Support Vector Machine

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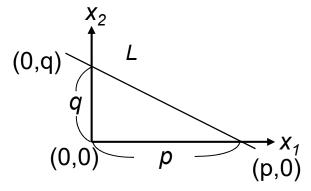
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1. Basic Concept

- Introduction
 - SVM is a classifier derived from statistical learning theory by Vapnik and Cortes (1995).
 - Relatively easy to use.
 - Suitable for pattern classification or nonlinear regression problems.

1.1 Background Knowledge: Linear Equation (1/3)

Linear Equation Representation

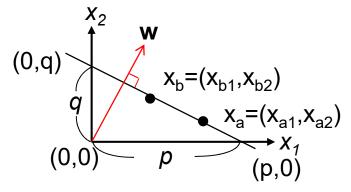


- Assume a line L passing two axes at (p,0) and (0,q).
- This line could be represented by $\frac{X_1}{p} + \frac{X_2}{q} = 1$
- Reformulate:

$$\frac{X_1}{p} + \frac{X_2}{q} = 1 \Rightarrow qX_1 + pX_2 - pq = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \left[q \quad p \right] \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix} - pq = 0 \Rightarrow w^{\mathsf{T}} x + b = 0$$

1.1 Background Knowledge: Linear Equation (2/3)

Normal vector



- Assume two points x_a and x_b at the line.
- So we have a vector (x_a-x_b)

$$|w^{T}x_{a} + b = 0|$$

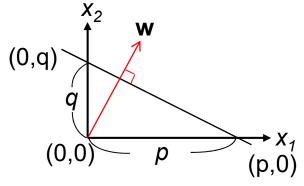
$$|w^{T}x_{b} + b = 0|$$

$$\Rightarrow w^{T}x_{a} - w^{T}x_{b} = 0 \Rightarrow w^{T}(x_{a} - x_{b}) = 0$$

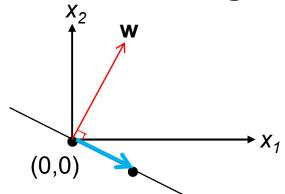
w is the normal vector of line equation.

1.1 Background Knowledge: Linear Equation (3/3)

• How about b = 0?



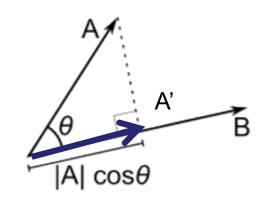
- Assume b=0, so we get $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} \vec{\mathbf{0}}) = \mathbf{0}$
- It means that x is origin or that $x \perp w$



- b=0 ⇒ the line passes through origin

1.1 Background Knowledge: Inner Product

Inner Product



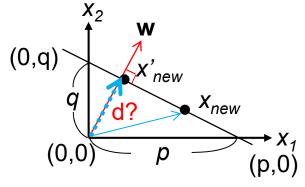
$$< A, B >= A^T B = ||A|| \cdot ||B|| \cos \theta$$

 $\Rightarrow ||A|| \cos \theta = \frac{A^T B}{||B||}$

– The length of projected vector A' is $\frac{A'B}{\|B\|}$

1.1 Background Knowledge: Distance to Origin

What is the distance to the origin?



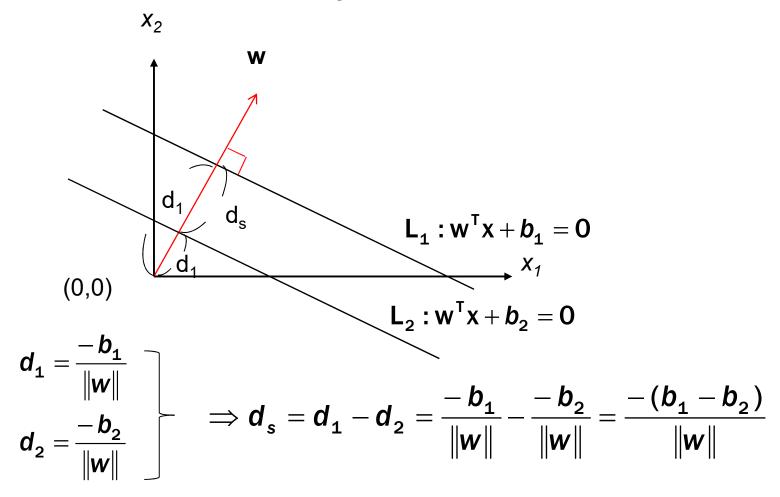
- Assume there is a point x_{new} at this line
- We know the length of projected point x'_{new} along w is $d = \frac{w'x_{new}}{\|w\|}$
- And x_{new} satisfies the equation: $w^T x_{new} + b = 0$
- Combine two terms:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \frac{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} + \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \frac{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{-\mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

$$- \mathbf{d} = \frac{-\mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$
Basic Concepts

1.1 Background Knowledge: Distance between Parallel Lines

What is the distance d_s between two lines L₁ and L₂?



1.1 Background Knowledge

Linear Equation

Linear equation:
$$\frac{X_1}{p} + \frac{X_2}{q} = 1$$

$$(0,0) \qquad p \qquad \qquad x_1$$

$$\frac{X_1}{p} + \frac{X_2}{q} = 1 \Rightarrow qX_1 + pX_2 - pq = 0$$

James:

W: scaling and rotation

b: translation

b = 0?

W: rotation, Scaling = 1,

W=w/||w|| * ||w||

magnitude Unit vector = direction

d=??

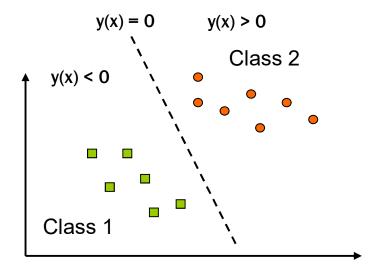
$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} q & p \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} - pq = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$$

where
$$w = [q \ p]^T$$
, $x = [x_1 \ x_2]^T$, and $b = pq$.

1.2 Classification Problem

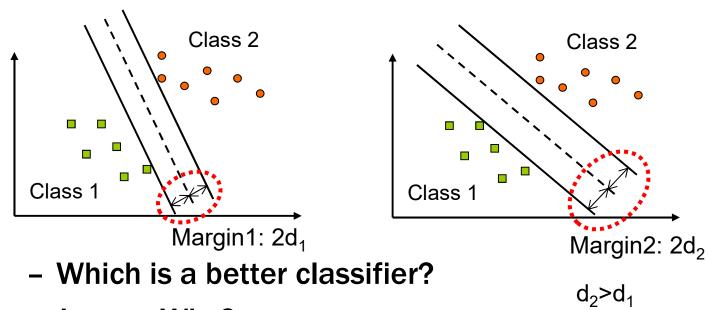
- Classification Problem
 - Assume two classes of data: circles and squares
 - Find a hyperplane (dim>2) to separate two classes



- A separating hyperplane: $y(x) = w^T x + b = 0$ $(w^T x_i) + b > 0$ if x_i is of class 2 $(w^T x_i) + b < 0$ if x_i is of class 1

1.2 Classification Problem:Optimal Separating Plane (1/2)

Optimal Separating Plane



- James: Why?

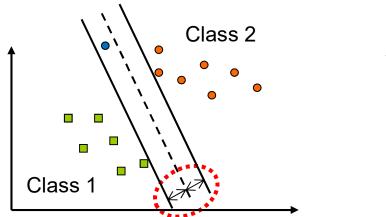
Margin 2d=? Margin 2d'=? $W^{T}x+b=0$ => $W^{T}x+b'=0$ $W^{T}x+b=a$ $W^{T}x+b=-a$ => $W^{T}x-b'=-1$ SVM - Basic Concepts

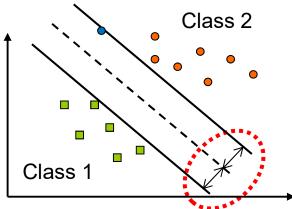
Because of scaling and merge into w and b to become w' and b'

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1.2 Classification Problem: Optimal Separating Plane (2/2)

- Consider the outlier data
 - A new point: Blue circle

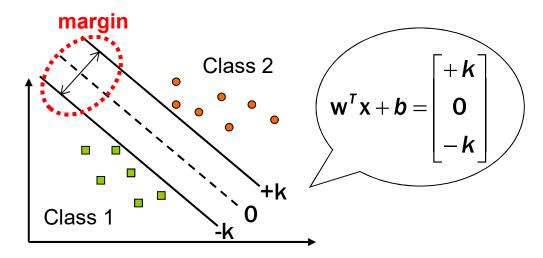




 The margin provides the potential tolerance to outlier data. Therefore margin2 is better than magin1

1.2 Classification Problem: Margin Classifier (1/2)

- Margin Classifier
 - Consider the margin



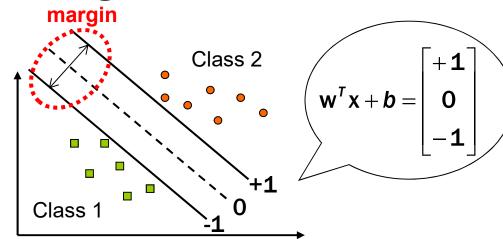
- Reformulate:

$$w^T x + b = k \Rightarrow \frac{w^T x + b}{k} = 1 \Rightarrow (\frac{w}{k})^T x + \frac{b}{k} = 1 \Rightarrow w^{T} x + b^{T} = 1$$

where $w' = \frac{w}{k}$ and $b' = \frac{b}{k}$

1.2 Classification Problem: Margin Classifier (2/2)

Margin Classifier



$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}$$

 $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}$

$$\Rightarrow d_s = d_1 - d_2 = \frac{-b_1}{\|w\|} - \frac{-b_2}{\|w\|}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-(b-1)}{\|w\|} - \frac{-(b+1)}{\|w\|} = \frac{-(-2)}{\|w\|}$$

- Training vectors: x_i , i = 1, ..., I

Define an indicator/labeling vector y

$$y_i = \begin{cases} \mathbf{1} & \text{if } x_i \text{ in class } \mathbf{2} \\ -\mathbf{1} & \text{if } x_i \text{ in class } \mathbf{1} \end{cases}$$

- A separating hyperplane: $w^Tx + b = 0$

$$\begin{cases} (w^{T}x_{i}) + b > 0 & \text{if } y_{i} = 1\\ (w^{T}x_{i}) + b < 0 & \text{if } y_{i} = -1 \end{cases}$$

Brief Conclusion:

w: Rotation (+ scaling) of decision line

b: Translation of decision line

1.2 Classification Problem: Maximal Margin

- Maximal Margin
 - Width of the margin between $w^Tx + b = 1$ and -1:

- The decision boundary L should classify all data correctly. $\Rightarrow y_i(\mathbf{w}^T x_i + b) \ge \mathbf{1}$
- The first SVM formula: a constrained optimization problem [Boser et al., 1992] $\max 2/\|\mathbf{w}\| = 2/\sqrt{\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w}}$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},\mathbf{b}} \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

$$\Rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

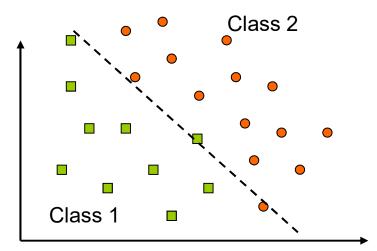
$$\Rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

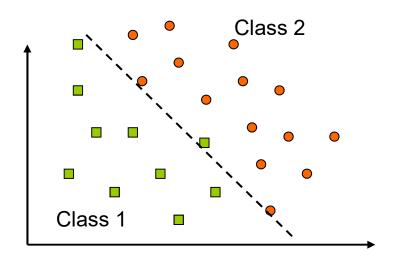
$$\Rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

$$\Rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data

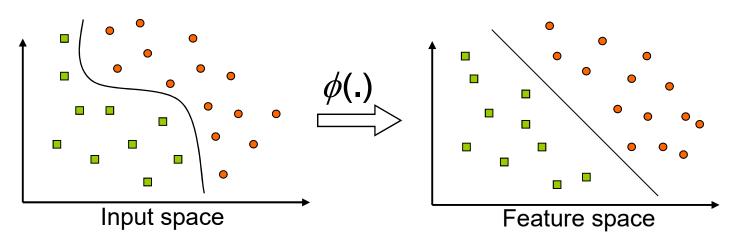
- Nonlinearly Separable Data
 - No linear plane could separate data perfectly





- Solution
 - 1) Nonlinear transformation => (james:)
 - 1.1) To higher dimension $\phi(.)$ via kernel function and then linear separation
 - 1.2) Or transfer to, for example, inside circle and outside circle. That is, decision boundary is nonlinear??
 - 2) Soft margin => allow training error, i.e, ERR != 0, occurs

1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Nonlinear Transformation (1/2)



- Why nonlinear transform $\phi(.)$?
 - 1) Data are more easily separated in higher dimensional (maybe infinite) feature space.
 - 2) Linear operation in the feature space is equivalent to nonlinear operation in input space.

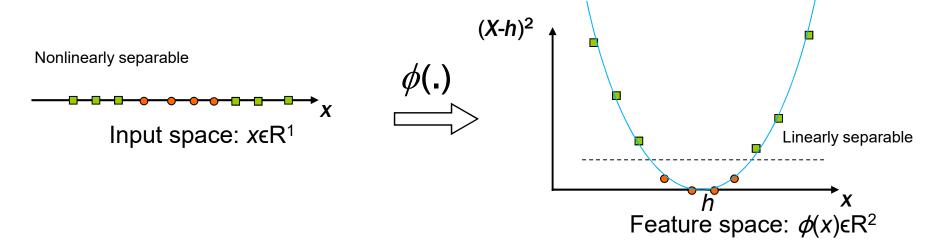
- Ex:

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^3 \ \phi(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbf{R}^{10}$$

 $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{1}, \sqrt{2}x_1, \sqrt{2}x_2, \sqrt{2}x_3, x_1^2, x_2^2, x_3^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_3, \sqrt{2}x_2x_3)$ (x_1, x_2, x_3)

1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Nonlinear Transformation (2/2)

Example



- The circle points spread between the square points.
- After the nonlinear mapping, there explicitly exists a linear plane separating circle points from square points.

1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Kernel Function

Kernel Function

– The relationship between the kernel function K and the mapping $\phi(.)$ is

$$K(x,y) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(y) \rangle = \phi(x)^T \phi(y)$$

- In practice, we specify K instead of choosing $\phi(.)$ directly.
- Intuitively, K(x,y) represents the similarity of $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(y)$ as we desired.
- K(x,y) needs to satisfy *Mercer's Condition* (described later) to make sure that $\phi(.)$ exists.
- SVM solves two issues simultaneously
 - Nonlinear transformation using kernels
 - Minimize ||w||

1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Typical Kernel Function

- Typical Kernel Function
 - 1) Polynomial kernel $K(x, y) = (x^T y + 1)^d$. d: degree

2) Radial basis function (Gaussian kernel)

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

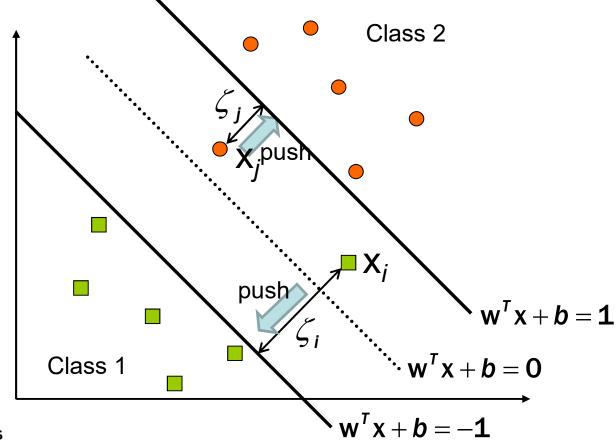
3) Sigmoid function

$$K(x,y) = tanh(\kappa x^T y + \theta), \quad \kappa, \theta$$
: parameters

 The choice of different kernel functions is problemdependent.

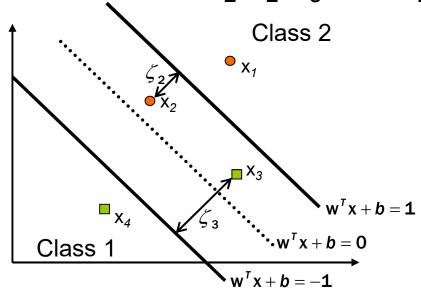
1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Soft Margin Hyperplane (1/3)

- Soft Margin Hyperplane
 - To avoid overfitting, we allow "training errors" ζ_i in classification



1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Soft Margin Hyperplane (2/3)

- The Inequality Constraint $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 \zeta_i$
 - Consider four points x_1 , x_2 , x_3 , and x_4



 x_1 : $y_1 = 1$, $(w^Tx_1+b)>1$ (ex: 1.5), so $y_1(w^Tx_1+b)>1$ (ex: 1.5), and then $\zeta_1 = 0$ (no error) satisfy constraint x_2 : $y_2 = 1$, $1>(w^Tx_2+b)>0$ (ex: 0.5), so $1>y_2(w^Tx_2+b)>0$ (ex: 0.5), and then $1>\zeta_2>0$ (ex: 0.5) x_3 : $y_3 = -1$, $1>(w^Tx_3+b)>0$ (ex: 0.5), so $0>y_3(w^Tx_3+b)>-1$ (ex: -0.5), and then $2>\zeta_3>1$ (ex: 1.5) x_4 : $y_4 = -1$, $(w^Tx_4+b)<-1$ (ex: -1.5), so $y_4(w^Tx_4+b)>1$ (ex: 1.5), and then $\zeta_4=0$ (no error)

1.3 Nonlinearly Separable Data: Soft Margin Hyperplane (3/3)

- Soft Margin Optimization Problem
 - Include an additional term of training errors $\sum_{i=1}^{l} \zeta_i$
 - Combine with margin term by multiplying a scalar C
 - Reformulate:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b,\zeta} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \zeta_{i}$$
subject to $\mathbf{y}_{i}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b}) \geq \mathbf{1} - \zeta_{i}, \zeta_{i} \geq \mathbf{0}$, for $i = 1, \dots, l$

w: Line Rotation + Scaling 1.4 Standard SVM ?? => Line Rotation

- Standard SVM [Vapnik and Cortes, 1995]
 - Key Idea
 - 1) Higher dimensional feature space
 - 2) Allow training errors

- **Margin Term:** Find the best rotation factor by margin w
- Training Error Term: Min Sum of ζ_i : Min sum of all training errors
- Constrained Optimization Problem C: Bigger C, margin???
 If linear margin, the total

 $\min_{\mathbf{w},b,\zeta} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \zeta_i$ $\sum_{i=1}^{J} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \zeta_i$ $\sum_{i=1}^{J} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{$

subject to $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\phi(x_i)+b) \ge \mathbf{1}-\zeta_i, \ \zeta_i \ge 0, i=1,...,I$

C: Tradeoff parameters between training error and margin w (need to tune)

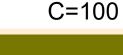
- w: a vector in high dimensional space
- ⇒ maybe infinite variables. Difficult to solve

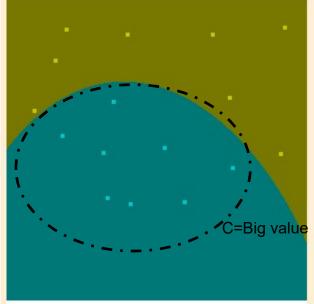
1.4 Standard SVM:

Effect of Tradeoff Parameter

- Effect of Tradeoff Parameter
 - The effect of C can be observed using the SVM Toy on the libsvm webpage:
 - http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm/

C=1





1.4 Standard SVM: Duality

 $L(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{b}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} [\mathbf{y}_{i} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \boldsymbol{b}) - \mathbf{1}]$ $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = w - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{i} = 0 \implies w = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{i}, \quad \alpha_{i} \geq 0$

- Duality
 - Transform the primal problem to the dual problem $min L(w, b, \alpha) = max(min L(w, b, \alpha))$
- The Dual Problem

A finite problem: # variables = #training data

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \alpha - \mathbf{e}^{\mathsf{T}} \alpha \qquad \longleftarrow \qquad L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) <= (\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i y_i x_i)$$

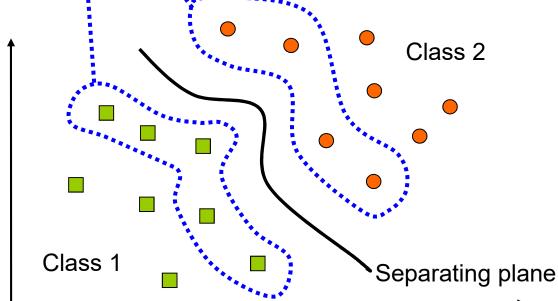
subject to $0 \le \alpha_i \le C$, i = 1,...,I, $y^T \alpha = 0$ where $\mathbf{Q}_{ii} = \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ and $\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{1},...,\mathbf{1}]^T$

- At optimum, w is recovered as $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- The only difference with the linearly separable case is the upper bound C on α_i
- A quadratic programming solver can be applied to find α_i

1.4 Standard SVM: Support Vectors

- Support Vectors
 - The support vectors are a subset of training data closest to the separating plane and therefore the most difficult to classify.





1.4 Standard SVM: Decision Function

Decision Function

- At optimum, w is recovered as $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- Let $\phi(x)$ be the testing data, then decision function

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

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

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \underline{K(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x})} + \mathbf{b}$$

- By using the dual variable α_i , it is no need to write down w.
- Very often, α_i is optimized to zero. In other words, x_i with non-zero α_i are so-called support vectors which determine the decision boundary.

1.4 Standard SVM: Mercer's Condition

- Mercer's Condition [1903]
 - What kind of K_{ii} can be represented as $\phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_i)$?
 - $K(x,y) = \phi(x)^T \phi(y)$ if and only if $\forall g$ s.t.

$$\int g(x)^2 dx$$
 finite $\Rightarrow \int K(x,y)g(x)g(y)dxdy \geq 0$

 It is useful for some kernel. However, still not easy to check.

2. Dual SVM Derivation

- Duality
 - Transform the primal problem to the dual problem $\min L(w, b, \alpha) = \max_{\alpha>0} (\min_{w, b} L(w, b, \alpha))$

Lagrange:

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} [\mathbf{y}_{i} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{1}]$$



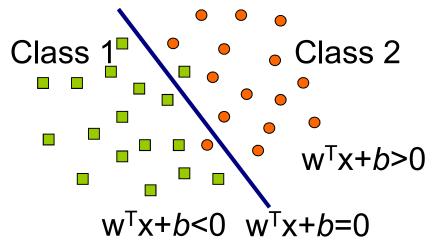
Derivation of w and b

Max(Lamda):

$$\tilde{L}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j$$

2.1 SVMs Reminder

Original SVM Problem



- Consider the problem without ζ_i and C

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},\mathbf{b}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

subject to $y_i(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} x_i + b) \ge 1$, $i = 1, ..., I$

 A constrained optimization problem: Use lagrange multiplier method to solve

2.2 Lagrange Multiplier Method

Constrained Optimization Problem

- Find $x=[x_1 \ x_2 \ ... \ x_n]$ which minimizes f(x) subject to the inequality constraints: $g_i(x) \le 0$, j=1, 2, ..., m.

Lagrange Function

- Transform the inequality constraints to equality constraints by using $G_j(x,y)=g_j(x)+y_j^2=0$, where $y=[y_1, y_2, ..., y_m]$ is the vector of slack variables.
- Lagrange function: $L(x,y,\lambda)=f(x)+\Sigma_{i}\lambda_{j}G_{j}(x,y)$

2.2 Lagrange Multiplier Method

- Lagrange Function
 - The solution of L is given by solving

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_{j} \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} = \mathbf{0}, \ i = \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \dots, n \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \lambda_{j}} = \mathbf{g}_{j}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{y}_{j}^{2} = \mathbf{0}, \ j = \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \dots, m \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{y}_{j}} = \mathbf{2}\lambda_{j}\mathbf{y}_{j} = \mathbf{0}, \ j = \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \dots, m \end{cases}$$

2.3 The Linearly Separable Case (1/2)

The Primal Problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},\mathbf{b}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

subject to $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T x_i + b) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., I$

The Lagrange function

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} [\mathbf{y}_{i} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + b) - \mathbf{1}]$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}, \quad \alpha_{i} \ge \mathbf{0}$$

where α_i is the weight of data point x_i .

2.3 The Linearly Separable Case (2/2)

- Notice the value of α_i :
 - $-\alpha_i = 0$, don't care about the constraints!
 - $-\alpha_i > 0$, the *i*-th point x_i is close to the hyperplane.

At optimum, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha_i} = y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}$

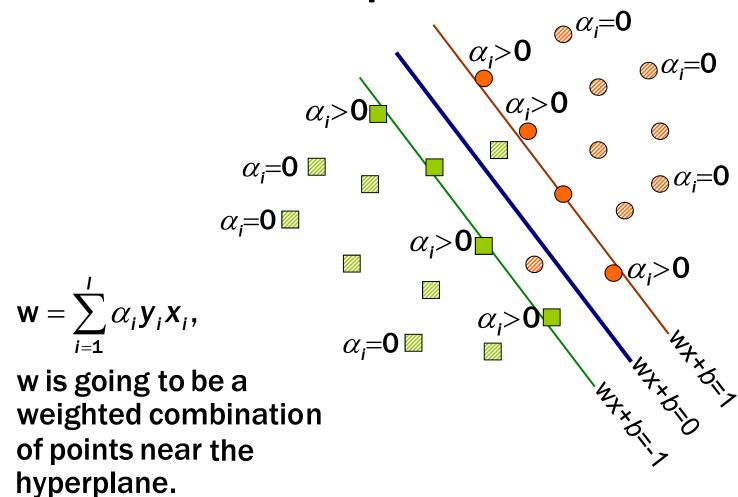
$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{1} \implies \mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{y}_i} - \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i$$

notice $y_i = \mathbf{1} / y_i, \ y_i = \{-\mathbf{1}, +\mathbf{1}\}$

• Therefore, we can obtain b by $b = y_i - w^T x_i$, for any i where $\alpha_i > 0$.

(Average *b* over all points where $\alpha_i > 0$)

2.3 The Linearly Separable Case: Dual SVM Interpretation



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2.3 The Linearly Separable Case: Dual Problem (1/2)

Dual Problem

Dual Problem

- Substitute
$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}$$
 into $L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}, \alpha)$ to get $\tilde{L}(\alpha)$

$$\tilde{L}(\alpha)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \right)^{T} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j} \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \left\{ \mathbf{y}_{i} \left[\left(\sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j} \right)^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b} \right] - \mathbf{1} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j} - \sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j} \right)^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} \quad \text{hint: } \sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{j} - \sum_{i=1}^{J} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{b} + \sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}$$

2.3 The Linearly Separable Case: Dual Problem (2/2)

- Dual Problem
 - Reformulate $L(\alpha)$ to a quadratic programming problem

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \alpha - \mathbf{e}^{\mathsf{T}} \alpha$$

subject to
$$\alpha_i \ge 0$$
 for i=1,...,I and $y^T \alpha = 0$
where $Q \in R^{l \times l}$, $Q_{ij} = y_i y_j x_i^T x_j$, $e = [1 \cdots 1]^T \in R^{l \times 1}$, $\alpha = [\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_l]^T \in R^{l \times 1}$, and $y = [y_1 \dots y_l]^T \in R^{l \times 1}$

– We can apply quadratic programming solver to find lpha

$$k(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$$

 Use kernel tricks to find decision function...Substitute support vectors to get b, without knowing w

2.3 The Linearly Separable Case: Dual SVM Formulation

Lagrange function has to be

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} [\mathbf{y}_{i} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{1}]$$

Dual problem is given by

$$\min_{\alpha \geq 0} \operatorname{Primal} = \max_{\alpha \geq 0} \min_{\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}} L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}, \alpha)$$

Solution is given by

$$\alpha = \arg\min_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{I} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^{\mathsf{T}} x_j, \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i y_i = 0, \alpha_i \ge 0$$

Thus w and b can be obtained by

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

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i, \text{ for any } k \text{ where } \alpha_k \ge \mathbf{0}$$

Q: Why should $\Sigma_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$?

A:

• If $\sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i y_i \neq 0$, move b to ∞ , then $-b \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i y_i$ will be $-\infty$. That is, $L(w,b,\alpha)$ decreases to $-\infty$.

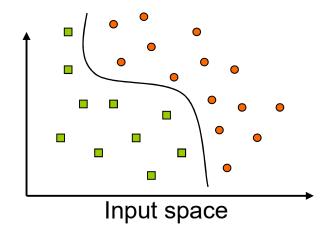
• $\min_{\boldsymbol{L}} L(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{b}, \alpha) =$

$$\begin{cases} -\infty & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i y_i \neq 0 \\ \min_{w} \frac{1}{2} w^{\mathsf{T}} w - \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i [y_i w^{\mathsf{T}} x_i - 1] & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

• Hence, we have w only when $\sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i y_i = 0$.

2.4 The Nonlinearly Separable Case

- Nonlinearly Separable Data
 - More Often than not, the data could not separated by a linear plane

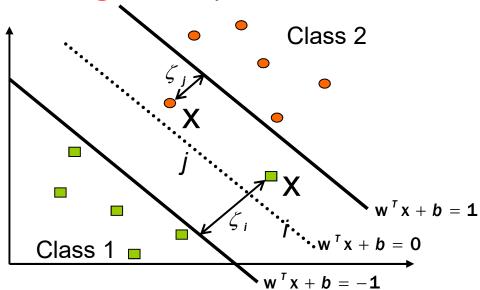


- Solution for nonlinearly separable case
 - 1) Soft Margin
 - 2) Nonlinear Mapping to High dimensional space

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2.4.1 Soft Margin (1/2)

- Soft Margin
 - Allow training error ζ_i



Primal problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \zeta_{i}$$
subject to $y_{i} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b}) \ge \mathbf{1} - \zeta_{i}, \ \zeta_{i} \ge \mathbf{0}$

2.4.1 Soft Margin (2/2)

Lagrange function:

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \zeta_i) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w} + C \sum_{i=1}^{I} \zeta_i - \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i [\mathbf{y}_i (\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{b}) - \mathbf{1})] + \sum_{i=1}^{I} \mu_i (\zeta_i - \mathbf{0})$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \alpha_i \ge \mathbf{0}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{b}} = -\sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \zeta_i} = \mathbf{C} - \alpha_i + \mu_i = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \alpha_i = \mathbf{C} - \mu_i$$

2.4.1 Soft Margin: Dual Problem (1/2)

Dual Problem:

$$\begin{split} &\widetilde{\boldsymbol{L}}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i})^{\mathsf{T}} (\sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}) + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \zeta_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \left\{ \mathbf{y}_{i} [(\sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b}] - \mathbf{1} + \zeta_{i} \right\} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \mu_{i} \zeta_{i} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \mathbf{C} \zeta_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \mathbf{C} \zeta_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{l} (\mathbf{C} - \mu_{i}) \zeta_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \zeta_{i} & \text{hint: } \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} = \mathbf{0} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{l} (\alpha_{i}) \zeta_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \zeta_{i} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{j} \end{aligned}$$

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2.4.1 Soft Margin: Dual Problem (2/2)

Dual Problem

- $\alpha_i = \mathbf{C} \mu_i$ with $\mu_i \ge \mathbf{0}$ implies $\mathbf{C} \ge \alpha_i$
- Combine $C \ge \alpha_i$ and $\alpha_i \ge 0 \implies C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0$
- Reformulate $L(\alpha)$ to a quadratic programming problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{T} Q \alpha - e^{T} \alpha \\ & \text{subject to } C \geq \alpha_{i} \geq 0 \text{ for i=1,...,I and } y^{T} \alpha = 0 \\ & \text{where } Q \in R^{l \times l}, Q_{ij} = y_{i} y_{j} x_{i}^{T} x_{j}, \ e = [1 \cdots 1]^{T} \in R^{l \times 1} \\ &, \ \alpha = [\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{l}]^{T} \in R^{l \times 1}, \text{ and } y = [y_{1} \ldots y_{l}]^{T} \in R^{l \times 1} \end{aligned}$$

– We can apply quadratic programming solver to find $\,lpha$

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2.4.2 Nonlinear Mapping (1/2)

- Project data onto high dimensional space $\phi(x_i)$
 - The hard margin case

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{T} \mathbf{Q} \alpha - \mathbf{e}^{T} \alpha, \text{ subject to } \alpha_{i} \geq \mathbf{0} \text{ for } i = \mathbf{1}, \dots, I \text{ and } \mathbf{y}^{T} \alpha = \mathbf{0}$$
where $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times I}, \mathbf{Q}_{ij} = \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{j}), \mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{1} \dots \mathbf{1}]^{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times \mathbf{1}}$

$$, \alpha = [\alpha_{1} \dots \alpha_{I}]^{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times \mathbf{1}} \text{ and } \mathbf{y} = [\mathbf{y}_{1} \dots \mathbf{y}_{I}]^{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times \mathbf{1}}$$

The soft margin case

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{T} \mathbf{Q} \alpha - \mathbf{e}^{T} \alpha, \text{ subject to } \mathbf{C} \geq \alpha_{i} \geq \mathbf{0} \text{ for } \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{1}, \dots, \mathbf{I} \text{ and } \mathbf{y}^{T} \alpha = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\text{where } \mathbf{Q} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times I}, \mathbf{Q}_{ij} = \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{j}), \mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{1} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{1}]^{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times \mathbf{1}}$$

$$, \alpha = [\alpha_{1} \quad \dots \quad \alpha_{I}]^{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times \mathbf{1}} \text{ and } \mathbf{y} = [\mathbf{y}_{1} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{y}_{I}]^{T} \in \mathbf{R}^{I \times \mathbf{1}}$$

2.4.2 Nonlinear Mapping (2/2)

Kernel Trick

- Because the dimension of $\phi(x_i)$ may be infinity, we have problem on calculating the inner product of two points in the high dimensional space.
- We define $K(x_i,x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$ as kernel function.
- Use the kernel function (ex: $\kappa(x,y) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$), we can get the inner product value directly without computing the mapping $\phi(x_i)$.
- The decision function would be reformulated:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \underline{\phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x})} + \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} \underline{K(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x})} + \mathbf{b}$$

3. Training Linear and Nonlinear SVMs

- Training Nonlinear SVMs Technique
 - Save storage
 - Speedup
 - 1) Caching
 - 2) Shrinking
- Training Linear SVMs Technique
 - Decomposition
 - Approximation

3.1 Training Nonlinear SVM

- Training Nonlinear SVM
 - The dual

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \alpha - \mathbf{e}^{\mathsf{T}} \alpha$$
subject to $\mathbf{0} \le \alpha_{i} \le \mathbf{C}, i = 1, ..., I, y^{\mathsf{T}} \alpha = \mathbf{0}$

where
$$\mathbf{Q}_{ij} = \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_j \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^\mathsf{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$
 and $\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{1}, \dots, \mathbf{1}]^\mathsf{T}$

- $Q_{ij} \neq 0$, Q: an *I* by *I* symmetric and fully dense matrix. In practice, 30,000 training data: 30,000 variables $\Rightarrow \text{size}(Q) = 30,000^2 * 8/2 = 3GB$, cause storage problem!
- Traditional methods such as Newton and Quasi-Newton are hard to be applied.

3.1 Training Nonlinear SVM: Decomposition Method

- Decomposition Method
 - B: selected working set, N: the remaining set
 - B^k: B in k-th iteration
 - Sub-problem in each iteration

$$\min_{\alpha_{B}} \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{B}^{\mathsf{T}} & (\alpha_{N}^{k})^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q_{BB} & Q_{BN} \\ Q_{NB} & Q_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{B} \\ \alpha_{N}^{k} \end{bmatrix} \\
- \left[\mathbf{e}_{B}^{\mathsf{T}} & (\mathbf{e}_{N}^{k})^{\mathsf{T}} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{B} \\ \alpha_{N}^{k} \end{bmatrix}$$

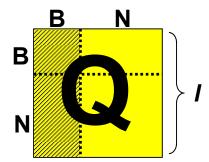
subject to $0 \le \alpha_t \le C$, $t \in B$, $y_B^T \alpha_B = -y_N^T \alpha_N^k$ where α_B is the only variable related to B.

3.1.1 Avoid Storage Problem (1/3)

- Avoid Storage Problem
 - Consider min only with respect to $\alpha_{\rm B}$
 - \Rightarrow Remove several terms related to α_N
 - The new objective function

$$\frac{1}{2}\alpha_B^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}_{BB}\alpha_B + (-\mathbf{e}_B + \mathbf{Q}_{BN}\alpha_N^k)^{\mathsf{T}}\alpha_B + \mathsf{const}$$

the part out of working set is regarded as constant.



 To avoid the storage problem, B columns of Q are stored only when needed

3.1.1 Avoid Storage Problem (2/3)

- How Does It Work?
 - It converges slowly compared to some optimization methods, e.g. Newton and Quasi-Newton.
 - The decision function

$$sgn\left(\sum_{i=1}^{I}\alpha_{i}y_{i}K(x_{i},x)+b\right)$$

- It is no need to obtain accurate α
 - \Rightarrow It is also no need to apply many iterations.
- If #support vectors << #training data, training will be fast.
- α is usually initialized to be 0.

3.1.1 Avoid Storage Problem (3/3)

Example

- An example of training 50,000 data using LIBSVM on a Pentium M 1.4G laptop.
- Converge in 5m1.456s, while calculating Q may have taken more than 5 minutes.
- #SVs = 3,370 << 50,000 = #training data
- We can observe that it is a good case where many remain zero all the time.

3.1.2 Speedup Decomposition (1/3)

- Speedup Decomposition
 - Caching [Joachims, 1998]
 Store recently used kernel columns as the real computer cache.
 - Ex. (in LIBSVM)

100K cache: 11.463s

40M cache: 7.817s

 Note that SVM is a quadratic optimization problem, so the size of cache is not proportional to the converging time.

3.1.2 Speedup Decomposition (2/3)

- Speedup Decomposition
 - Shrinking [Joachims, 1998]
 Some bounded elements do not change anymore until the end. Thus we can heuristically resize it to a smaller problem by removing these elements.
 - After certain iterations, most bounded elements are identified and do not change anymore. [Lin, 2002]
- Caching and shrinking are useful.

3.1.2 Speedup Decomposition (3/3)

- Caching: Issues
 - Goal: minimize the total number of calculating columns among k iterations
 - A simple way:
 - Store recently used columns
 - A better usage of cache:
 - **Deliberately select those in cache**
 - Idea: The columns in cache have been calculated, so it is no need to spend more effort to calculate new kernel columns.

3.2 Training Linear SVMs

- Training Linear SVMs
 - Linear kernel:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b,\zeta} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{C} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \zeta_{i}$$
subject to $\mathbf{y}_{i}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \mathbf{b}) \geq \mathbf{1} - \zeta_{i}, \ \zeta_{i} \geq \mathbf{0}$

- An optimum

$$\zeta_i = \max(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1} - y_i(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i + b))$$

3.2 Training Linear SVMs

- Training Linear SVMs
 - Remaining variable: w, b

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \ \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + C \sum_{i=1}^{l} \max(0,1-y_{i}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} + b))$$

- The maximum term is not differentiable
- #variables = #features + 1
- Traditional optimization methods can be applied.
- Although data set is large, if #features is small, it is easier to solve.
- It is challenging if #features and #data is large.

3.2.1 Decomposition Methods for SVMs

- Decomposition Methods
 - Upper bounded components are related to training errors.
 - When C is large enough, w does not change anymore.
 [Keerthi and Lin, 2003]
 - Recall $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbf{R}^n$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^1$ $\# (\mathbf{0} < \alpha_i < \mathbf{C}) \le n+1$
 - Starting from small C, faster convergence [Kao et al., 2004]
 - Using C = 1, 2, 4, 8, ...

3.2.2 Approximations (1/2)

Approximations

- Solving the dual is difficult when #data is large and using nonlinear kernels.
- A simple and effective way: subsampling (e.g. k-NN or hierarchical settings)
- Incremental way: Randomly separate data into 10 parts Train $\mathbf{1}^{st}$ part \Rightarrow SV¹, then train (SV¹ + $\mathbf{2}^{nd}$ part), ... until 10 parts are trained
- Select good points, i.e. remove some unnecessary points first: k-NN
- Goal: process smaller data set at the same time

3.2.2 Approximations (2/2)

- How to select B?
 - Random [Lee and Mangasarian, 2001]
 - Incremental [Keerthi et al., 2006]: starting from a small subset then add points to it in each iteration
- In machine learning, it is very often to balance between simplification and performance

4. Conclusion

Conclusion

- SVM could find a hyperplane which separate the different classes of data.
- In the nonlinearly separable case, we can use the soft margin and/or nonlinear mapping to solve this problem.
- Using the kernel trick, we can avoid the complex computation in high dimensional space.

More Problem

- How about multiclasses?

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