

Statistical Machine Learning

Lecture 11: Support Vector Machines

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Today's Objectives



Covered Topics

- Linear Support Vector Classification
- Features and Kernels
- Non-Linear Support Vector Classification
- Outlook on Applications, Relevance Vector Machines and Support Vector Regression





1. From Structural Risk Minimization to Linear SVMs

2. Nonlinear SVMs

3. Applications

4. Wrap-Up





1. From Structural Risk Minimization to Linear SVMs

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Structural Risk Minimization

How can we implement structural risk minimization?

$$R(\mathbf{w}) \leq R_{\mathsf{emp}}(\mathbf{w}) + \epsilon(N, p^*, h)$$

where N is the number of training examples, p^* is the probability that the bound is met and h is the VC-dimension

Classical Machine Learning algorithms

- **Keep** ϵ (*N*, *p*^{*}, *h*) constant and minimize R_{emp} (**w**)
- $\epsilon(N, p^*, h)$ is fixed by keeping some model parameters fixed, e.g. the number of hidden neurons in a neural network (see later)

Support Vector Machines (SVMs)

- **Keep** R_{emp} (**w**) constant and minimize ϵ (N, p^*, h)
- In practice $R_{emp}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$ with separable data
- ϵ (*N*, *p*^{*}, *h*) is controlled by changing the VC-dimension ("capacity control")

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- Linear classifiers (generalized later)
- Approximate implementation of the structural risk minimization principle
- If the data is linearly separable, the empirical risk of SVM classifiers will be zero, and the risk bound will be approximately minimized
- SVMs have built-in "guaranteed" generalization abilities



- For now assume linearly separable data
- N training data points

$$\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$$
 , with $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$

Hyperplane that separates the data



Which hyperplane shall we use? How can we minimize the VC dimension?

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Support Vector Machines

Intuitively: We should find the hyperplane with the maximum "distance" to the data





Maximizing the margin

- Why does that make sense?
- Why does it minimize the VC dimension?
- Key result (from Vapnik)
 - If the data points lie in a sphere of radius R, $\|\mathbf{x}_i\| < R$, ...
 - \blacksquare ...and the margin of the linear classifier in d dimensions is $\gamma,$ then

$$h \leq \min\left\{d, \left\lceil\frac{4R^2}{\gamma^2}\right\rceil\right\}$$

Maximizing the margin lowers a bound on the VC-dimension!

1. From Structural Risk Minimization to Linear SVMs



Support Vector Machines

Find a hyperplane so that the data is linearly separated

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

■ Enforce y_i ($\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b$) = 1 for at least one data point





- We can easily express the margin
- The distance to the hyperplane is

$$\frac{y\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{i} + b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

• (Note in the figure $b = w_0$)

Hence the margin is $\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$

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Support vectors: all points that lie on the margin, i.e., $y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b) = 1$



Maximizing the margin $1/\|\mathbf{w}\|$ is equivalent to minimizing $\|\mathbf{w}\|^2$

Formulate as constrained optimization problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \arg\min\limits_{\mathbf{w},b} & \frac{1}{2} \left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|^2\\ \text{s.t.} & y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i + b\right) - 1 \geq 0 \quad \forall i \end{array}$$

Lagrangian formulation

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i (y_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1)$$



$$\min L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i (\mathbf{y}_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1)$$

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha)}{\partial b} = \mathbf{0} \implies \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = \mathbf{0}$$
$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

The separating hyperplane is a linear combination of the input data

But what are the α_i ?

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Sparsity



Important property

- Almost all the α_i are zero
- There are only a few support vectors



But the hyperplane was written as

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

SVMs are sparse learning machines The classifier only depends on a few data points

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Dual Form

Let us rewrite the Lagrangian

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i (y_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1)$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i b + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i$

We know that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

Hence we have

$$\hat{L}(\mathbf{w},\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i$$

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Dual Form

$$\hat{L}(\mathbf{w},\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i$$

• Use the constraint $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$

$$\hat{L}(\mathbf{w}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i + \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j y_j y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_j^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i\right) + \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i$$



Dual Form

We have also

$$\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_j^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i\right)$$

Finally we obtain the Wolfe dual formulation

$$\tilde{L}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_j y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_j^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i\right)$$

• We can now solve the original problem by maximizing the dual function \tilde{L}

1. From Structural Risk Minimization to Linear SVMs



Support Vector Machines - Dual Form

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_j^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i \right)$$

s.t. $\alpha_i \ge 0$
 $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

The separating hyperplane is given by the N_S support vectors

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_S} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

b can also be computed, but we skip the derivation

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Support Vector Machines so far

- Both the original SVM formulation (primal) as well as the derived dual formulation are quadratic programming problems (quadratic cost, linear constraints), which have unique solutions that can be computed efficiently
- Why did we bother to derive the dual form? To go beyond linear classifiers!





1. From Structural Risk Minimization to Linear SVMs

2. Nonlinear SVMs

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• Nonlinear transformation ϕ of the data (features)

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad \phi : \mathbb{R}^d \to H$$

- Hyperplane *H* (linear classifier in *H*) $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + b = 0$
- **•** Nonlinear classifier in \mathbb{R}^d
- Same trick as in least-squares regression. So what is so special here?



Dual form

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_j^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i \right)$$

s.t. $\alpha_i \ge 0$
 $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

With a nonlinear transformation, we obtain

$$\tilde{L}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{j} y_{j} \left(\phi(\mathbf{x}_{j})^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \right)$$

• $\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ only appears in scalar products with another $\phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$ • We only need to be able to evaluate scalar products

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Nonlinear SVMs

What about the discriminant function?

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

We can represent the weights differently and write the nonlinear discriminant function as

...

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{S}} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \phi \left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)$$
$$y \left(\mathbf{x}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{S}} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \phi \left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \phi \left(\mathbf{x}\right) + b$$

• where N_S is the number of support vectors

The discriminant function can also be written with scalar products of the nonlinear features only

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Nonlinear SVMs



- Both the dual optimization problem and the discriminant function can be written in terms of scalar products of the features
- We have already seen this when we talked about the dual version of the perceptron
- In fact the discriminant function even has the very same functional form

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{s}} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

Key difference: In an SVM the parameters α_i maximize the margin of the classifier, and have built-in generalization properties

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Kernel Trick

Kernel trick: replace every occurrence of a scalar product between features with a kernel function

$$K\left(\mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)=\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)^{\mathsf{T}}\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)$$

- If we can find a kernel function that is equivalent to this scalar product, we can avoid mapping into a high-dimensional space and instead compute the scalar-product directly
- What are examples of such kernels and when do they exist?



Polynomial Kernel

Polynomial kernel of 2nd degree

$$\mathcal{K}\left(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}
ight) = \left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{y}
ight)^{2} \quad \boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$$

Equivalence to the dot product

$$\mathcal{K} \left(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \right) = (\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y})^{2} = x_{1}^{2} y_{1}^{2} + 2x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2} + y_{1}^{2} y_{2}^{2}$$
$$\phi \left(\mathbf{x} \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \phi \left(\mathbf{y} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_{1}^{2} \\ \sqrt{2} x_{1} x_{2} \\ x_{2}^{2} \end{array} \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \left(\begin{array}{c} y_{1}^{2} \\ \sqrt{2} y_{1} y_{2} \\ y_{2}^{2} \end{array} \right)$$

- Why is the kernel method an advantage?
 - Number of computations with kernel: 3 (dot product between x and y) + 1 (square the result) = 4
 - Number of computations with feature transformation and then dot product?

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Polynomial Kernel

• We could also have used $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ as

$$\phi\left(\mathbf{x}\right)^{\mathsf{T}}\phi\left(\mathbf{y}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1^2 - x_2^2\\ 2x_1x_2\\ x_1^2 + x_2^2 \end{array}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{array}{c} y_1^2 - y_2^2\\ 2y_1y_2\\ y_1^2 + y_2^2 \end{array}\right)$$

• $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ is not unique for a given kernel function $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$



Polynomial Kernel of Degree d

- Let $C_d(\mathbf{x})$ be the transformation that maps a vector into the space of all ordered monomials of degree d
- We can represent all polynomials of degree d as linear functions in this transformed space
- Example
 - Ordered monomials: $x_1^2, x_1x_2, x_2x_1, x_2^2$
 - Unordered monomials: x_1^2, x_1x_2, x_2^2
- The kernel $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y})^d$ lets us compute arbitrary scalar products without doing the explicit mapping

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y})^{d} = C_{d}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} C_{d}(\mathbf{y})$$



Polynomial Kernel of Degree d

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y})^{d} = \mathcal{C}_{d}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathcal{C}_{d}(\mathbf{y})$$

Dimensionality of the transformed space H: $\begin{pmatrix} d+N-1\\ d \end{pmatrix}$

Example

$$N = 16 \times 16 = 256$$

 $d = 4$
dim (H) = 183181376

The classifier has VC-dimension dim (H) + 1!

SVM - Linear Case





SVM with Kernels



Polynomial kernel with degree 3



Linearly separable Classifier almost linear



Not linearly separable (in original space)



Constructing Kernels

- So far we identified some linear transformation $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ that we think will be useful
- Then we find a kernel $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ that allows us to compute the scalar product without making the mapping explicit

$$\mathcal{K}\left(\mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)=\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)^{\mathsf{T}}\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)$$

- What do kernels do?
 - They measure similarity (in a transformed space)
 - But what if we have a notion of similarity and want to encode this in a kernel function $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ directly?



Radial Basis Functions

Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- Measures similarity between x and y
- Interesting property: *H* is infinite dimensional
 - Intuition given by Taylor series expansion

$$e^{x} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \ldots + \frac{x^{n}}{n!} + \ldots$$

- Since we only use the kernel function, it is not a problem
- But the hyperplane also has infinite VC-dimension!



Radial Basis Function Kernel





VC-Dimension for RBF Kernel

Intuition: If we can make the radius of the kernel arbitrarily small, then at some point every data point will have its "own" kernel



But in contrast: If we bound the radius of the RBF, we can limit the VC-dimension!

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Kernels



■ Question: Is the Gaussian RBF kernel a valid kernel, i.e., is there a mapping $\{H, \phi\}$ so that

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{y}) \text{ with } \phi: \mathbb{R}^d \to H$$

How can we assess this more generally?

Mercer's Condition



A function $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is a valid kernel, if for every $g(\mathbf{x})$ with

$$\int g\left(\mathbf{x}\right)^2 \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} < \infty$$

it holds that

$$\int \int \mathcal{K}\left(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}\right) g\left(\mathbf{x}\right) g\left(\mathbf{y}\right) \mathsf{d}\mathbf{x} \mathsf{d}\mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}$$



Kernels satisfying Mercer's condition

Inhomogeneous polynomial kernel

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

Can also represent polynomials of degree d

Gaussian RBF kernel

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

Hyperbolic tangent kernel

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



Combining Kernels

- It may not be always easy to check if Mercer's condition is satisfied, but it is possible to construct new kernels out of known ones
- If $K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and $K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ are valid kernels, then so are

. . .

$$\begin{aligned} & cK_{1}\left({\bf x}, {\bf y} \right) \\ & K_{1}\left({\bf x}, {\bf y} \right) + K_{2}\left({\bf x}, {\bf y} \right) \\ & K_{1}\left({\bf x}, {\bf y} \right)K_{2}\left({\bf x}, {\bf y} \right) \\ & f\left({\bf x} \right)K_{1}\left({\bf x}, {\bf y} \right)f\left({\bf y} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Non-separable data

What if the data is not linearly separable?



- Simple solution: transform the features into a space so that they become linearly separable
 - E.g. RBF kernel with small kernel radius
- Problem: such a classifier will have a very high VC-dimension, and thus has a large capacity
 - It will lead to overfitting
 - Solution: allow for data points to "violate the margin"



SVMs with slack

Instead of requiring that the data is perfectly linearly separable

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b \ge +1$$
 for $y_i = +1$
 $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i + b \le -1$ for $y_i = -1$

Allow for small violations ξ_i from perfect separation

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b &\geq +1 - \xi_i \quad \text{for } y_i = +1 \\ \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + b &\leq -1 + \xi_i \quad \text{for } y_i = -1 \\ \xi_i &\geq 0 \quad \forall i \end{split}$$



SVMs with slack

We require that

$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i+b) \geq 1-\xi_i, \quad \xi_i \geq 0 \ \forall i$$

\blacksquare ξ_i are called *slack variables*





SVMs with slack

We have to penalize the deviations

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i$$

s.t. $y_i (\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1 + \xi_i \ge 0$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

- Maximize the margin while minimizing the penalty for all data points that are not outside the margin
- The weight C allows us to specify a trade-off. Typically determined through cross-validation
- Even if the data is separable, it may be better to allow for an occasional penalty



SVMs with slack

Dual formulation

$$\max \tilde{L}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_j y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i\right)$$

s.t. $0 \le \alpha_i \le C$
 $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

where $\alpha_i \leq C$ is called *box constraint*

The separating hyperplane is given by the N_S support vectors

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\mathsf{S}}} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i$$





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Text Classification



- Joachims, T., *Text categorization with Support Vector Machines: learning with many relevant features*, EMCL 1998
- Problem: Classify documents into a number of categories
- The text is represented using word statistics, i.e. histograms of the word frequency
 - We count how often every word occurs and ignore their order ("bag of words")
 - Very high-dimensional feature space (roughly 10,000 dimensions)
 - Very few features that are not relevant (difficult to apply feature selection or dimensionality reduction)



Text Classification

| [| | | | | SVM (poly) | | | | | SVM (rbf) | | | |
|-----------|-------|---------|------|------|--------------|-------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|-------------|
| | | | | | degree $d =$ | | | | width $\gamma =$ | | | | |
| | Bayes | Rocchio | C4.5 | k-NN | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.2 |
| earn | 95.9 | 96.1 | 96.1 | 97.3 | 98.2 | 98.4 | 98.5 | 98.4 | 98.3 | 98.5 | 98.5 | 98.4 | 98.3 |
| acq | 91.5 | 92.1 | 85.3 | 92.0 | 92.6 | 94.6 | 95.2 | 95.2 | 95.3 | 95.0 | 95.3 | 95.3 | 95.4 |
| money-fx | 62.9 | 67.6 | 69.4 | 78.2 | 66.9 | 72.5 | 75.4 | 74.9 | 76.2 | 74.0 | 75.4 | 76.3 | 75.9 |
| grain | 72.5 | 79.5 | 89.1 | 82.2 | 91.3 | 93.1 | 92.4 | 91.3 | 89.9 | 93.1 | 91.9 | 91.9 | 90.6 |
| crude | 81.0 | 81.5 | 75.5 | 85.7 | 86.0 | 87.3 | 88.6 | 88.9 | 87.8 | 88.9 | 89.0 | 88.9 | 88.2 |
| trade | 50.0 | 77.4 | 59.2 | 77.4 | 69.2 | 75.5 | 76.6 | 77.3 | 77.1 | 76.9 | 78.0 | 77.8 | 76.8 |
| interest | 58.0 | 72.5 | 49.1 | 74.0 | 69.8 | 63.3 | 67.9 | 73.1 | 76.2 | 74.4 | 75.0 | 76.2 | 76.1 |
| ship | 78.7 | 83.1 | 80.9 | 79.2 | 82.0 | 85.4 | 86.0 | 86.5 | 86.0 | 85.4 | 86.5 | 87.6 | 87.1 |
| wheat | 60.6 | 79.4 | 85.5 | 76.6 | 83.1 | 84.5 | 85.2 | 85.9 | 83.8 | 85.2 | 85.9 | 85.9 | 85.9 |
| corn | 47.3 | 62.2 | 87.7 | 77.9 | 86.0 | 86.5 | 85.3 | 85.7 | 83.9 | 85.1 | 85.7 | 85.7 | 84.5 |
| microavg. | 72.0 | 79.9 | 79.4 | 82.3 | 84.2 | 85.1 com | 85.9 bined: | 86.2 86.0 | 85.9 | 86.4 cor | 86.5 nbine | 86.3 ed: 86 | 86.2 3.4 |



Handwritten Digit Classification

U.S. Postal Service Database

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Handwritten Digit Classification

- Human performance: 2.5% error
- Various learning algorithms
 - 16.2%:
 - 5.9%: 2-layer neural network
 - 5.1%: LeNet 1 5-layer neural network
- Various SVM results
 - **4.0%**: Polynomial kernel (p = 3, 274 support vectors)
 - 4.1%: Gaussian kernel ($\sigma = 0.3$, 291 support vectors)



Handwritten Digit Classification

Very little overfitting and good generalization

| degree of | dimensionality of | support | raw |
|------------|-------------------------|---------|-------|
| polynomial | feature space | vectors | error |
| 1 | 256 | 282 | 8.9 |
| 2 | pprox 33000 | 227 | 4.7 |
| 3 | $pprox 1 	imes 10^6$ | 274 | 4.0 |
| 4 | $\approx 1 \times 10^9$ | 321 | 4.2 |
| 5 | $pprox 1 	imes 10^{12}$ | 374 | 4.3 |
| 6 | $pprox 1 	imes 10^{14}$ | 377 | 4.5 |
| 7 | $pprox 1 	imes 10^{16}$ | 422 | 4.5 |



Handwritten Digit Classification

- To get even better results
 - Supply knowledge about invariances in the data: geometric deformations, etc.
 - 2.7% error: elastic matching (no learning)
 - Use knowledge of how digits can deform
 - Classify test digit by finding the template that required least deformation
- Recent results
 - With more training data, better modeling of invariances, etc.
 - Error down to about 0.5% with SVMs and 0.4% with neural networks

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Relevance Vector Machines



- Much sparser results
- No notion of margin maximization





Support Vector Regression

SVMs can also be adapted to regression tasks







1. From Structural Risk Minimization to Linear SVMs

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4. Wrap-Up



You know now

- What the main idea behind SVMs is
- Why maximizing the margin is a good idea
- How to translate the SVM problem into a quadratic optimization problem
- How to interpret the support vectors
- How to use SVMs for data that is not linearly separable
- What the kernel trick is
- How to construct kernels
- How to formulate SVMs with slack variables

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Self-Test Questions

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- How did learning theory motivate support vector machines?
- What does maximum margin separation mean?
- Why did the SVM-craze drown the Neural-Networks-craze?
- What is a Kernel?
- How does a Kernel relate to features?
- How can I build Kernels from Kernels?
- What functions does the Radial Basis Function Kernel contain?
- How does support vector regression work?





Reading Assignment for next lecture

Bishop 6.1, 6.3, 6.4