# Lecture on Support Vector Machines (SVM)

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# **Overview of SVMs**

- Set of related *supervised learning* methods used for *classification* and *regression*.
- Based on simple ideas and thus provide a clear intuition of what learning from examples is about.
- Are not affected by local minima.
- Do not suffer from the *curse of dimensionality*.
- Can lead to high performances in practical applications.

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# Overview of SVMs (cont.)

- Simple enough to be analyzed mathematically (unlike neural net).
- Correspond to a *linear* method in a high-dimensional *feature space* nonlinearly related to input space.
- But! Does not involve computation in this high-dimensional feature space.
- By using *kernels*, all computations can be performed in input space.

# Hyperplane concept

- A *hyperplane* is a higher-dimensional generalization of a plane in 3D.
- It has *codimension* 1, i.e., it has dimension *n* − 1 in an *n*-dimensional space,
- A hyperplane divides...



a space in two half-spaces a plane in two half-planes a line in two rays

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#### Mathematical representation of a hyperplane

• A hyperplane in an *n*-dimensional space is defined by

$$x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} \mid w_0 x_0 + \ldots + w_{n-1} x_{n-1} + b = 0,$$
 (1)

where  $w_0 \dots w_{n-1}$  and *b* are scalar coefficients.

Using vector notation, one can rewrite Equation 1 as

$$\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0, \tag{2}$$

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where 
$$\mathbf{w} = [w_0 \ w_1 \ \dots \ w_{n-1}]^T$$
 and  $\mathbf{x} = [x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots \ x_{n-1}]^T$ .

# Hyperplane examples



- w is a vector perpendicular to the hyperplane.
- when  $||\mathbf{w}|| = 1$ , *b* is the distance between the hyperplane and the origin.
- Is the representation of a hyperplane unique?

The two half-spaces defined by a hyperplane are

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \leq 0$$
 and  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \geq 0$ .

These can be used to define a function *f* : ℜ<sup>n</sup> → {±1} for classifying a vector x ∈ ℜ<sup>n</sup> into one of two classes, namely -1 or 1:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b).$$

• The hyperplane  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$  is called the *decision boundary*.

### Hyperplane classifiers (cont.)



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# Learning the classification function parameters

- Given w and b, we know we can classify any point x.
- Given a set of points, can we find a hyperplane (i.e. w and *b*) that correctly classifies them?
- Motivation: learning from examples.



## Pattern recognition from examples

• Suppose we have a set of *p* classified patterns

$$(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\},\$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is a *n*-dimensional pattern (vector) and  $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$  is its class label.

- We would like to find a function *f* : ℜ<sup>n</sup> → {±1} that correctly classifies all patterns.
- This implies finding a hyperplane (i.e. w and b) such that

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \ge 0 \quad \text{if } y_i = +1, \\ \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \le 0 \quad \text{if } y_i = -1, \end{cases}$$

which is equivalent to

$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b)\geq 0.$$

# **Classification example**

- A perfect classification is possible only if the training data is *linearly* separable, which is the case when the constraint  $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 0$  is satisfied for all  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$ .
- In general, many hyperplanes satisfy this constraint.
- Which one should we choose?



### Perceptron

- A perceptron is also a linear classifier.
- When the activation function is the sign function, we have:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b).$$

Seems related to a hyperplane, no?



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The update rule for a perceptron is

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \times \mathbf{x}_i(i) \times (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i(i)$  is element *i* of  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .

- When the current decision boundary correctly classifies all examples, the learning algorithm stops.
- Previous update rule converges to any hyperplane satisfying y<sub>i</sub>(w<sup>T</sup>x<sub>i</sub> + b) ≥ 0 for all i.
- Decision boundary depends on *all* training patterns and initial solution.

# SVM goal

- SVM maximize distance between decision boundary and *closest* sample(s), called *support vectors* (SV).
- Only the SVs affect the location of the decision boundary.



### Non-uniqueness of hyperplane representation

- As seen before, the representation of a hyperplane is not unique.
- We rescale w and *b* such that SVs satisfy  $|\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b| = 1$ .



# Margin

- Let **x**<sub>1</sub> and **x**<sub>2</sub> be two SVs from different sets.
- From our rescaling assumption, we have

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_1 + b = +1$$
$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2 + b = -1,$$

which leads to

$$\mathbf{w}^{T}(\mathbf{x}_{1} - \mathbf{x}_{2}) = 2$$
$$\frac{\mathbf{w}^{T}}{||\mathbf{w}||}(\mathbf{x}_{1} - \mathbf{x}_{2}) = \frac{2}{||\mathbf{w}||}$$

• The quantity  $\frac{2}{||\mathbf{w}||}$  is called the *margin*.

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#### Geometrical interpretation of the margin

 The margin is the distance measured perpendicularly to the hyperplane between SVs from different sets.



Minimize

$$||\mathbf{w}|| = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

subject to the constraints

$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b) \ge 1$$
 for all *i*.

- Solution to this constrained optimization problem can be found using method of Lagrange multipliers.
- It has the form

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j} v_j \mathbf{x}_j, \ j < p$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are the support vectors.

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# Linear separability

• What if the training data is not linearly separable?



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#### Minimize

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \lambda \sum_i \epsilon_i^\delta, \ \delta \ge 0$$

subject to the constraints

$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b) \ge 1-\epsilon_i, \ \epsilon_i \ge 0.$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  allows for some error.

• This is not a convex optimization problem.

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#### Input space vs Feature space

- Map the input vectors nonlinearly into a higher-dimensional *feature space*.
- Compute the hyperplane in this feature space.



• Use a nonlinear map

$$\Phi: \Re^n \to \Re^m, m > n$$

- If *m* is huge, the dot product in the feature space can be very expensive to compute.
- Fortunately, we can use *kernel* functions.
- All computations performed in input space!

# Kernel function example

• One can use the *polynomial* kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y})^d$$

• When d = 2, we have

$$(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y})^2 = \left( \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^2 = \left( \begin{bmatrix} x_0^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_0x_1 \\ x_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_0^2 \\ \sqrt{2}y_0y_1 \\ y_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

which defines

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_0^2, \sqrt{2}x_0x_1, x_1^2]^T$$

 All dot products can be done in 2D (input) space instead of 3D (feature) space.

#### Generalization can arise from

- small dimensionality of feature space,
- large separating margin,
- small number of support vectors.
- SVM rely on the last two.

### Example of a SV classifier

 Classification between circles and disks using a radial basis function lernel [Support vector machines, M.A. Hearst, IEEE Intelligent Systems, 1998].



### Example of SVM applied to face detection

 Geometrical interpretation of how the SVM separates the face and nonface classes.



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# Example of SVM applied to face detection (cont.)

#### • A few nonface examples used for training



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# Example of SVM applied to face detection (cont.)

#### • Face detection in a *new* image



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