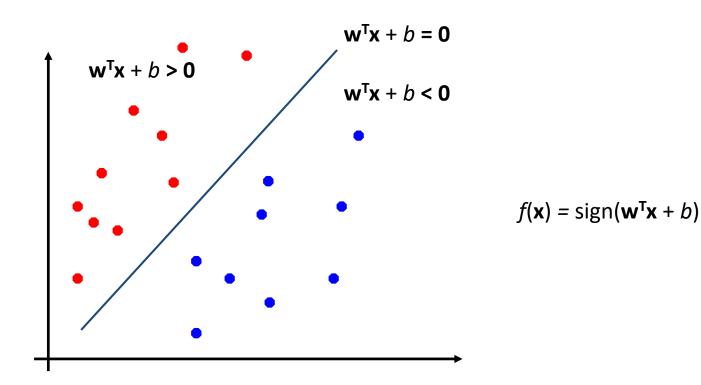
Support Vector Machines

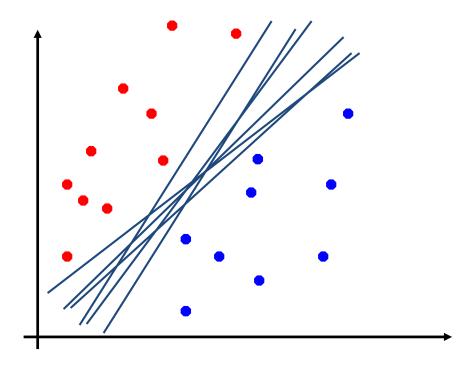
Linear Separators

 Binary classification can be viewed as the task of separating classes in feature space:



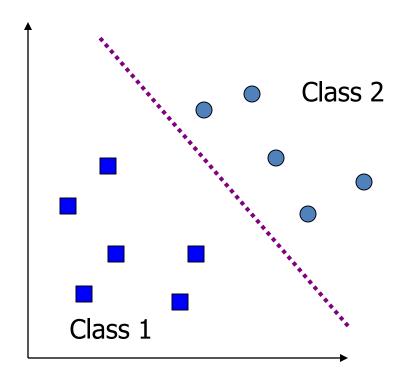
Linear Separators

• Which of the linear separators is optimal?

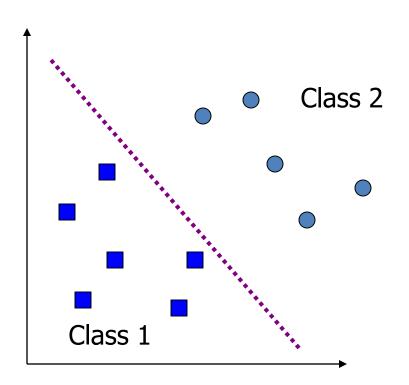


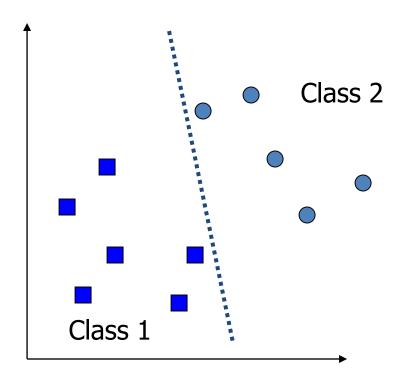
What is a good Decision Boundary?

- Many decision boundaries!
 - The Perceptron algorithm can be used to find such a boundary
- Are all decision boundaries equally good?



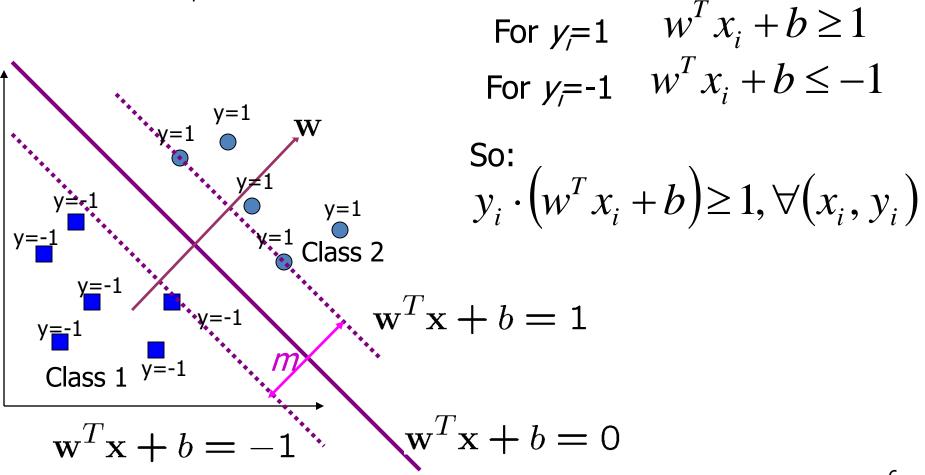
Examples of Bad Decision Boundaries





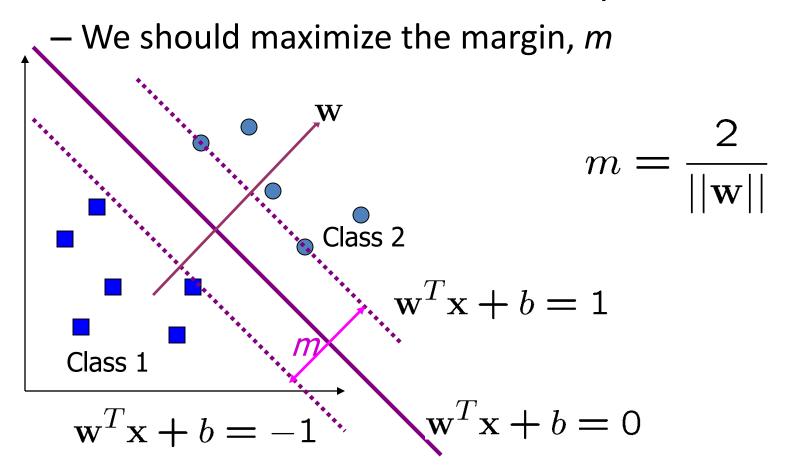
Finding the Decision Boundary

• Let $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ be our data set and let $y_i \in \{1,-1\}$ be the class label of x_i



Large-margin Decision Boundary

 The decision boundary should be as far away from the data of both classes as possible



Finding the Decision Boundary

- The decision boundary should classify all points correctly \Rightarrow $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1, \quad \forall i$
- The decision boundary can be found by solving the following constrained optimization problem

Minimize
$$\frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{w}||^2$$
 subject to $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b)\geq 1$ $\forall i$

 This is a constrained optimization problem. Solving it requires to use Lagrange multipliers

Finding the Decision Boundary

Minimize
$$\frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{w}||^2$$

subject to
$$1-y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b) \leq 0$$
 for $i=1,\ldots,n$

The Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left(1 - y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \right)$$

- α_i≥0
- Note that $||\mathbf{w}||^2 = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{w}$

Gradient with respect to w and b

 Setting the gradient of £ w.r.t. w and b to zero, we have

$$L = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} w + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (1 - y_{i} (w^{T} x_{i} + b)) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} w^{k} w^{k} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \left(1 - y_{i} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} w^{k} x_{i}^{k} + b \right) \right)$$

n: no of examples, m: dimension of the space
$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w^k} = 0, \forall k & \mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (-y_i) \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0} \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \mathbf{0} & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = \mathbf{0} \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \mathbf{0} & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = \mathbf{0} \end{cases}$$

• If we substitute $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}$ to \mathcal{L} , we have

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \left(1 - y_i (\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j y_j \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i - b \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i$$

Since

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

• This is a function of α_i only

- The new objective function is in terms of α_i only
- It is known as the dual problem: if we know **w**, we know all α_i ; if we know all α_i , we know **w**
- The original problem is known as the primal problem
- The objective function of the dual problem needs to be maximized (comes out from the KKT theory)
- The dual problem is therefore:

max.
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

subject to
$$\alpha_i \ge 0$$
, $\sum_{i=1} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

Properties of α_i when we introduce the Lagrange multipliers

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

The result when we differentiate the original Lagrangian w.r.t. b

max.
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
 subject to $\alpha_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

- This is a quadratic programming (QP) problem
 - A global maximum of α_i can always be found
- \mathbf{w} can be recovered by $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$

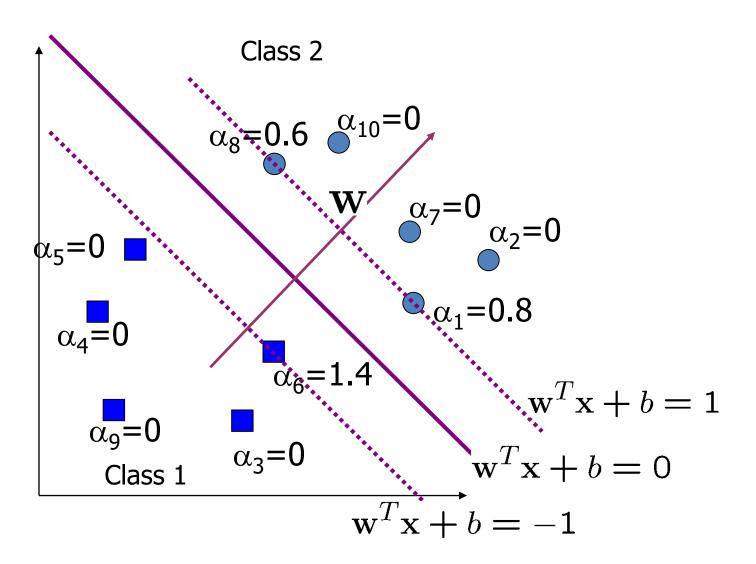
Characteristics of the Solution

- Many of the α_i are zero
 - w is a linear combination of a small number of data points
 - This "sparse" representation can be viewed as data compression as in the construction of knn classifier
- \mathbf{x}_i with non-zero α_i are called support vectors (SV)
 - The decision boundary is determined only by the SV
 - Let t_j (j=1, ..., s) be the indices of the s support vectors. We can write

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}$$

Note: w need not be formed explicitly

A Geometrical Interpretation



Characteristics of the Solution

For testing with a new data z

- Compute $\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z} + b = \sum_{j=1}^s \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j}(\mathbf{x}_{t_j}^T\mathbf{z}) + b$ and classify **z** as class 1 if the sum is positive, and class 2 otherwise

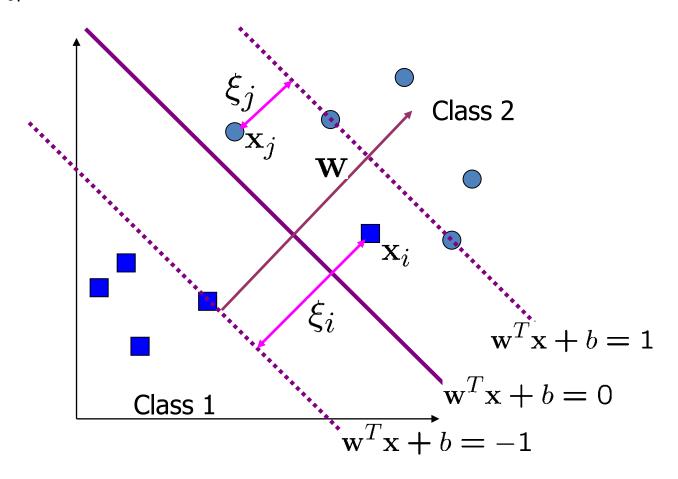
Note: w need not be formed explicitly

The Quadratic Programming Problem

- Many approaches have been proposed
 - Logo, cplex, etc. (see http://www.numerical.rl.ac.uk/qp/qp.html)
- Most are "interior-point" methods
 - Start with an initial solution that can violate the constraints
 - Improve this solution by optimizing the objective function and/or reducing the amount of constraint violation
- For SVM, sequential minimal optimization (SMO) seems to be the most popular
 - A QP with two variables is trivial to solve
 - Each iteration of SMO picks a pair of (α_i, α_j) and solve the QP with these two variables; repeat until convergence
- In practice, we can just regard the QP solver as a "blackbox" without bothering how it works

Non-linearly Separable Problems

- We allow "error" ξ_i in classification; it is based on the output of the discriminant function $\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}$ +b
- ξ_i approximates the number of misclassified samples



Soft Margin Hyperplane

• The new cor
$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \geq 1 - \xi_i & y_i = 1 \\ \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \leq -1 + \xi_i & y_i = -1 \\ \xi_i \geq 0 & \forall i \end{cases}$$

- $-\xi_i$ are "slack variables" in optimization
- Note that ξ_i =0 if there is no error for \mathbf{x}_i
- $-\xi_i$ is an upper bound of the number of errors
- We want to minimize

$$\frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

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

• C: tradeoff parameter between error and margin

The Optimization Problem

$$L = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} w + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (1 - \xi_{i} - y_{i} (w^{T} x_{i} + b)) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i} \xi_{i}$$

With a and μ Lagrange multipliers, POSITIVE

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} = w_{j} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} x_{ij} = 0 \qquad \qquad \vec{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \vec{x}_{i} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \xi_j} = C - \alpha_j - \mu_j = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i = 0$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \vec{x}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}_{j} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \left(1 - \xi_{i} - y_{i} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} x_{j}^{T} x_{i} + b \right) \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i} \xi_{i}$$

With
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i = 0$$
 $C = \alpha_j + \mu_j$

$$L = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \vec{x}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}$$

The Optimization Problem

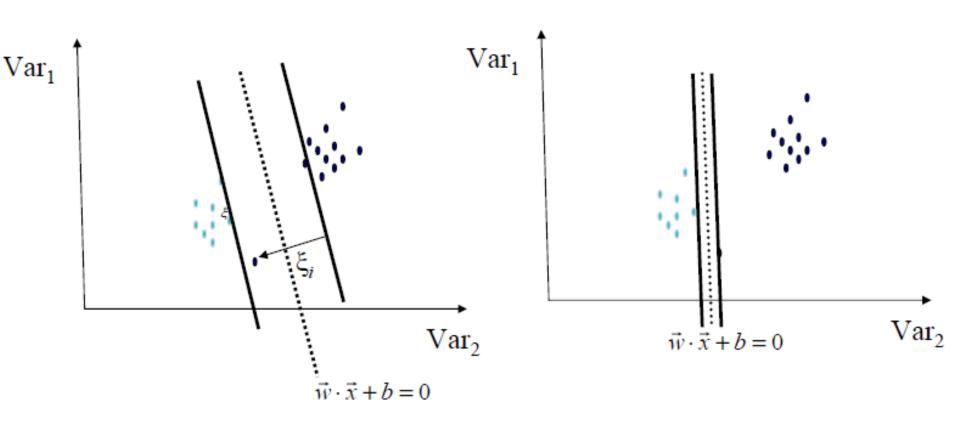
• The dimax.
$$W(\alpha)=\sum\limits_{i=1}^n\alpha_i-\frac{1}{2}\sum\limits_{i=1,j=1}^n\alpha_i\alpha_jy_iy_j\mathbf{x}_i^T\mathbf{x}_j$$
 is subject to $C\geq\alpha_i\geq0,\sum\limits_{i=1}^n\alpha_iy_i=0$

- New constrainsderive from $C = \alpha_j + \mu_j$ since μ and α are positive.
- w is recovered as $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}$
- This is very similar to the optimization problem in the linear separable case, except that there is an upper bound ${\it C}$ on $\alpha_{\rm i}$ now
- Once again, a QP solver can be used to find α_i

$$\frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

- The algorithm try to keep ξ null, maximising the margin
- The algorithm does not minimise the number of error. Instead, it minimises the sum of distances fron the hyperplane
- When C increases the number of errors tend to lower. At the limit of C tending to infinite, the solution tend to that given by the hard margin formulation, with 0 errors

Soft margin is more robust

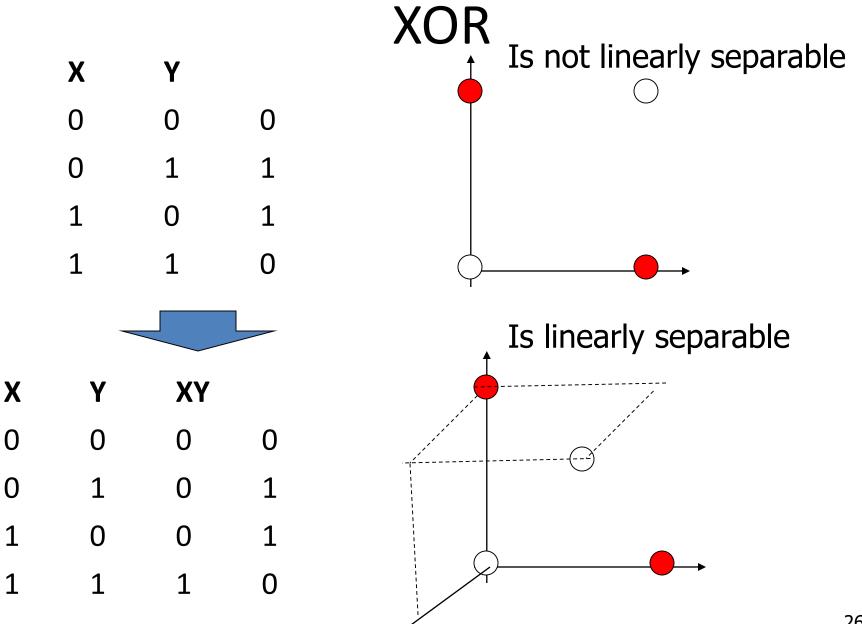


Soft Margin SVM

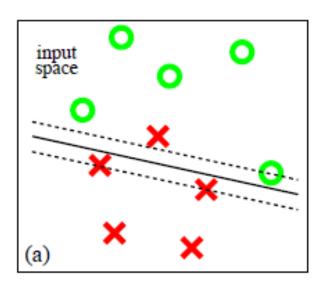
Hard Margin SVM

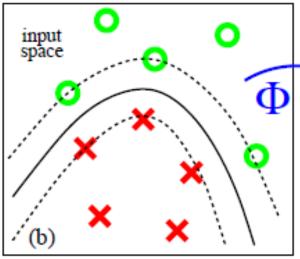
Extension to Non-linear Decision Boundary

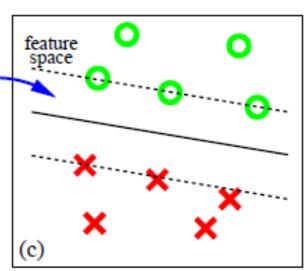
- So far, we have only considered large-margin classifier with a linear decision boundary
- How to generalize it to become nonlinear?
- Key idea: transform x_i to a higher dimensional space to "make life easier"
 - Input space: the space the point \mathbf{x}_i are located
 - Feature space: the space of $\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ after transformation
- Why transform?
 - Linear operation in the feature space is equivalent to non-linear operation in input space
 - Classification can become easier with a proper transformation. In the XOR problem, for example, adding a new feature of x_1x_2 make the problem linearly separable



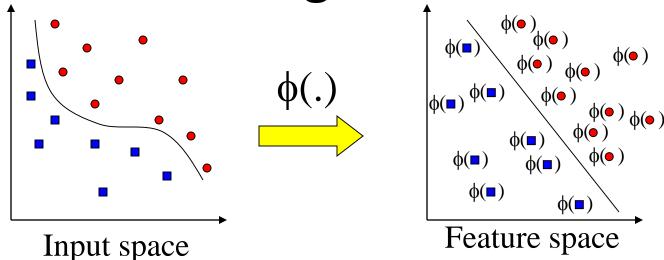
Find a feature space







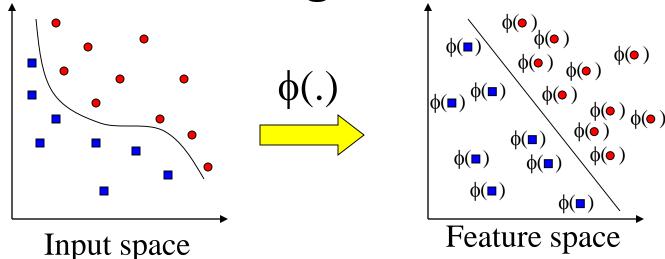
Transforming the Data



Note: feature space is of higher dimension than the input space in practice

- Computation in the feature space can be costly because it is high dimensional
 - The feature space is typically infinite-dimensional!
- The kernel trick comes to rescue

Transforming the Data



Note: feature space is of higher dimension than the input space in practice

- Computation in the feature space can be costly because it is high dimensional
 - The feature space is typically infinite-dimensional!
- The kernel trick comes to rescue

The Kernel Trick

• Recall max.
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
 subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$

- The data points only appear as inner product
- As long as we can calculate the inner product in the feature space, we do not need the mapping explicitly
- Many common geometric operations (angles, distances) can be expressed by inner products
- Define the kernel function K by

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

An Example for $\phi(.)$ and K(.,.)

• Suppose $\phi(.)$ is given as follows

$$\phi(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}) = (1, \sqrt{2}x_1, \sqrt{2}x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2)$$

An inner product in the feature space is

$$\langle \phi(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}), \phi(\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}) \rangle = (1 + x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)^2$$

• So, if we define the kernel function as follows, there is no need to carry out $\phi(.)$ explicitly

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (1 + x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)^2$$

• This use of kernel function to avoid carrying out $\phi(.)$ explicitly is known as the kernel trick

Kernels

- Given a mapping: $x \rightarrow \varphi(x)$
- a kernel is represented as the inner product

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \to \sum_{i} \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) \varphi_i(\mathbf{y})$$

A kernel must satisfy the Mercer's condition:

$$\forall g(\mathbf{x}) \text{ such that } \int g^2(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \ge 0 \Rightarrow \int K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) g(\mathbf{x}) g(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y} \ge 0$$

Modification Due to Kernel Function

- Change all inner products to kernel functions
- For training,

max.
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\substack{i=1,j=1}}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$
 subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, \sum_{\substack{i=1}}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

With kernel function
$$\max_{i=1}^{m} W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$
 subject to $C \geq \alpha_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$

Modification Due to Kernel Function

 For testing, the new data z is classified as class 1 if $f \ge 0$, and as class 2 if f < 0

Original

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}$$
$$f = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z} + b = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \mathbf{x}_{t_j}^T \mathbf{z} + b$$

With kernel w =
$$\sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{t_j})$$

function $f = \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{z}) \rangle + b = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \alpha_{t_j} y_{t_j} K(\mathbf{x}_{t_j}, \mathbf{z}) + b$

More on Kernel Functions

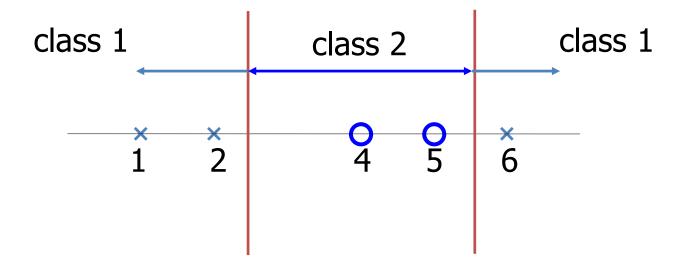
- Since the training of SVM only requires the value of $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$, there is no restriction of the form of \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_j
 - $-\mathbf{x}_{i}$ can be a sequence or a tree, instead of a feature vector
- $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ is just a similarity measure comparing \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_j
- For a test object z, the discriminant function essentially is a weighted sum of the similarity between z and a pre-selected set of objects (the support vectors)

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{S}} \alpha_i y_i K(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}_i) + b$$

 \mathcal{S} : the set of support vectors

Example

- Suppose we have 5 1D data points
 - x_1 =1, x_2 =2, x_3 =4, x_4 =5, x_5 =6, with 1, 2, 6 as class 1 and 4, 5 as class 2 \Rightarrow y_1 =1, y_2 =1, y_3 =-1, y_4 =-1, y_5 =1



- We use the polynomial kernel of degree 2
 - $-K(x,y)=(xy+1)^2$
 - C is set to 100

• vmax.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{5} \sum_{j=1}^{5} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j (x_i x_j + 1)^2$$

subject to
$$100 \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=1}^5 \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

- By using a QP solver, we get
 - $-\alpha_1=0, \alpha_2=2.5, \alpha_3=0, \alpha_4=7.333, \alpha_5=4.833$
 - Note that the constraints are indeed satisfied
 - The support vectors are $\{x_2=2, x_4=5, x_5=6\}$
- The discriminant function is

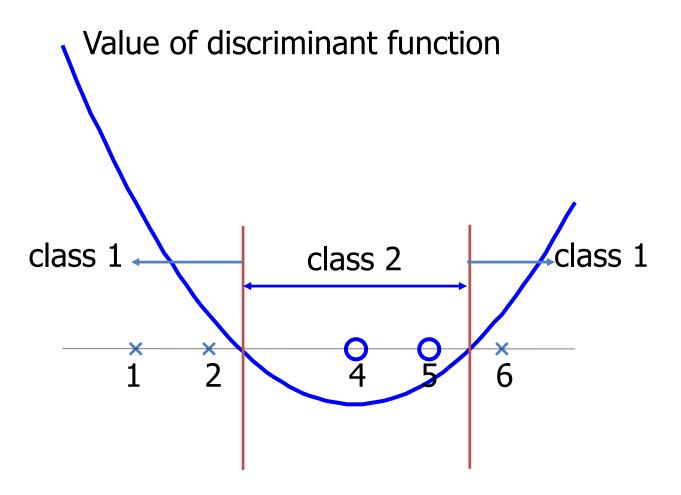
$$f(z)$$

$$= 2.5(1)(2z+1)^{2} + 7.333(-1)(5z+1)^{2} + 4.833(1)(6z+1)^{2} + b$$

$$= 0.6667z^{2} - 5.333z + b$$

- All three give b=9

$$f(z) = 0.6667z^2 - 5.333z + 9$$



Kernel Functions

- In practical use of SVM, the user specifies the kernel function; the transformation $\phi(.)$ is not explicitly stated
- Given a kernel function $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$, the transformation $\phi(.)$ is given by its eigenfunctions (a concept in functional analysis)
 - Eigenfunctions can be difficult to construct explicitly
 - This is why people only specify the kernel function without worrying about the exact transformation
- Another view: kernel function, being an inner product, is really a similarity measure between the objects

A kernel is associated to a transformation

– Given a kernel, in principle it should be recovered the transformation in the feature space that originates it.

$$-K(x,y) = (xy+1)^2 = x^2y^2 + 2xy + 1$$

It corresponds the transformation

$$x \to \begin{pmatrix} x^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Examples of Kernel Functions

Polynomial kernel up to degree d

$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^d$$

Polynomial kernel up to degree d

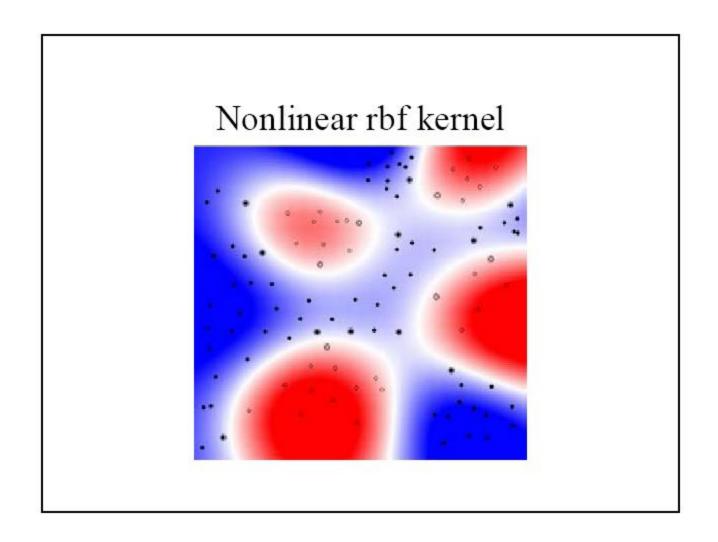
$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} + 1)^d$$

• Radial basis function kernel with width σ

$$K(x, y) = \exp(-||x - y||^2/(2\sigma^2))$$

- The feature space is infinite-dimensional
- Sigmoid with parameter κ and θ

$$-\operatorname{It}\operatorname{d}_{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})=\operatorname{tanh}(\kappa\mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{y}+\theta)^{\mathsf{n}}$$
 on all κ and θ



Building new kernels

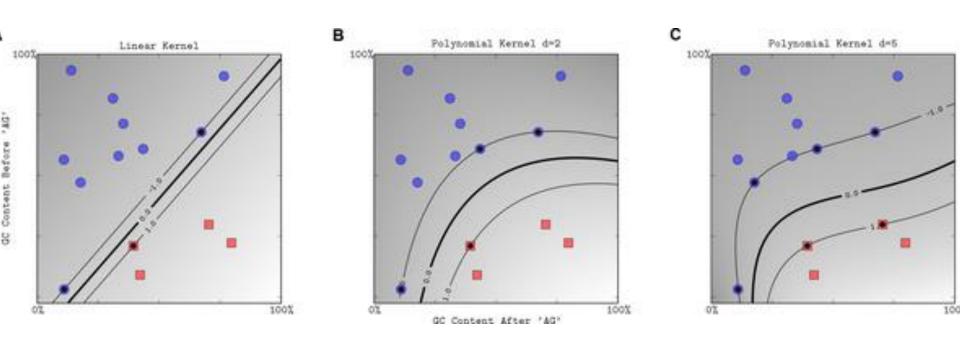
- If k₁(x,y) and k₂(x,y) are two valid kernels then the following kernels are valid
 - Linear Combination $k(x, y) = c_1 k_1(x, y) + c_2 k_2(x, y)$
 - Exponential $k(x, y) = \exp[k_1(x, y)]$
 - Product $k(x, y) = k_1(x, y) \cdot k_2(x, y)$
 - Polymomial tranfsormation (Q: polymonial with non negative coeffients)

$$k(x, y) = Q[k_1(x, y)]$$

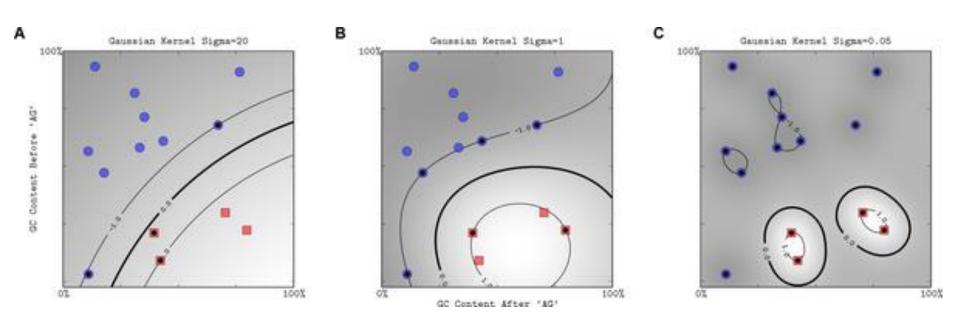
– Function product (f: any function)

$$k(x, y) = f(x)k_1(x, y)f(y)$$

Ploynomial kernel



Gaussian RBF kernel



Spectral kernel for sequences

 Given a DNA sequence x we can count the number of bases (4-D feature space)

$$\phi_1(x) = (n_A, n_C, n_G, n_T)$$

Or the number of dimers (16-D space)

$$\phi_2(x) = (n_{AA}, n_{AC}, n_{AG}, n_{AT}, n_{CA}, n_{CC}, n_{CG}, n_{CT}, ...)$$

- Or I-mers (4^I –D space)
- The spectral kernel is $k_I(x, y) = \phi_I(x) \cdot \phi_I(y)$

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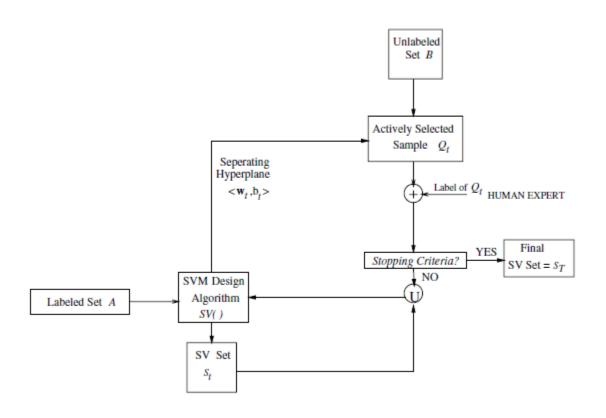
Choosing the Kernel Function

- Probably the most tricky part of using SVM.
- The kernel function is important because it creates the kernel matrix, which summarizes all the data
- Many principles have been proposed (diffusion kernel, Fisher kernel, string kernel, ...)
- There is even research to estimate the kernel matrix from available information
- In practice, a low degree polynomial kernel or RBF kernel with a reasonable width is a good initial try
- Note that SVM with RBF kernel is closely related to RBF neural networks, with the centers of the radial basis functions automatically chosen for SVM

Other Aspects of SVM

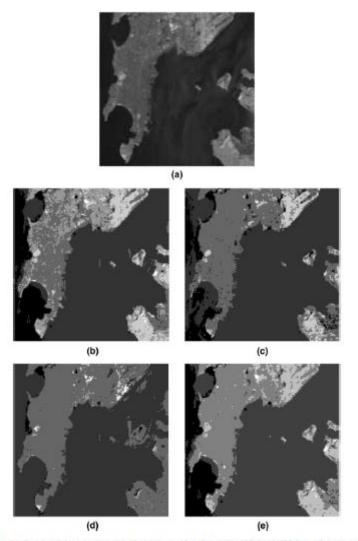
- How to use SVM for multi-class classification?
 - One can change the QP formulation to become multi-class
 - More often, multiple binary classifiers are combined
 - See DHS 5.2.2 for some discussion
 - One can train multiple one-versus-all classifiers, or combine multiple pairwise classifiers "intelligently"
- How to interpret the SVM discriminant function value as probability?
 - By performing logistic regression on the SVM output of a set of data (validation set) that is not used for training
- Some SVM software (like libsvm) have these features built-in

Active Support Vector Learning



P. Mitra, B. Uma Shankar and S. K. Pal, Segmentation of multispectral remote sensing Images using active support vector machines, Pattern Recognition Letters, 2004.

Supervised Classification



IRS-1A: (a) original band four image; classified image using (b) active SVM, (c) SVM 1, (d) k-means, and (e) SVM 2.

Software

- A list of SVM implementation can be found at http://www.kernelmachines.org/software.html
- Some implementation (such as LIBSVM) can handle multi-class classification
- SVMLight is among one of the earliest implementation of SVM
- Several Matlab toolboxes for SVM are also available

Summary: Steps for Classification

- Prepare the pattern matrix
- Select the kernel function to use
- Select the parameter of the kernel function and the value of C
 - You can use the values suggested by the SVM software, or you can set apart a validation set to determine the values of the parameter
- Execute the training algorithm and obtain the $\alpha_{\rm i}$
- Unseen data can be classified using the α_{i} and the support vectors

Strengths and Weaknesses of SVM

Strengths

- Training is relatively easy
 - No local optimal, unlike in neural networks
- It scales relatively well to high dimensional data
- Tradeoff between classifier complexity and error can be controlled explicitly
- Non-traditional data like strings and trees can be used as input to SVM, instead of feature vectors

Weaknesses

Need to choose a "good" kernel function.

Conclusion

- SVM is a useful alternative to neural networks
- Two key concepts of SVM: maximize the margin and the kernel trick
- Many SVM implementations are available on the web for you to try on your data set!

Resources

- http://www.kernel-machines.org/
- http://www.support-vector.net/
- http://www.support-vector.net/icmltutorial.pdf
- http://www.kernelmachines.org/papers/tutorial-nips.ps.gz
- http://www.clopinet.com/isabelle/Projects/SV M/applist.html