

# Linear Classifiers and Support Vector Machines

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# Outline

## ① Introduction

## ② Linear Classifier

1. Ordinary Least Squares
2. Logistic Regression
3. Optimal Separating Hyperplanes

## ③ Support Vector Machines

1. Linear SVMs
2. Non-linear SVMs
3. Multi-class SVMs



# Definitions

Sample 1      Feature 1      Feature m

**X** =

1.2	4.1	0.1	X				$\mathbf{x}_1$
3.8	-1	0.2	Y				$\mathbf{x}_2$
0.3	0	1	Z				$\mathbf{x}_3$
							$\mathbf{x}_n$

continuous      categorical

Regression

**y** =

1.2
2.1
0.2
-1
8.1
3.3
4.9

Classification

**y** =

A
C
B
B
C
A
A

# Definitions

- A training **sample**  $\mathbf{x}_i$  consists of  $m$  **features**  $(x_{i1}, \dots, x_{im})^T$  and is associated with **output**  $y_i$ .
- Each feature and the output can either be **continuous** (a number) or **discrete** (from a predefined set of values).
- If the output is **continuous**, we perform **regression** and if it is **discrete**, **classification**.
- The **training set**  $\mathcal{T} = (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$  is comprised of  $n$  samples  $(i = 1, \dots, n)$ .
- Let  $\mathbf{X}$  indicate a matrix where the  $i$ -th row corresponds to the  $i$ -th sample and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$  the vector of all outputs.

# Problem Statement

## Assumption

There is a function  $f(\mathbf{X})$  that relates the features  $x_{i1}, \dots, x_{im}$  to the output  $y_i$  such that  $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{X})$  for  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

## Goal

We seek to find a good approximation  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{X})$  to the function  $f(\mathbf{X})$ .

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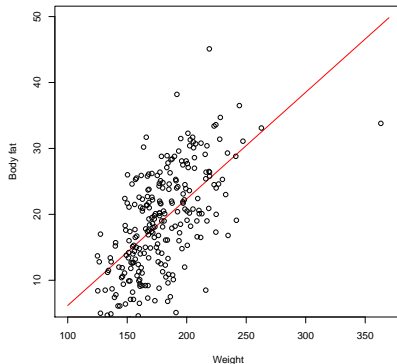


# Linear Models

## Definition (Linear Model)

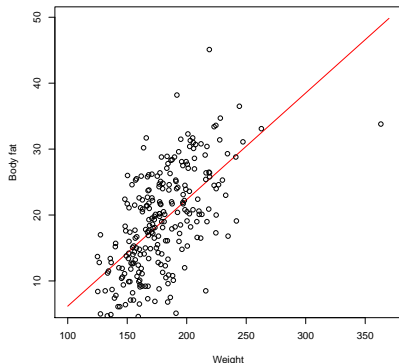
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_m x_{im} + \varepsilon_i = \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon$$

- The  $\beta$  parameters are **coefficients** or weights of the features.
- $\beta$ s are to be **estimated** from the training data.
- The errors  $\varepsilon_i$  are independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.) with  $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$  and  $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ .



# Linear Models – Coefficients

- Each **feature** is associated with one **coefficient**  $\beta_j$ .
- In addition, the coefficient  $\beta_0$  denotes the **intercept**.
- Estimates are denoted by a **hat**:  $\hat{\beta}_j$  denotes the estimate of the coefficient of the  $j$ -th feature.
- In the example to the right  $\beta_0 = -9.995$  (y-intercept) and  $\beta_1 = 0.1617$  (slope; coefficient of *weight* feature).



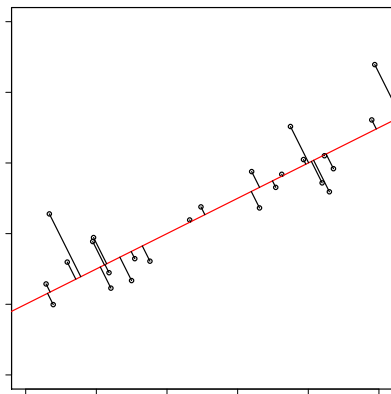


# Linear Models – Loss Function

## Definition (Estimated Function)

$$\hat{f}(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_m x_m$$

- We need a way to assess how good the output  $\hat{y}_i$  of our estimated model  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)$  fits the expected output  $y_i$  given the current estimates of the coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_0, \dots, \hat{\beta}_m$ .
- Hence, define a **loss function**  $L(y_i, \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i))$ .



# Linear Models – Loss Function (Examples)

Squared error loss

$$(y_i - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$$

Binomial Deviance

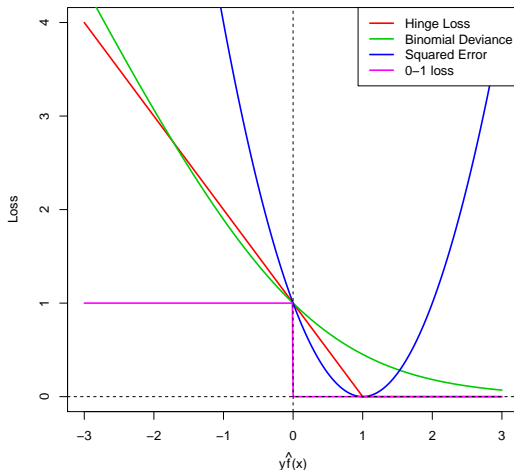
$$\log_2 \left( 1 + e^{-y_i \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)} \right)$$

Hinge loss

$$\max(0, 1 - y_i \cdot \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

0-1 loss

$$I(y_i \neq \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i))$$



# Linear Models – Ordinary Least Squares Estimation

## Definition (Residual Sum of Squares; RSS)

$$\text{RSS}(\beta_0, \dots, \beta_m) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$$

- RSS gives the total loss over the whole training set
- We want to choose the coefficients  $\beta_0, \dots, \beta_m$  such that the total loss according to RSS is **minimized**.
- **How can this be achieved?**

# Linear Models – Ordinary Least Squares Estimation

- Set the partial derivative of RSS to zero

$$\frac{\partial \text{RSS}(\beta_0, \beta)}{\partial \beta_j} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij}(y_i - \beta_0 - \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta)$$

- In matrix notation:

$$\text{RSS}(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{RSS}(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta). \quad (2)$$

- **Note:**  $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_m)^T$  and the first column of  $\mathbf{X}$  contains only 1 to accommodate the intercept  $\beta_0$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{X}$  is a  $n \times m + 1$  matrix.

# Linear Models – Ordinary Least Squares Estimation

## Definition (Ordinary Least Squares Estimate)

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

- The minimum of the loss function is unique.
- Estimates of the coefficients can be obtained in closed form and therefore no optimization is required.
- $\mathbf{X}$  must have full column rank  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  is positive definite.
- Prediction (regression) is performed by

$$\hat{f}(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_m x_m$$

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# Classification

- Least squares is a linear model for **regression**, i.e. the outcome  $y_i$  is **quantitative**.
- We want a linear model for **classification**, i.e. the outcome  $y_i$  is **categorical**.
- **Example:** Classify pixels in an image according to the tissue they represent (e.g. fat, muscle, bone, lung).
- Categories are usually represented by coding them as numbers (fat = 0, muscle = 1, bone = 2, lung = 3).
- There is a third class where the outcome  $y_i$  is **ordered categorical** such as *small*, *medium*, *large* (not discussed here).

# Logistic Regression

- Consider a binary classification problem where  $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- If  $y_i = 1$ , the  $i$ -th sample belongs to the **positive class**, otherwise to the **negative class**.
- Create a model of the probability of sample  $\mathbf{x}_i$  belonging to the positive class

$$\pi_i = P(y_i = 1 | x_{i1}, \dots, x_{im})$$

- Remember that the linear model  $\eta_i$  is defined as

$$\eta_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_m x_{im}$$

- **How to connect the probability  $\pi_i$  to the linear predictor  $\eta_i$ ?**



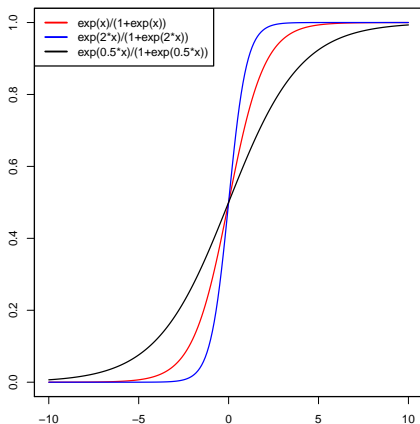
# Logistic Regression – Response and link function

- Probability  $\pi_i$  is connected to the linear predictor by the **logistic function**  $h(x)$

$$\pi_i = h(\eta_i) = \frac{\exp(\eta_i)}{1 + \exp(\eta_i)}$$

- The logistic function is called **response function** and its inverse – the logit function – **link function**

$$h^{-1}(x) = \log\left(\frac{x}{1-x}\right)$$



# Logistic Regression – Log-Odds

- The model is linear with respect to the **log-odds**:

$$\pi_i = \frac{\exp(\eta_i)}{1 + \exp(\eta_i)} \Leftrightarrow \log \left( \frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i} \right) = \log \frac{P(y_i = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i)}{P(y_i = 0 | \mathbf{x}_i)} = \eta_i$$

- Coefficients indicate by how much the odds change when the value of the corresponding feature is increased by 1

$$\frac{P(y_i = 1 | x_{i1}, \dots)}{P(y_i = 0 | x_{i1}, \dots)} / \frac{P(y_i = 1 | x_{i1} + 1, \dots)}{P(y_i = 0 | x_{i1} + 1, \dots)} = \exp(\beta_1)$$

# Logistic Regression – Log-Odds Ratio

## Definition (Log-Odds ratio)

The coefficient  $\beta_j$  represents the **log-odds ratio** of the  $j$ -th feature

- $\beta_j > 0 \Leftrightarrow$  Odds increase
- $\beta_j < 0 \Leftrightarrow$  Odds decrease
- $\beta_j = 0 \Leftrightarrow$  Odds remain unchanged
- This becomes very handy to assess which feature has the largest influence, especially if the goal is to predict which patients are diseased based on clinical features.

# Logistic Regression – Example

Birth weight data contains data from 189 births to determine which of these factors were risk factors for low birth weight ( $< 2.5$  kg) [Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000].

Feature	$\beta$ / log-odds ratio	Chance
(Intercept)	0.924910	
Age	-0.042784	decreased
Mother's weight (pounds)	-0.015436	decreased
Race = White	0	
Race = Black	1.168452	increased
Race = Other	0.814620	increased
Previous premature labour	1.333970	increased
History of hypertension	1.740511	increased
Smoking during pregnancy	0.858332	increased

# Logistic Regression – Maximum Likelihood Estimation

## Definition (Likelihood function)

$$L(\beta_0, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1-y_i}$$

## Definition (Log-Likelihood function)

$$l(\beta_0, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log(\pi_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \pi_i)$$

## Definition (Maximum Likelihood Estimate; MLE)

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \max_{\beta_0, \beta} l(\beta_0, \beta)$$



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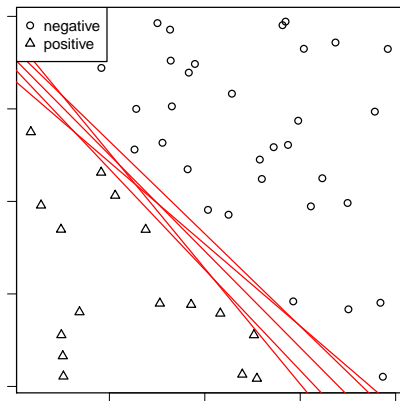
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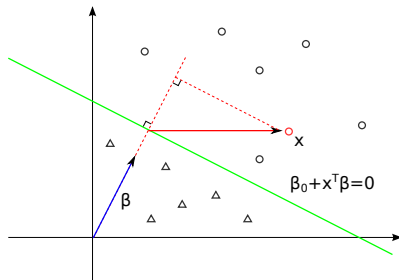


# Optimal Separating Hyperplanes

- Consider a binary classification problem where two classes are optimally separable.
- A lot of hyperplanes solve this problem but which one is the best?
- **Intuition:** the **margin** separating both classes has to be **maximized**.



# Geometric Margin



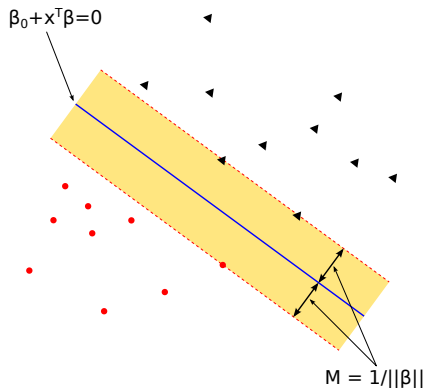
- The linear hyperplane is given by  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}^T \beta = 0$ .
- For any two points  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^m$  lying on the hyperplane,  $(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2)^T \beta = 0$  and therefore  $\beta$  is orthogonal to the hyperplane.
- The signed distance of a point  $\mathbf{x}_i$  to the hyperplane is given by

$$\frac{\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta}{\sqrt{\beta^T \beta}} = \frac{\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta}{\|\beta\|}$$



# Optimal Separating Hyperplanes

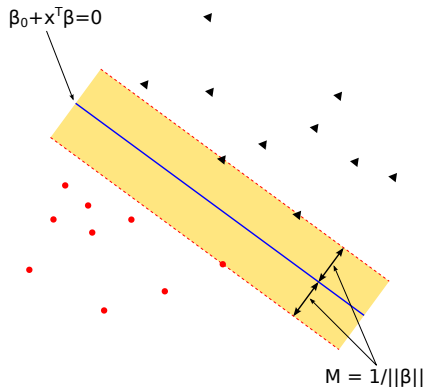
- The goal is to find a hyperplane that separates the two classes and maximises the distance to the closest point from either class



$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\beta_0, \beta} M \\ & \text{subject to } \frac{1}{\|\beta\|} y_i (\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta) \geq M, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

# Optimal Separating Hyperplanes

- Since any scaling of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta$  does not change the margin, we can set  $\|\beta\| = 1/M$  and obtain the **convex** optimization problem at the bottom.

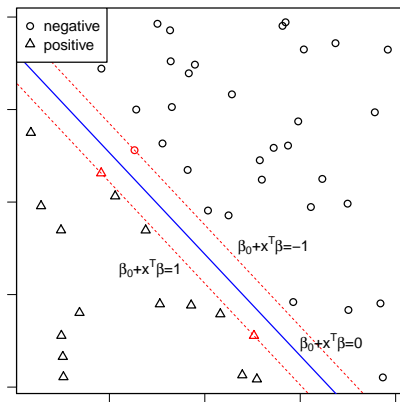


$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i(\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta) \geq 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

# Optimal Separating Hyperplanes – Support Points

- The hyperplane is defined by a **linear combination** of points lying on the boundary of the margin (**support points**).
- $\beta = \mathbf{X}^T \alpha$ , where  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is estimated by the classifier and  $\alpha_i = 0$  if the  $i$ -th sample is **not a support point**.
- Hence, the solution only depends on the support points not on the whole data set.

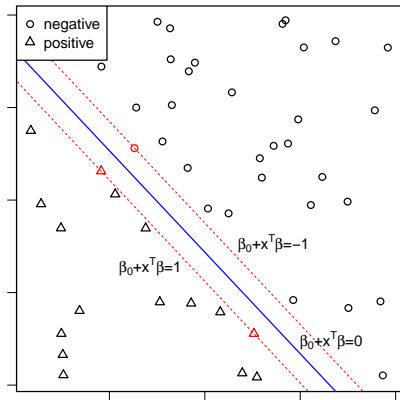


# Optimal Separating Hyperplanes – Prediction

- A new sample is classified by

$$\begin{aligned}\text{class}(\mathbf{x}_i) &= \text{sign} \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i) \\ &= \text{sign}(\hat{\beta}_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \hat{\beta})\end{aligned}$$

- If a sample of the positive class ( $y_i = 1$ ) is misclassified, then  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_m x_{im} < 0$
- The opposite is true if a sample of the negative class ( $y_i = -1$ ) is misclassified.



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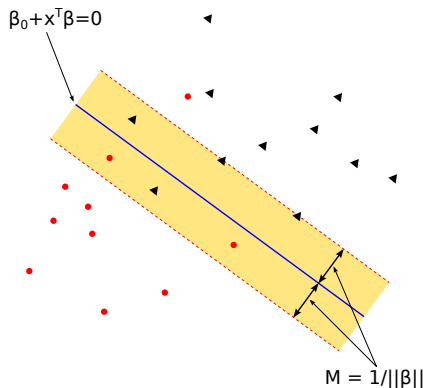
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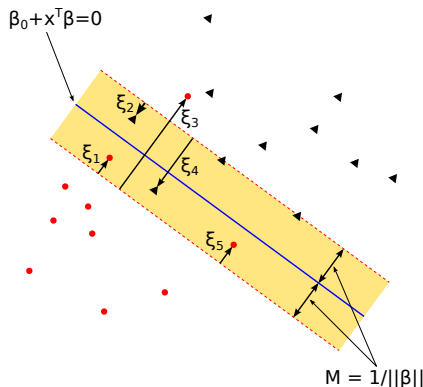
# Support Vector Machines

- **Problem:** In real-world applications classes are rarely separated.
- Usually, two classes **overlap** in feature space.
- **Idea:** Still maximise the margin but allow for some points to reside on the wrong side of the margin (**soft margin**).



# Support Vector Machines

- Introduce for each sample a **slack variable**  $\xi_i \geq 0$  which gives the relative amount, with respect to the margin, by which the prediction falls on the wrong side of its margin.
- If the point is on the correct side,  $\xi_i = 0$ .
- Points for which  $0 < \xi_i \leq 1$  lie between the margin and the correct side of the margin.
- Misclassification occurs if  $\xi_i > 1$ .



# Support Vector Machines

## Definition (SVM Optimization)

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

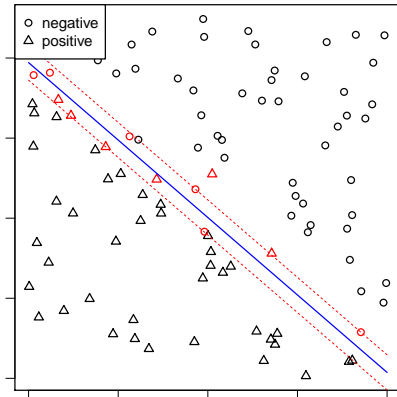
subject to  $\xi_i \geq 0$ ,  $y_i(\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta) \geq 1 - \xi_i$

- The parameter  $C > 0$  controls the trade-off between the slack variable penalty and the margin.
- If  $C = \infty$ , the result is equal to *optimal separating hyperplanes*.
- $\sum \xi_i$  is an upper bound on the number of misclassified points.

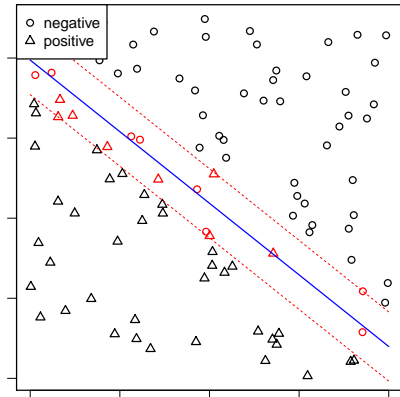


# Support Vector Machines – Examples

$C = 10000$

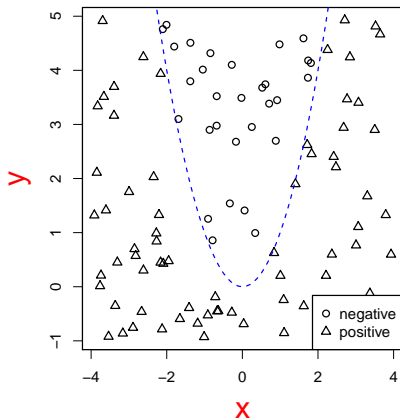


$C = 1$

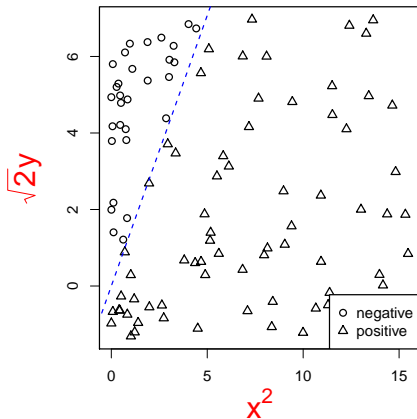
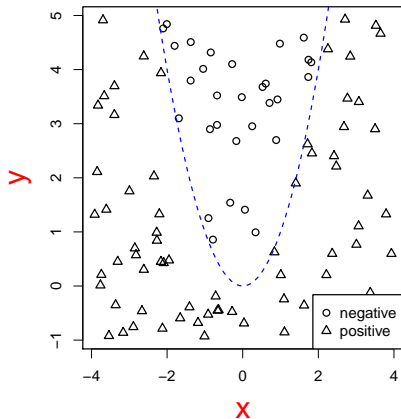


# Non-linear SVMs

- **Problem:** In many applications the data is not **linearly separable**.
- **Idea:** Find a non-linear mapping from the input space into a (higher dimensional) feature space in which data are separable.



# Non-linear SVMs – Transformation

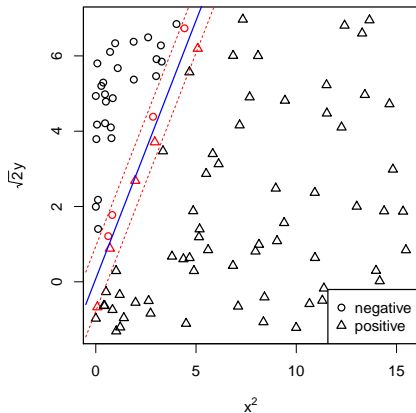


**Example:** Transform point  $(x, y)$  to  $(x^2, \sqrt{2}y)$  where the data can be separated linearly.

# Non-linear SVMs – Transformation

- Map data from the input space  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  to feature space  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^D$  using a **non-linear function**  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ , where  $d \leq D$ .
- Therefore, the decision function becomes  $f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \beta_0 + \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \beta$ .
- **Example:** Transform data from  $\mathbb{R}^2$  into  $\mathbb{R}^6$  using  $\phi$  and find a linear hyperplane in the extended space.

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = (x_{i1}^2, x_{i2}^2, \sqrt{2} \cdot x_{i1}, \sqrt{2} \cdot x_{i2}, \sqrt{2} \cdot x_{i1} \cdot x_{i2}, 1)^T$$



# Non-linear SVMs – Transformation

- **Problem:** Explicitly computing the non-linear features requires an increased amount of memory.
- Remember,  $\beta$  is a linear combination of support points, i.e.  $\beta = \mathbf{X}^T \alpha$  and  $\beta_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_{ij}$ , where  $\alpha_i = 0$  if  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is not a support point.
- The decision function can be formulated as

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m x_{0j} \beta_j = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_0$$

- Applying the transformation function  $\phi$  we obtain

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

# Non-linear SVMs – Kernel

## Definition (Kernel Function)

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

## Definition (Kernel SVM)

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_0)$$

## Kernel Trick

- If the Kernel function can be computed efficiently, we can avoid to explicitly transform the data into the extended feature space.
- No explicit representation of  $\phi$  is required.

# Kernel Functions

- Linear:

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'$$

- $d$ -th degree Polynomial:

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^d$$

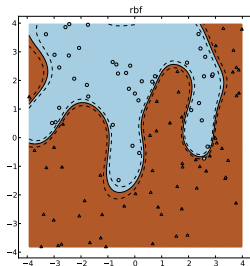
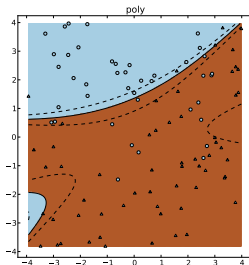
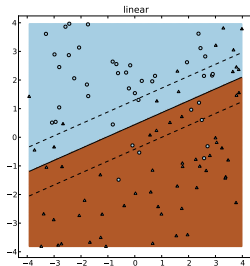
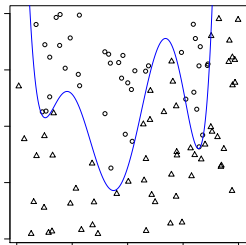
- Radial Basis Function (RBF):

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

- Sigmoid:

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \tanh(\gamma \cdot \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)$$

# Kernel Functions – Examples





# Multi-class SVMs

- SVMs as previously discussed are only applicable to binary classification problems.
- **Idea:** Construct multiple binary SVMs to distinguish  $k > 2$  classes from each other.
- **One vs. all:** Train  $k$  classifiers where the  $i$ -th classifier is given the labels of the  $i$ -th class as positives and everything else as negative.
- **One vs. One:** Train  $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i$  classifiers where each classifier is trained on samples from the  $i$ -th and  $j$ -th class, respectively.



# Summary

- **Least squares** model is simple to construct but yields only good results if relationship is linear, no outliers and no multicollinearity is present.
- **Logistic regression** separates data linearly, yields true probabilities and the notion of log-odds makes it useful in numerous disciplines (e.g. medicine, social science). Can be extended to natively support multiple classes.
- **Optimal separating hyperplanes** can be applied rarely.
- **Support vector machines** can be used both for classification and regression and thanks to the Kernel trick in a wide range of applications. The best choice of Kernel and its parameters is not obvious and requires lots of testing.



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