Leave-One-Out Support Vector Machines

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Abstract

We present a new learning algorithm for pattern recognition inspired by a recent upper bound on leave-one-out error [Jaakkola and Haussler, 1999] proved for Support Vector Machines {SVMs) [Vapnik, 1995; 1998]. The new approach directly minimizes the expression given by the bound in an attempt to minimize leave-one-out error. This gives a convex optimization problem which constructs a sparse linear classifier in *feature space* using the kernel technique. As such the algorithm possesses many of the same properties as SVMs. The main novelty of the algorithm is that apart from the choice of kernel, it is parameterless - the selection of the number of training errors is inherent in the algorithm and not chosen by an extra free parameter as in SVMs. First experiments using the method on benchmark datasets from the UCI repository show results similar to SVMs which have been tuned to have the best choice of parameter.

1 Introduction

Support Vector Machines (SVMs), motivated by minimizing VC dimension, have proven to be very successful in classification learning [Vapnik, 1995; Scholkopf, 1997; Vapnik, 1998]. In this algorithm it turned out to be favourable to formulate the decision functions in terms of a symmetric, positive definite, and square integrable function k(-,) referred to as a *kernel* The class of decision functions — also known as *kernel classifiers* [Jaakkola and Haussler, 1999] — is then given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathrm{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \alpha_i y_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})\right), \quad \alpha \geq 0, \qquad (1)$$

where training data $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and labels $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$. For simplicity we ignore classifiers which use an extra threshold term.

Recently, utilizing this particular type of decision rule (that each training point corresponds to one basis function) an upper bound on leave-one-out error for SVMs was proven [Jaakkola and Haussler, 1999]. This bound motivates the following new algorithm: find a decision rule of the form in Equation (1) that minimizes the bound. The paper is structured as follows: In Section 2 we first review the SVM algorithm. In Section 3 we describe the leave-one-out bound and the Leave-One-Out Support Vector Machine (LOOM) algorithm motivated by the bound. In Section 4 we reveal the relationship between SVMs and LOOMs and in Section 5 results of a comparison of LOOMs with SVMs on artificial and benchmark datasets from the UCI repository are presented. Finally, in Section 6 we summarize and discuss further directions.

2 Support Vector Machines

Support vector machines [Vapnik, 1995] aim to minimize VC dimension by finding a hyperplane with minimal norm that separates the training data mapped into a feature space $\mathcal{F}$ via a nonlinear map $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathcal{F}$. To construct such a hyperplane in the general case where one allows some training error one minimizes:

$$(w \cdot w) + C\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \xi_i \qquad (2)$$

subject to

$$y_i(w \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, \ell, \qquad (3)$$

$$\xi \geq 0, \qquad (4)$$

and then uses the decision rule:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathrm{sign}(w \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{x})). \qquad (5)$$

The tractability of this algorithm depends on the dimensionality of F However, one can remove this dependency by instead maximizing the dual form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i,j=1}^{\ell} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j), \quad 0 \leq \alpha \leq C \qquad (6)$$

where, utilizing that

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \alpha_i y_i \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \qquad (7)$$

and that $k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = (\Phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{x}'))$, the decision rule is now in the form of Equation (1).

Alternatively, one can also use the primal dual formulation of the SVM algorithm (from (Osuna and Girosi, 1998]) rather than the usual formulation, which we will describe because of its direct correlation to Leave-One-Out SVMs, The SVM primal reformulation is the following: minimize

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{\ell} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) + C \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \xi_i \tag{8}$$

subject to

$$y_i \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} y_j \alpha_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \ i = 1, \ldots, \ell, \tag{9}$$

$$\alpha \geq 0, \ \xi \geq 0. \tag{10}$$

where one again uses a decision rule of the form in Equation (1).

3 Leave-One-Out Support Vector Machines

Support Vector Machines obtain sparse solutions that yield a direct assessment of generalization: leave-one-out error is bounded by the expected ratio of the number of non-zero coefficients to the number of training examples [Vapnik, 1995]. In [Jaakkola and Haussler, 1999] a measure of generalization error is derived for a class of classifiers which includes SVMs but can be applied to non-sparse solutions. The bound is as follows:

Theorem 1 *For any training set of examples* $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^N$ *and labels* $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$, *for a SVM trained by maximizing Equation (6) the leave-one-out error estimate of the classifier is bounded by*

$$\frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \theta \left(-y_i \sum_{j \neq i} y_j \alpha_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \right) \tag{11}$$

where $\theta(\cdot)$ is the step function.

This bound is slightly tighter than the classical SVM leave-one-out bound. This is easy to see when one considers that all training points that have $\alpha_i = 0$ cannot be leave-one-out errors in either bound. Vapnik's bound assumes all support vectors (all training points with $\alpha_i > 0$) are errors, whereas they only contribute as errors in Equation (11) if

$$y_i \sum_{j \neq i} \alpha_j y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \leq 0.$$

In practice this means the bound is tighter for less sparse solutions.

Although the leave-one-out bound in Theorem 1 holds for Support Vector Machines the motivation behind SVMs is to minimize VC bounds via Structural Risk Minimization [Vapnik, 1995]. To this end, the term $\sum \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ in Equation (8) attempts to minimize VC dimension. If we wish to construct classifiers motivated by Theorem 1 (that directly attempt to achieve a low value of this expression) we need to consider a different learning technique.

Theorem 1 motivates the following algorithm: directly minimize the expression in the bound. To do this, one introduces slack variables following the standard approach in [Cortes and Vapnik, 1995; Vapnik, 1995] to give the following optimization problem: minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \xi_i^{\delta} \tag{12}$$

subject to

$$y_i \sum_{j \neq i} \alpha_j y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \ \ i = 1, \ldots, \ell \tag{13}$$

$$\alpha \geq 0, \ \xi \geq 0. \tag{14}$$

where one chooses a fixed constant for the margin to ensure non-zero solutions.

To make the optimization problem tractable, the smallest value for δ for which we obtain a convex objective function is $\delta = 1$. This gives us a linear programming problem, and, as in other kernel classifiers, one uses the decision rule given in Equation (1).

Note that Theorem 1 is no longer valid for this learning algorithm. Nevertheless, let us study the resulting method which we call a Leave-One-Out Support Vector Machine (LOOM).

4 Relationship to SVMs

In this section, we will describe the relationship between LOOMs and SVMs in three areas: the method of *regularization^* the *sparsity* induced in the decision function and the *margin loss* employed in training.

4.1 Regularization

The new technique appears to have no free regularization parameter. This should be compared with SVMs which control the amount of regularization with the free parameter *C*. For SVMs, in the case of $C = \infty$ one obtains a *hard margin* classifier with no training errors. In the case of noisy or linearly inseparable datasets[1] (through noise, outliers, or class overlap) one must accept some training error (by constructing a so called *soft margin).* To find the best choice of training error/margin tradeoff one must choose the appropriate value of *C*. In LOOMs a soft margin is automatically constructed. This occurs because the algorithm does not attempt to minimize the number of training errors - it minimizes the number of training points that are classified incorrectly even when

[1]Here we refer to linear inseparability in *feature space. Both* SVMs and LOOM Machines are essentially linear classifiers.

they are removed from the linear combination that forms the decision rule. However, if one can classify a training point correctly when it is removed from the linear combination then it will always be classified correctly when it is placed back into the rule. This can be seen as $\alpha_i y_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$ is always the same sign as y_i, all training points are pushed towards the correct side of the decision boundary by their own component of the linear combination.

4.2 Sparsity

Like Support Vector Machines, the solutions of the new algorithm can be sparse; that is, only some of the coefficients α_i, $i = 1, \ldots, \ell$ are non-zero (see Section 5.2 for computer simulations confirming this). As the coefficient of a training point does not contribute to its leave-one-out error in constraint (13) the algorithm does not assign a non-zero value to the coefficient of a training point in order to correctly classify it. A training point has to be classified correctly by the training points of the same label that are close to it (in *feature space),* but the training point itself makes no contribution to its own classification.

4.3 Margin loss

Noting that

$$y_i \sum_{j \neq i} \alpha_j y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i) - \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i) \qquad (15)$$

where $f(x)$ is given in Equation (1), one can see that the new algorithm can be written as the following equivalent linear program: minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \xi_i \qquad (16)$$

subject to

$$y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i) \geq 1 - \xi_i + \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i), \quad i = 1, \ldots, \ell, \qquad (17)$$

$$\alpha \geq 0, \quad \xi \geq 0. \qquad (18)$$

In this setting of the optimization problem it is easy to see that a training point X_i is linearly penalized for failing to obtain a margin of $\rho_f(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \geq 1 + \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$. In SVMs, a training point x_i is linearly penalized for failing to obtain a margin of $\rho_f(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \geq 1$ (see Equation (9)). Thus the margin in SVMs is treated *equivalently* for each training pattern. In LOOMs, the larger the contribution the training point has to the decision rule (the larger the value of α_i), the larger its margin must be. Thus, the LOOM algorithm, in contrast to SVMs controls the margin for each training point *adaptively.*

This method can be viewed in the following way: If a point $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_k)$ is an outlier (the values of $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_k)$ to points $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ in its class are small and to points in the other class are large) then some α_i, where $y_i = y_k$, in Equation (13) have to be large in order to classify $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_k)$ correctly. SVMs use the same margin for such points $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ and they attempt to classify $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_k)$ correctly. In LOOMs the margin is automatically increased to $1 + \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$ for these points and thus less attempt is made to correctly classify $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_k)$. Thus the *adaptive* margin provides robustness. Moreover, it becomes clear that in LOOMs the points $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_k)$ which are representatives of clusters (centres) in feature space, i.e. those which have large values of $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_k)$ to points in their class, will have non-zero α_k.

5 Experiments

In this section we describe experiments comparing the new technique to SVMs. We first describe *artificial data* to visualize the techniques, and then present results on *benchmark datasets.*

5.1 Artificial Data

We first describe some toy two dimensional examples to illustrate how the new technique works. Figure 1 shows two artificially constructed training problems (left and right) with various solutions (top to bottom of the page). We fixed the kernel to be a radial basis function (RBF)

$$K(x, y) = \exp(-\lambda |x - y|^2) \qquad (19)$$

with $\lambda = 1$ and then found the solution to the problems with Leave-One-Out Machines (LOOMs), which have no other free parameters, and with SVMs, for which one controls the *soft margin* with the free parameter C. The first solution (top of the page) for both training problems (left and right) is the solution given by LOOMs, and the other four solutions are SVMs with various choices of *soft margin* (parameter *C).*

In the first problem (left) the two classes (crosses and dots) are almost linearly separable apart from a single outlier (a dot). The automatic *soft margin* control of LOOMs constructs a classifier which incorrectly classifies the far right dot, assuming that it is an outlier. Thick lines represent the separating hyperplane and dotted lines represent the size of margin. Support Vectors (training points with $\alpha_i > 0$) are emphasized with rings. Note also the large margin of the LOOM classification. The Support Vector solutions (second picture from top downwards) have parameters $C = 1$ (middle) and $C = 100$ (bottom). Constructing a *hard margin* with $C = 100$ overfits with zero training error whilst with decreasing C the SVM solution tends towards a decision rule similar to the one found by LOOMs. Note, however, even with $C = 1$ the non-smoothness of the decision rule by examining the margin (dotted line). Moreover, the outlier here is still correctly classified.

In the second training problem (right), the two classes occupy opposite sides (horizontally) of the picture, but slightly overlap. In this case the data is only separable with a highly nonlinear decision rule, as reflected in the *hard margin* solution by an SVM with parameter $C = 100$ (bottom right). Again, a reasonable choice of rule ($C = 1$, middle right picture) can be found by

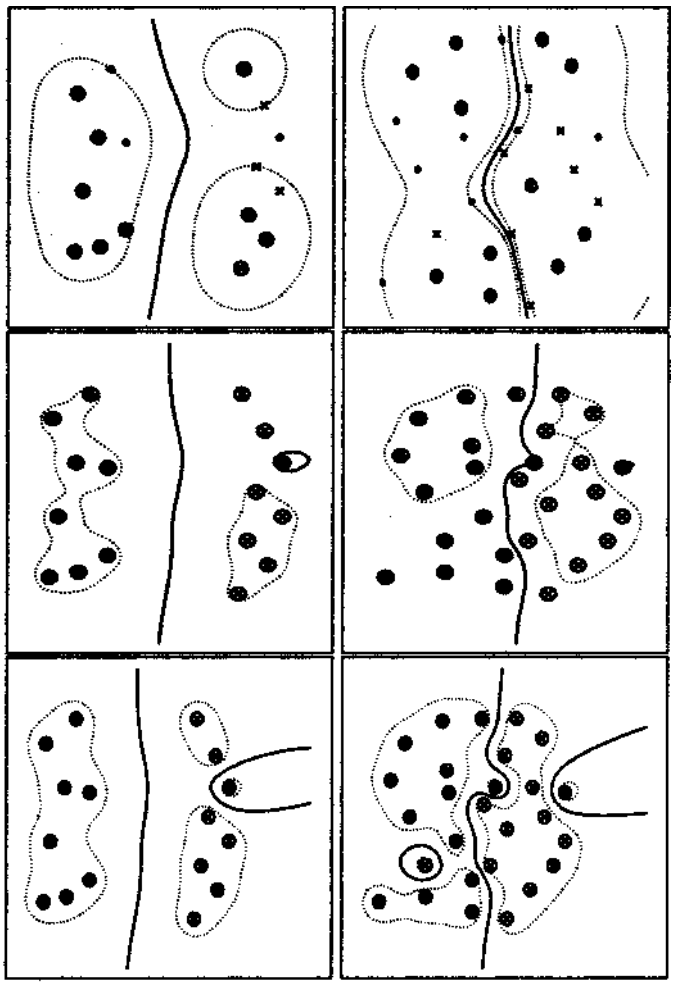

Figure 1: Two training problems (left and right pictures) are solved by Leave-One-Out SVMs (top left and top right) which have no *soft margin* regularization parameter and SVMs for various of C (lower four pictures). For SVMs, the two problems are solved with $C = 1$ (middle row) and $C = 100$ (bottom row).

SVMs with the correct choice of free parameter. The (parameterless) decision constructed by the LOOM (top right) however provides a similar decision to the SVM with $C = 1$. Note again, the smoothness of the LOOM solution in comparison to the SVM one, even though they are similar.

Finally, Figure 2 gives some insight into how the soft margin is chosen by LOOMs. A simple toy training set is again shown. The first picture (left) has a small cluster of crosses in the top left of the picture and a single cross in the bottom right of the picture. The other class (dots) is distributed almost evenly across the space. LOOMs construct a decision rule which treats the cross in the bottom right of the picture as an outlier. In the second picture (right) we have almost the same problem but near the single cross we add another two training points so there are now two clusters of crosses. Now the LOOM solution is a decision rule with two clusters; because the single cross from the left hand picture now is close to other training points, it can be left out of the decision rule but still be classified correctly in the constraints (13). When a training point is not close (in *feature space)* to any other points in the same class it is considered an outlier.

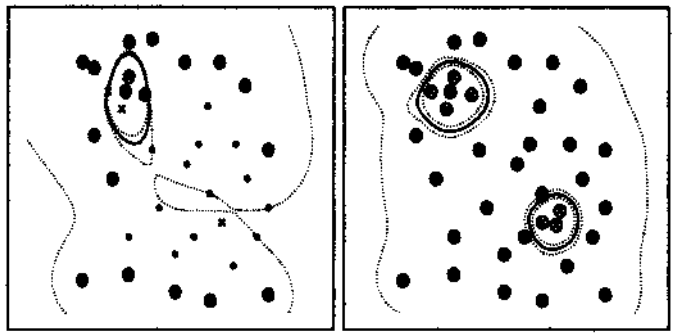

Figure 2: Demonstration of soft margin selection by the Leave-One-Out SVM algorithm. A cluster of five crosses is classified correctly but the sixth (bottom right) is considered an outlier (left picture). When more crosses are placed near the point previously considered an outlier (right picture) the algorithm decides the training point is not an outlier and constructs a classifier with two clusters instead of one.

5.2 Benchmark Datasets

We conducted computer simulations using 6 artificial and real world datasets from the UCI, DELVE and STATLOG benchmark repositories, following the same experimental setup as in [Ratsch *et* a/., 1998J. The authors of this article also provide a website to obtain the data[2]. Briefly, the setup is as follows: the performance of a classifier is measured by its average error over one hundred partitions of the datasets into training and testing sets. Free parameter(s) in the learning algorithm are chosen as the median value of the best model chosen by cross validation of the first five training datasets.

Table 1 compares percentage test error of LOOMs to AdaBoost (AB), Regularized AdaBoost $(\mathbf{AB}_R)$ and SVMs which are all known to be excellent classifiers[3]. The competitiveness of LOOMs to SVMs and $\mathbf{AB}_R$ (which both have a *soft margin* control parameter) is remarkable considering LOOMs have no free parameter. This indicates that the *soft margin* automatically selected by LOOMs is close to optimal. AdaBoost loses

[2] **http://svm.first.gmd.de/~raetsch/data/benchmarks.htm.**
The datasets have been pre-processed to have zero mean and standard deviation one, and the exact one hundred splits of training and testing sets used in the author's experiments can be obtained.

[3] The results for AB, $\mathbf{AB}_R$ and SVMs were obtained by Raetsch, *et al.*

out to the three other algorithms, being essentially an algorithm designed to deal with noise-free data.

	AB	AB_R	SVM~	LOOM
Banana	12.3	10.9	11.5	10.6
B. Cancer	30.4	26.5	26.0	26.3
Diabetes	26.5	23.9	23.5	23.4
Heart	20.3	16.6	16.0	16.6
Thyroid	4.4	4.4	4.8	5.0
Titanic	22.6	22.6	22.4	22.7

Table 1: Comparison of percentage test error of AdaBoost (AB), Regularized AdaBoost (AB_R), Support Vector Machines (SVMs) and Leave-One-Out Machines (LOOMs) on 6 datasets.

Finally, to show the behaviour of the algorithm we give two plots in Figure 3. The top graph shows the fraction of training points that have non-zero coefficients *(SVs)* plotted against $\log(\lambda)$ *(RBF width)* on the thyroid dataset. Here, one can see the sparsity of the decision rule (cf. Equation (1)), the sparseness of which depends on the chosen value of λ. The bottom graph shows the number of training and test errors *(train err* and *test err),* the value of $\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \xi_i$ *(slacks)* and the value of the bound given in Theorem 1 *(l-o-o bound).* One can see the training and test error (and the bound) closely match which would be natural for an algorithm which minimized leave-one-out error. The minimum of all four plots is roughly at $\log(\lambda) = -1$, indicating one could perform model selection using one of the known expressions. Note also that for a reasonable range of different RBF widths the test error is roughly the same, indicating the *automatic* soft margin control overcomes overfitting problems. Moreover, the values of λ which give the best generalization error also give the most sparse classifiers.

6 Discussion

In this article, motivated by a bound on leave-one-out error for kernel classifiers, we presented a new learning algorithm for solving pattern recognition problems. The robustness of the approach, despite having no regularization parameter, can be understood in terms of the bound (one must classify points correctly without their own basis function), in terms of margin (see Section 4.3), and through empirical study. We would also like to point out that if one constructs a kernel matrix $K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ then the regularization technique employed is to set the diagonal of the matrix to zero, which suggests that one can control regularization through control of the ridge, as in regression techniques.

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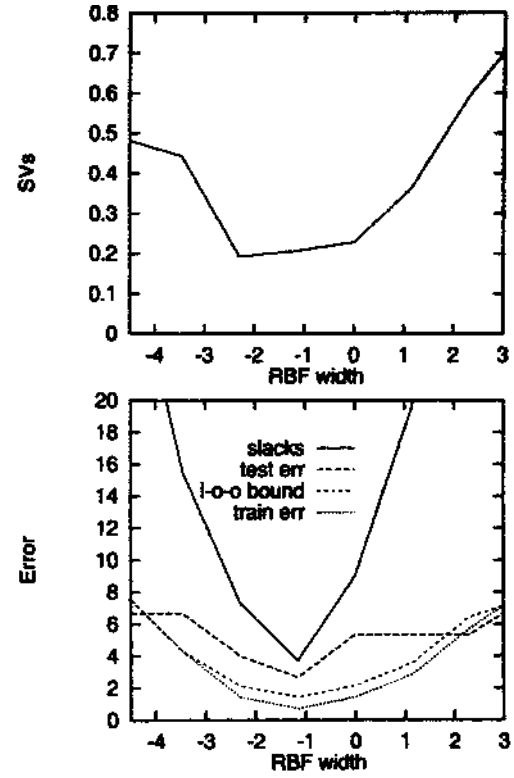

Figure 3: The fraction of training patterns that are support vectors (top) and various error rates (bottom) both plotted against RBF kernel width for Leave-One-Out Machines on the thyroid dataset.

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