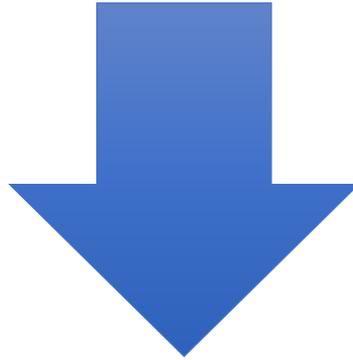
Testing



SVM solves these two issues simultaneously

- “Kernel tricks” for efficient computation
- Dual formulation only assigns parameters to samples, not to features

- SVM solves these two issues simultaneously
 - “Kernel tricks” for efficient computation
 - Dual formulation only assigns parameters to samples, not features



(1). “Kernel tricks” for efficient computation

Never represent features explicitly

- Compute dot products in closed form

Very interesting theory – Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

- Not covered in detail here

$$k(x, z)$$

$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \equiv \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$ is called the kernel function.

- Linear kernel (we've seen it)

$$K(\mathbf{x}, z) = \mathbf{x}^T z$$

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p \\ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^p \end{cases}$$

- Polynomial kernel (we will see an example)

$$K(\mathbf{x}, z) = \left(1 + \mathbf{x}^T z\right)^d = \underbrace{\Phi_p(\mathbf{x})^T}_{O(p)} \underbrace{\Phi_p(z)}_{O(p)}$$

where $d = 2, 3, \dots$. To get the feature vectors we concatenate all d th order polynomial terms of the components of \mathbf{x} (weighted appropriately) $p_{\Phi} \rightarrow O(p^d)$

- Radial basis kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}, z) = \exp\left(-r \|\mathbf{x} - z\|^2\right) = \underbrace{\Phi_r(\mathbf{x})^T}_{O(p)} \underbrace{\Phi_r(z)}_{p = \infty}$$

In this case., r is hyperpara. The feature space of the RBF kernel has an infinite number of dimensions

Never represent features explicitly

Compute dot products with a closed form

Very interesting theory – Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

Not covered in detail here

Example: Quadratic kernels

$$K(\mathbf{x}, z) = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T z)^d \quad \rightarrow \quad (1 + x^T z)^2$$

$$K(\mathbf{x}, z) := \Phi(\mathbf{x})^T \Phi(z)$$

- Consider all quadratic terms for $x_1, x_2 \dots x_p$

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$\alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$$

$$\Phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}x_p \\ x_1^2 \\ \vdots \\ x_p^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}x_{p-1}x_p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{z})^2 \quad [d=2], [p=2] \quad \begin{cases} \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) \\ \mathbf{z} = (z_1, z_2) \end{cases}$$

$$\underbrace{k(x, z)} = (1 + x_1 z_1 + x_2 z_2)^2 \Rightarrow \textcircled{O(p)}$$

$$\textcircled{O(p^2)} \left\{ \begin{aligned} &= (1, \sqrt{2}x_1, \sqrt{2}x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2)^T \\ &(1, \sqrt{2}z_1, \sqrt{2}z_2, z_1^2, z_2^2, \sqrt{2}z_1z_2) \end{aligned} \right.$$

$$= \underbrace{\Phi(\mathbf{x})^T \Phi(\mathbf{z})}$$

The kernel trick

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x})^T \Phi(\mathbf{z})$$

$O(p^d n^2)$ operations if using the basis function representations in building a poly-kernel matrix



So, if we define the **kernel function** as follows, there is no need to carry out basis function explicitly

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{z})^d$$


$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

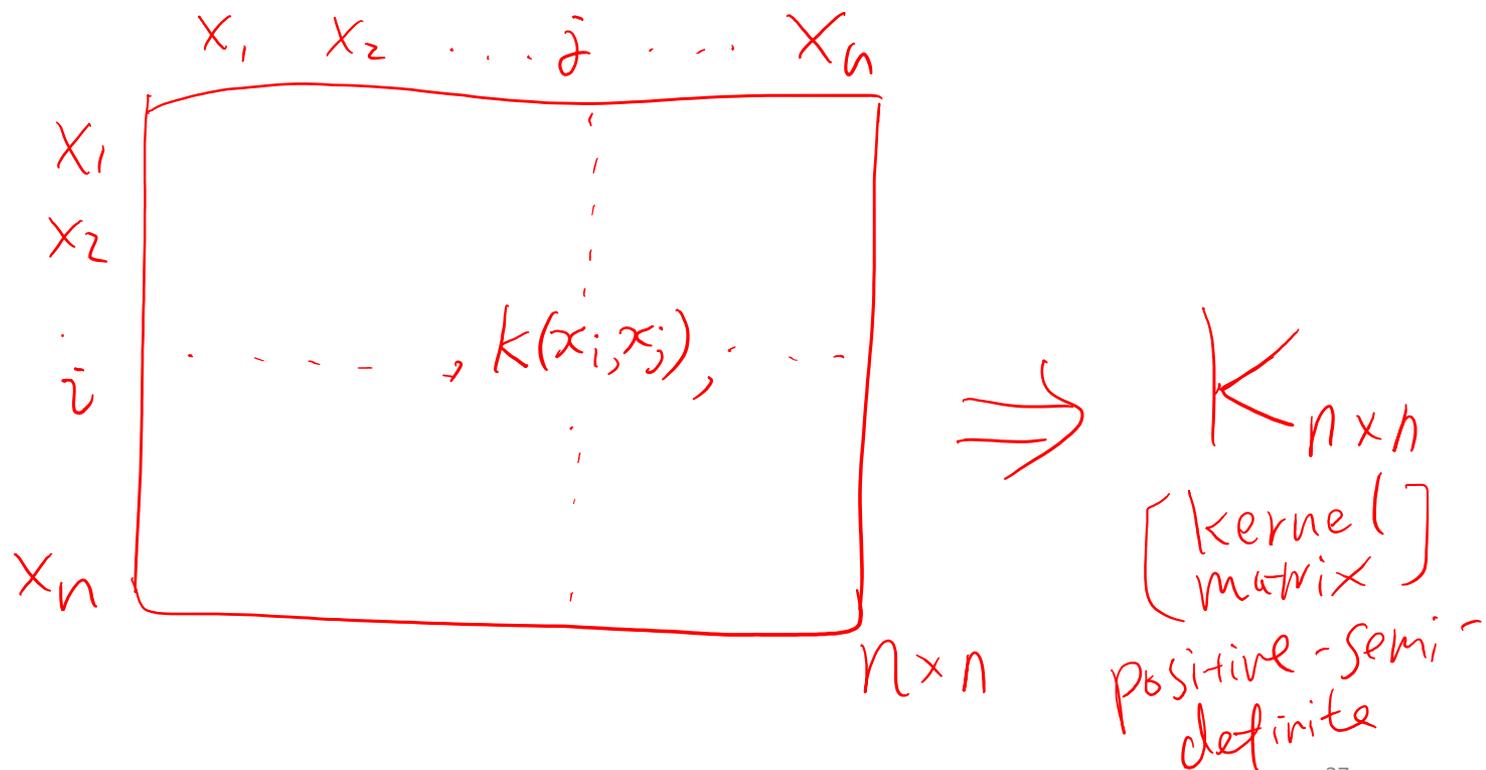
$$C > \alpha_i \geq 0, \forall i \in \text{train}$$

$O(p n^2)$ operations if building a poly-kernel matrix directly through the $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ function among n training samples →

This is because $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{z}$ gives a scalar, then its power of d only costs constant FLOPS.

Kernel Matrix

- Kernel function creates the kernel matrix, which summarize all the (train) data



Summary: Modification Due to Kernel Trick

- Change all inner products to kernel functions
- For training,

Original
Linear

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$C > \alpha_i \geq 0, \forall i \in \text{train}$$

With kernel
function -
nonlinear

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$C > \alpha_i \geq 0, \forall i \in \text{train}$$

VC: $\phi(x)$
large

Summary: Modification Due to Kernel Trick

- For testing, the new data \mathbf{x}_{ts}

Original
Linear

$$\widehat{y}_{ts} = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{i \in \text{supportVectors}} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_{ts} + b \right)$$

With kernel
function -
nonlinear

$$\widehat{y}_{ts} = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{i \in \text{supportVectors}} \alpha_i y_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{ts}) + b \right)$$

Kernel Trick: Implicit Basis Representation

- For some kernels (e.g. RBF) the implicit transform basis form $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ is infinite-dimensional!
 - But calculations with kernel are done in original space, so computational burden and curse of dimensionality aren't a problem.

$$K(\mathbf{x}, z) = \exp\left(-r\|\mathbf{x} - z\|^2\right)$$

$O(p*n^2)$ operations in building a RBF-kernel matrix for training

→ Gaussian RBF Kernel corresponds to an infinite-dimensional vector space.

YouTube video of Caltech: Abu-Mostafa explaining this in more

detail <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XUj5JbQihIU&t=25m53s>

Kernel Functions (Extra)

- In practical use of SVM, only the kernel function (and not basis function) is specified
- Kernel function can be thought of as a similarity measure between the input objects
- Not all similarity measure can be used as kernel function, however Mercer's condition states that any positive semi-definite kernel $K(x, y)$, i.e.

$$\sum_{i,j} K(x_i, x_j) c_i c_j \geq 0$$

can be expressed as a dot product in a high dimensional space.

Choosing the Kernel Function

- Probably the most tricky part of using SVM.
- The kernel function is important because it creates the kernel matrix, which summarize all the data
- Many principles have been proposed (diffusion kernel, Fisher kernel, string kernel, tree kernel, graph kernel, ...)
 - Kernel trick has helped Non-traditional data like strings and trees able to be used as input to SVM, instead of feature vectors
- In practice, a low degree polynomial kernel or RBF kernel with a reasonable width is a good initial try for most applications.

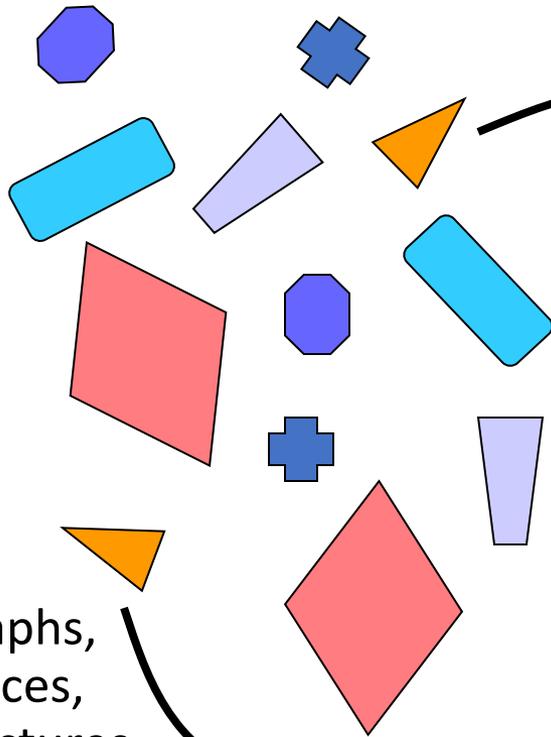
Kernel trick has helped Non-traditional data like strings and trees able to be used as input to SVM, instead of feature vectors

numeric x not available

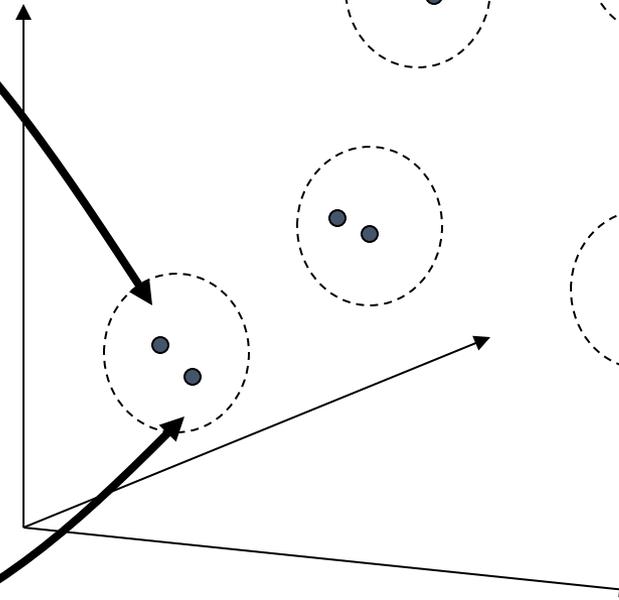
$$K(x, z)$$

Only

Vector vs. Relational data



e.g. Graphs, Sequences, 3D structures,



Original Space

Feature Space

Mercer Kernel vs. Smoothing Kernel (Extra)

- The Kernels used in Support Vector Machines are different from the Kernels used in LocalWeighted /Kernel Regression.
- We can think
 - Support Vector Machines' kernels as **Mercer Kernels**
 - Local Weighted / Kernel Regression's kernels as **Smoothing Kernels**

Why do SVMs work?

- ❑ If we are using **huge features spaces (e.g., with kernels)**, how come we are **not overfitting** the data?
 - ✓ Number of parameters remains the same (and most are set to 0)
 - ✓ While we have a lot of inputs, **at the end we only care about the support vectors and these are usually a small group of samples**
 - ✓ The maximizing of the margin acts as a sort of regularization term leading to reduced overfitting

KNN: $\hat{y}_{ts} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in k \text{ Neighbors of } X_{ts}} y_i$

find k neighbor of $X_{ts} \sim O(n^2)$

SVM: $\hat{y}_{ts} = \sum_{i \in SV} \alpha_i y_i k(\vec{X}_i, \vec{X}_{ts}) + b$

para $\sim O(n)$

Logistic Regression / Linear Classifier
 $\hat{y}_{ts} = \sigma(W^T X_{ts} + b)$

para $\sim O(p)$

Time Cost Comparisons

	$X_i^T X_j$	$\phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$	$k(x_i, x_j)$	explicit
Training Stage	$O(p \times n^2)$	polynomial $m \sim pd$ $O(m \times n^2)$	$O(p \times n^2)$	W
Test Stage	$O(p \times \#SV)$	$O(m \times \#SV)$ (1)	$O(p \times \#SV)$ (2)	<u>$W^T \phi(x_{ts}) + b$</u> $O(pd)$ (a) for some (b) RBF, $m \sim \infty$ (3)

Today

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 - ✓ Large Margin Linear Classifier
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 - ✓ Practical Guide
- 

Software

- A list of SVM implementation can be found at
 - <http://www.kernel-machines.org/software.html>
- Some implementation (such as LIBSVM) can handle multi-class classification
- SVMLight is among one of the earliest implementation of SVM
- Several Matlab toolboxes for SVM are also available

Summary: Steps for Using SVM in HW

- Prepare the feature-data matrix
- Select the kernel function to use
- Select the parameter of the kernel function and the value of C (*see next 11c slides for details*)
- Execute the training algorithm and obtain the α_i
- Unseen data can be classified using the α_i and the support vectors

Practical Guide to SVM

- From authors of as LIBSVM:
 - A Practical Guide to Support Vector Classification Chih-Wei Hsu, Chih-Chung Chang, and Chih-Jen Lin, 2003-2010
 - <http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/papers/guide/guide.pdf>

LIBSVM

- <http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm/>
 - ✓ Developed by Chih-Jen Lin etc.
 - ✓ Tools for Support Vector classification
 - ✓ Also support multi-class classification
 - ✓ C++/Java/Python/Matlab/Perl wrappers
 - ✓ Linux/UNIX/Windows
 - ✓ SMO implementation, fast!!!

(a) Data file formats for LIBSVM

- Training.dat

+1 1:0.708333 2:1 3:1 4:-0.320755

-1 1:0.583333 2:-1 4:-0.603774 5:1

+1 1:0.166667 2:1 3:-0.333333 4:-0.433962

-1 1:0.458333 2:1 3:1 4:-0.358491 5:0.374429

...

- Testing.dat

(b) Feature Preprocessing

- (1) Categorical Feature
 - Recommend using m numbers to represent an m -category attribute.
 - Only one of the m numbers is one, and others are zero.
- For example, a three-category attribute such as {red, green, blue} can be represented as (0,0,1), (0,1,0), and (1,0,0)

Feature Preprocessing

- (2) **Scaling before applying SVM is very important**
 - to avoid attributes in greater numeric ranges dominating those in smaller numeric ranges.
 - to avoid numerical difficulties during the calculation
 - Recommend linearly scaling each attribute to the range [1, +1] or [0, 1].

e.g.
$$\left[\frac{X - X_{\min}}{\max - X_{\min}} \right]$$

① Normalization \rightarrow $\begin{cases} \text{mean } 0 \\ \text{std } 1 \end{cases}$

② Scaling \rightarrow linear $\Rightarrow [ax+b]$

For i -th feature \Rightarrow [Column operation
on $\Sigma_{n \times p}$]

Centering : $X_i - \bar{X}_i \Rightarrow E(X_i) = 0$

Scaling : $aX_i + b \Rightarrow$ e.g. $\frac{X_i - \min(X_i)}{\max(X_i) - \min(X_i)}$

Normalization : $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} E(X_i) = 0 \\ \text{Var}(X_i) = 1 \end{cases}$

[good practice : never touch
test samples in
any stage before testing]

Of course we have to use the same method to scale both training and testing data. For example, suppose that we scaled the first attribute of training data from $[-10, +10]$ to $[-1, +1]$. If the first attribute of testing data lies in the range $[-11, +8]$, we must scale the testing data to $[-1.1, +0.8]$. See Appendix B for some real examples.

If training and testing sets are separately scaled to $[0, 1]$, the resulting accuracy is lower than 70%.

```
$ ../svm-scale -l 0 svmguide4 > svmguide4.scale
$ ../svm-scale -l 0 svmguide4.t > svmguide4.t.scale
$ python easy.py svmguide4.scale svmguide4.t.scale
Accuracy = 69.2308% (216/312) (classification)
```

Using the same scaling factors for training and testing sets, we obtain much better accuracy.

```
$ ../svm-scale -l 0 -s range4 svmguide4 > svmguide4.scale
$ ../svm-scale -r range4 svmguide4.t > svmguide4.t.scale
$ python easy.py svmguide4.scale svmguide4.t.scale
Accuracy = 89.4231% (279/312) (classification)
```

Feature Preprocessing

- (3) missing value
 - Very very tricky !
 - **Easy way:** to substitute the missing values by the mean value of the variable
 - A little bit harder way: imputation using nearest neighbors
 - Even more complex: e.g. EM based (beyond the scope)

Feature Preprocessing

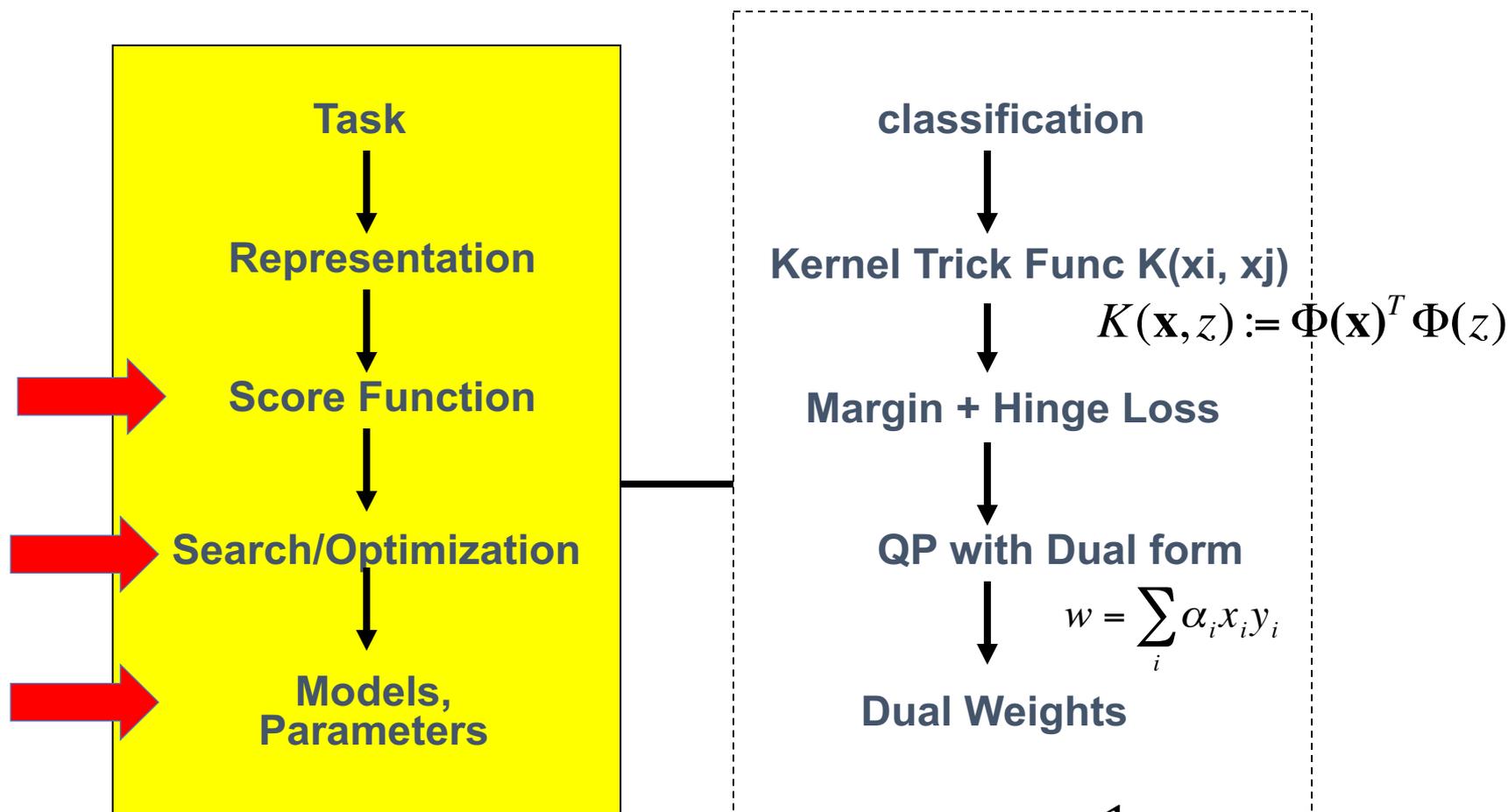
- (4) out of dictionary token issue
 - For discrete feature variable, very trick to handle
 - **Easy way:** to substitute the values by the most likely value (in train) of the variable
 - **Easy way:** to substitute the values by a random value (in train) of the variable
 - More solutions later in the NaiveBayes slides!

Today: Nonlinear SVM & Practical Guide

□ Support Vector Machine (SVM)

- ✓ History of SVM
- ✓ Large Margin Linear Classifier
- ✓ Define Margin (M) in terms of model parameter
- ✓ Optimization to learn model parameters (w, b)
- ✓ Non linearly separable case
- ✓ Optimization with dual form
- ✓ Nonlinear decision boundary
- ✓ Practical Guide
 - ✓ File format / LIBSVM
 - ✓ Feature preprocsssing
 - ✓ Model selection
 - ✓ Pipeline procedure

Next: Support Vector Machine



$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}, b} \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall \mathbf{x}_i \in D_{\text{train}} : y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{w} + b) \geq 1 - \varepsilon_i$$

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0,$$

$$\alpha_i \geq 0$$

$$\forall i$$

Why SVM Works? (Extra)

- Vapnik argues that the fundamental problem is not the number of parameters to be estimated. Rather, the problem is about the flexibility of a classifier
- Vapnik argues that the flexibility of a classifier should not be characterized by the number of parameters, but by the capacity of a classifier
 - This is formalized by the “VC-dimension” of a classifier
- The SVM objective can also be justified by structural risk minimization: the empirical risk (training error), plus a term related to the generalization ability of the classifier, is minimized
- Another view: the SVM loss function is analogous to ridge regression. The term $\frac{1}{2} ||w||^2$ “shrinks” the parameters towards zero to avoid overfitting

References

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