

1 Detection to water quality for Yangtze River using a
2 machine learning method

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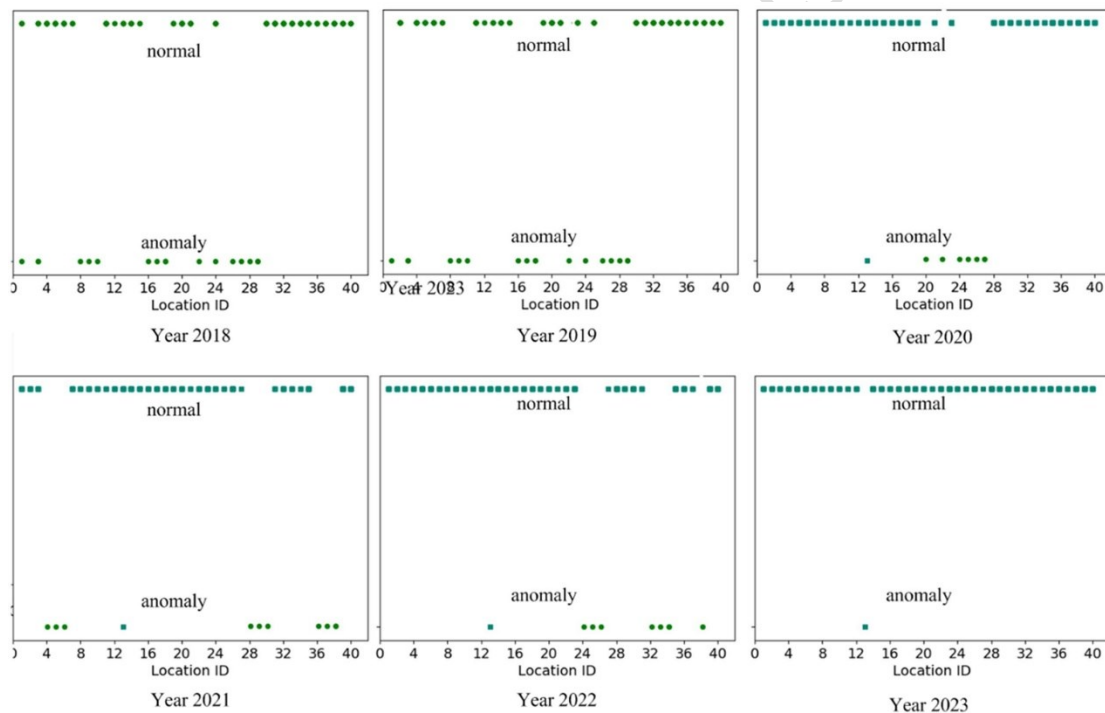
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9

10 **Graphical Abstract**



11

12 **Abstract.**

13 The Yangtze River, the longest river in China and one of the most important water resources in the
14 world, has been facing significant challenges regarding water pollution in recent years. The issue of water
15 quality safety is related to the national economy and people's livelihood. Water pollution incidents not
16 only damage the local water environment, but also seriously affect the drinking water safety of residents.
17 Traditional chemical methods and other water quality anomaly detection methods are often time-
18 consuming and may cause secondary pollution. This paper proposed a machine learning method used for
19 detecting abnormalities of water quality in the Yangtze River, to provide technical support for ensuring

20 water quality safety. The principle is that using the designed support vector machine separates anomalies
21 and normal values, by doing so, anomalies can be mined. Since there are certain differences between the
22 density of normal data and that of anomalous data, estimating the data density of both can assist promote
23 the ability of the support vector machine to mine anomalies. Then, the probability of water quality
24 anomalies is determined by analyzing the characteristics such as the density of outliers in the sequence.
25 Finally, using the collected the data of water quality from forty different regions of the Yangtze River
26 since 2018 to 2023 as the experimental dataset, and experimental results show that the proposed method
27 can effectively detect the anomaly of water quality of Yangtze River.

28 Keywords: anomalous detection, water quality

37 1 Introduction

38 Water pollution has become a global issue affecting human beings, plants, and animals. The rapid
39 industrialization and urbanization processes have led to an increased discharge of pollutants into rivers,
40 causing severe damage to ecosystems and threatening public health. The Yangtze River, as a major water
41 source for millions of people, is no exception. As the largest river in China, the water quality of the
42 Yangtze River directly affects the daily life and production activities of coastal residents. With the
43 acceleration of industrialization and urbanization, the problem of water pollution in the Yangtze River is
44 becoming increasingly serious.

45 To ensure the safety of the water supply, various methods are employed to detect abnormalities in
46 the Yangtze River's water quality. Such as regular monitoring [1], i.e., government agencies and research
47 institutions conduct routine inspections and sampling analyses to assess the water quality. These
48 parameters such as pH, dissolved oxygen, turbidity, and heavy metal concentrations are closely
49 monitored to detect any anomalies [2]. And modern techniques [3][4], such as remote sensing and online
50 monitoring systems, are increasingly being employed to monitor water quality in real-time. These
51 systems provide instant alerts when abnormal conditions are detected, allowing for swift intervention. In
52 addition, local communities living along the Yangtze River also play a crucial role in detecting water
53 quality abnormalities. They can report unusual phenomena, such as discoloration or unusual odors, to
54 authorities, who can then take appropriate action. Therefore, conducting research on abnormal detection
55 of water quality in the Yangtze River has important practical significance.

56 **Contributions.** The main contributions of this paper are summarized.

57 (1) We propose a support vector machine with the data density estimate, which has less dependence
58 on data dimensionality. The proposed method not only suffers from less negative effects caused by data
59 dimensionality, but also effectively detects the anomalies quality.

60 (2) The execution time of the proposed method is not exponentially impacted by data volume or by
61 data dimensionalities, therefore, we demonstrate that it can be suitable for anomalous detection of large
62 volume water quality.

63 **Motivations.** To detect water quality for Yangtze River, we designed a new form of support vector
64 machine model using density estimate and to propose a novel anomaly detection approach based on the
65 proposed model. To accurately detect anomalous section of pollute water, we used the proposed model
66 find the monitor equipment to observe the pollute water region. Then, using the found monitor equipment
67 to detect corresponding anomalous section of pollute water. By doing so, the water quality for Yangtze
68 River can be accurately detected.

69 This paper is arranged as follows. Section 2 reviews the related work. Section 3 systematically
70 describes the proposed method and the corresponding model. Experimental details and results are
71 illustrated in Section 4. Section 5 draws a conclusion and directs future work.

72 **2. Related work**

73 There exists a rich literature on devising anomalous detection approaches, given that existed
74 literature, we focused on investigating existing works that are mostly related to ours, i.e., support vector
75 machine architectures-based detection approaches, which are regarded as the classification of normal
76 data and anomalous data. Those detection approaches based on support vector machine (SVM)
77 architectures are accustomed to utilize historical data (i.e., training data) to train the detectors and then
78 verify new collections (i.e., testing data) by using the trained detectors [5]. In fact, SVM's approaches
79 are a shallow-architecture approach (compared to deep learning approaches), therefore, in anomalous
80 detection, scholars usually tend to optimize them or combine them with deep learning approaches, thus
81 improving the results of anomalous detection. For instance, Ruff et al. [6] proposed a deep support vector
82 data description (Deep SVDD) model, and the Deep SVDD employed by the [7], which of both obtain
83 superior detection results. However, they need to solve a quadratic programming problem. And the
84 sphere-based one-class support vector machine (S-OC-SVM) proposed by Andrews [8] et al. The [9]
85 proposed a one class-support vector machine (OC-SVM) method for anomalous detection, which is
86 capability to obtain an optimal decision model for the support vector data description, and to avoid under-
87 fitting and over-fitting to a certain extent. Similarly, the [10] designed a quarter-sphere one-class support
88 vector machine (Q-S-OC-SVM) method, which converts the quadratic programming problem into a
89 linear programming problem. Although the detected efficiency of Q-S-OC-SVM is significantly
90 augmented, it has to be retrained once a new testing data is coming. Additionally, also including the OC-
91 SVM in [11] and in [12], which of them obtain advanced detection results. Unlike the models in [8-12],
92 to solve a quadratic programming problem, Deng et al. [13] employed a one-class support Tucker
93 machine to mine the anomalies in high dimensional environments, and experimental results show that it
94 has good adaptability to high dimensional spaces.

95 The detected performance of those methods using SVM architectures is easily impacted by support
96 vector machines. The shallow patterns possessed by support vector machines is likely to fail to capture
97 those dependency relations between multiple variables [14]. To make up the disadvantage, Huang et al.
98 [15] proposed a Least-Squares Support Vector Machine (L-S-SVM) model. Through utilizing the least
99 squares, the detected performance of the support vector machine is significant promoted. Consequently,
100 indeed, the above ideas indicate that introducing new forms (such as least squares, or one-class) can
101 assist support vector machines. In addition to support vector machine methods, hypersphere methods are

102 also used for anomalous detection, such as the hypersphere methods implemented in [16-18], whose
 103 ascendency does not have to perform matrix inverse operations.

104 3. Methodology

105 This section describes the thought of the method and the implement of the corresponding model.
 106 Given a sample $x = \{x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots\}$, $i \geq 1$, to simplify, assuming that sample x does not noise and irrelevant
 107 attributes, the support vector machine is formally described as follows

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \min \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j) - \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j \\
 & \text{s.t. } \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\
 & \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, \\
 & \quad 0 \leq \alpha_i, \alpha_j
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

109 Where α_i, α_j is Lagrange multiplier. N is the number of x . $y_i, y_j \in \{0, +1\}$, where 0 is an anomalous
 110 label, and +1 is a normal label. According to Eq. (1), we can obtain the classification decision function,
 111 as follows

$$\begin{cases}
 f(x) = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^* y_i K(x, x_i) + b^* \right) \\
 b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^* y_i K(x_i, x_j)
 \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

113 $\alpha_i^* > 0$ is a component of α_i . K is a kernel function.

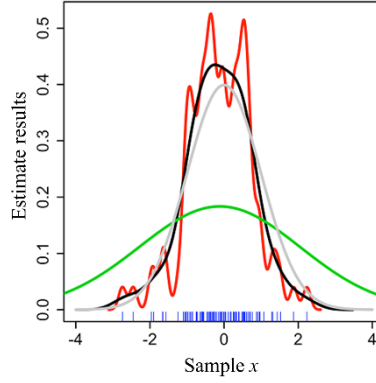
114 The classification ability of support vector machine relies on classification decision function $f(x)$.
 115 For kernel K in $f(x)$, here, we use density estimate to fulfil it, which is a non-parametric method for
 116 estimating probability density functions. As follows

$$K(\cdot) = \frac{1}{NB} \sum_{i=1}^N \kappa \left(\frac{x - x_i}{B} \right) \tag{3}$$

118 Where κ is a kernel. $0 < B$ is a smoothing parameter, also called bandwidth. For the kernel κ , we chose
 119 Gaussian kernel, having that

$$\kappa(x, x_i) = \exp \left(- \frac{\|x - x_i\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \tag{4}$$

121 σ^2 is variance of x . Additionally, we need to think about bandwidth B in Eq. (3). The estimation results
 122 of kernel functions vary greatly under different bandwidths, as shown in Fig.1. It can be seen that when
 123 the bandwidth is not fixed, its variation depends on the estimated position (balloon estimator) or sample
 124 point (pointwise estimator), which can generate an adaptive estimation. Given that, we used a certain
 125 range to tune bandwidth values according to the scale of the input sample.



126

127 Fig.1 Density estimate with different bandwidths. We generated a random sample of 100 points from a
 128 standard normal distribution. Grey curve is true density (standard normal). Red curve is density estimate
 129 with bandwidth $B=0.05$. Black curve is density estimate with bandwidth $B=0.337$. Green curve is density
 130 estimate with bandwidth $B=2$.

131 Algorithm 1 is the corresponding algorithm of the proposed method. In algorithm 1, the input and
 132 output are dataset x , testing accuracy and predicted labels, respectively. Step 1 initializes model's
 133 parameters, and Step 2 fulfils the division of training set and testing set. The model is trained in the
 134 procedure between Step 3 and Step 16. For each point in training set x_{train} , we use decision function $f(x)$
 135 in Eq. (2) and the density estimate in Eq. (3) to judge them, as shown in the procedure between Step 4
 136 and Step 7. If the point falls inside the hyper plane learned by the support vector machine (SVM), it is
 137 regarded as a normal point and is assigned a normal label +1. Otherwise, the point is considered as an
 138 abnormal point and is assigned an abnormal label 0, illustrate in Step 8 to Step 11. The training is
 139 terminated until all points in training set x_{train} are determined, and then we save the training accuracy and
 140 the trained model $SVM-DE(x_{train})$, as shown in Step 12 to Step 16. Thereafter, using testing set x_{test} to
 141 verify the trained model $SVM-DE(x_{train})$. Finally, the testing accuracy and predicted labels $\{+1, \dots, 0, \dots,$
 142 $+1, \dots, 0\}$ are outputted, illustrated in Step 17 to Step 22.

143 **Time complexity.** The time consumption of Algorithm 1 consists of the running time of SVM and
 144 the calculation time of data density. Assuming that the data volume and data dimension of input data are
 145 V and D , respectively. The running time $O(SVM)$ of SVM is equal to $O(V * D * \Pi)$, where item Π is the
 146 number of SVM. In Algorithm 1, there used a single SVM, therefore, $\Pi = 1$, and $O(SVM) = O(V * D)$. the
 147 calculation time $O(d)$ of data density is $O(V * D)$, i.e., $O(d) = O(V * D)$. The running time $O(n)$
 148 Algorithm 1 is $O(V * D) + O(V * D)$, that is, $O(n) = O(V * D)$.

149 Algorithm 1. SVM-DE.

Input: dataset x .

Output: testing accuracy, predicted labels $\{+1, \dots, 0, \dots, +1, \dots, 0\}$.

```

1   Initialization model's parameters;
2    $x$  is randomly divided into a training set  $x_{train}$  and a testing set  $x_{test}$ ;
3   Foreach  $x_i$  in  $x_{train}$ :
    /* training */
4       using decision function  $f(x)$  in Eq. (2) to calculate point  $x_i$ ;
5        $f(x_i) \leftarrow f(x) = \text{sign} \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^* y_i K(x, x_i) + b^* \right)$ ;

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6         using Eq. (3) to estimate the data density ;
7          $data\ density \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^N k(\frac{x-x_i}{B}) / NB$  ;
8         If point  $x_i$  falls inside the hyper plane of our SVM then :
9              $x_i$  is regarded as a normal point and is assigned a normal label +1 ;
10        Else:
11             $x_i$  is considered as an abnormal point and is assigned an abnormal label 0 ;
12        If training set  $x_{train}$  is an empty then :
13            /* all points are determined */
14            break ;
15        End Foreach
16        saving training accuracy;
17        saving the trained model  $SVM-DE(x_{train})$ ;
18        Foreach  $x_j$  in  $x_{train}$  : /* testing */
19            using  $SVM-DE(x_{train})$  to judge point  $x_j$  ;
20            predicting the label of point  $x_j$  ;
21        End Foreach
22        saving the testing accuracy ;
23        saving predicted labels  $\{+1, \dots, 0, \dots, +1, \dots, 0\}$  ;

```

150 4 Experiments and results analysis

151 4.1 Experimental settings

152 We used the monitoring equipment to collect water quality data on forty different regions of the
153 Yangtze River from 2018 to 2023 as the experimental dataset, illustrated in Table 1, with 70% used for
154 model training and the remaining 30% used for model validation. Additionally, Accuracy and F1-score
155 which are regarded as the evaluated metrics in anomalous detection are used to assess detected results.
156 As follows

$$157 \text{ Accuracy} = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+FP+TN+FN} \quad (5)$$

$$158 \text{ F1-score} = \frac{2TP}{2TP+FP+FN} \quad (6)$$

159 Where TP is that the model correctly predicts the number of in anomalous data. TN is that the model
160 correctly predicts the number of normal data. FP shows that the model predicts normal data as the number
161 of anomalous data. FN shows that the model predicts anomalous data as the number of normal data.

162 Apart from our model, we also chose the four detection models based on SVM architectures as
163 competitors, i.e., Deep SVDD [6], S-OC-SVM [8], OC-SVM [9] and L-S-SVM [15]. To obtain a fair
164 comparison, the comparative objects are selected based on the same design structures. We implemented
165 corresponding algorithms of the five models (our model and the four competitive models) using Python
166 on Tensorflow framework in Linux Operation System. To test the statistical significance of the difference
167 between them, the Wilcoxon-test was adopted. Additionally, average ranks of the five algorithms are
168 calculated by $(\sum_{i=1}^N r_i^j) / N$, where r_i^j is the ranking of j -th algorithm on i -th dataset.

169 Table 1 Details of the six datasets.

| # | Year | Number of monitoring indicators (data dimension) | Collect data volume | Number of monitoring equipment | Number of monitoring regions |
|----|------|---|---------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| W1 | 2018 | 310 | 6900000 | 690 | 40 |
| W2 | 2019 | 560 | 6100000 | 620 | 40 |
| W3 | 2020 | 280 | 5600000 | 590 | 40 |
| W4 | 2021 | 200 | 7300000 | 730 | 40 |
| W5 | 2022 | 170 | 4500000 | 470 | 40 |
| W6 | 2023 | 260 | 5400000 | 510 | 40 |

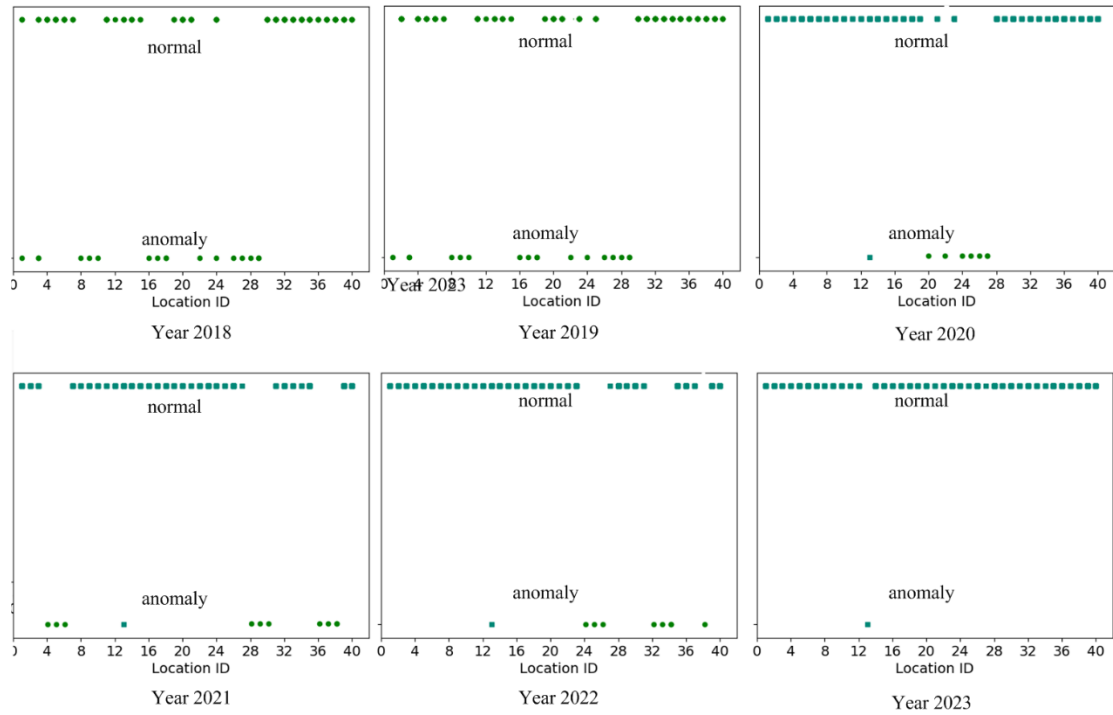
170 4.2 Result analysis

171 (I) Comparisons of detection performance

172 Detected results of on the six datasets are given in Table 2, showing that SVM-DE wins over the
173 four competitors on most datasets. In terms of the metric Accuracy, our SVM-DE obtains the best
174 performance on the four datasets W1-W2 and W4-W5. While for the metric F1-score, our SVM-DE also
175 defeats the four competitive models on the five datasets W1-W5. Fig. 2 displays the detected results of
176 our method on the forty regions.

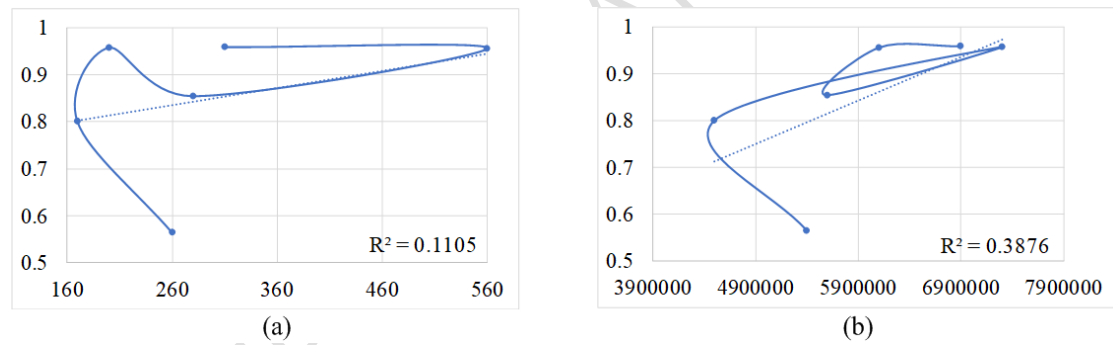
177 Average ranks of each algorithm are given in the first row in Table 2. Though observing and
178 analyzing, we find that SVM-DE obtaining the best average ranks is statistically better than the four
179 comparison algorithms at the 95% confidence level. Moreover, there are no differences between the five
180 algorithms for these detection results.

181 Fig. 3 unveils the relations among the detection ability of our SVM-DE, data volume and data
182 dimensionality. Through comparing Fig. 3 (a) with Fig. 3 (b), in terms of SVM-DE, it can be seen that
183 the correlation between the detection capabilities and data dimensionality are weaker than that between
184 the detection capabilities and data volume, where the former is 0.3324 and the latter is 0.6226 (weak
185 correlation). This also further indicates that SVM-DE has less dependence on data dimensionality in the
186 process of anomalous detection. In summary, that is why our model defeats the four competitive models.



187

188 Fig. 2 Detected results of our method on forty different regions.



189

190 Fig. 3 Correlations among detection ability, data volume and data dimensionality. (a) displays the
 191 correlations of detection ability and data dimensionality. (b) displays the correlations among detection
 192 ability and data volume.

193

194 Table 2. Average values of 10 cross-validation on the six datasets. Best results are highlighted in bold
 195 font. Average ranks are given in the first row. p -value is given in the last row, and the sign ‘*’ shows
 196 significant at $p=0.05$ level.

| Method | SVM-DE | Deep SVDD [6] | L-S-SVM [15] | S-OC-SVM [8] | OC-SVM [9] |
|---------------|------------------------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|------------|
| | metrics Accuracy, {F1-score} | | | | |
| Average ranks | 1.333 | 1.833 | 1.500 | 1.667 | 1.833 |

| | | | | | |
|----------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| W1 | 0.958, [0.979] | 0.899, [0.912] | 0.902, [0.901] | 0.900, [0.921] | 0.878, [0.918] |
| W2 | 0.955, [0.977] | 0.942, [0.953] | 0.909, [0.945] | 0.932, [0.927] | 0.911, [0.877] |
| W3 | 0.854, [0.921] | 0.901 , [0.906] | 0.887, [0.913] | 0.827, [0.823] | 0.901 , [0.905] |
| W4 | 0.957, [0.978] | 0.912, [0.907] | 0.888, [0.955] | 0.933, [0.919] | 0.900, [0.802] |
| W5 | 0.800, [0.889] | 0.771, [0.806] | 0.797, [0.883] | 0.727, [0.803] | 0.701, [0.855] |
| W6 | 0.565, [0.722] | 0.777, [0.799] | 0.807 , [0.779] | 0.801, [0.863] | 0.711, [0.835] |
| $p=0.05$ | * | * | * | * | * |

197 Table 3. Average time (second) of 10 cross-validation on the six datasets. Best efficiency is highlighted
198 in bold font.

| # | SVM-DE | Deep SVDD [6] | OC-SVM [9] | L-S-SVM [15] | S-OC-SVM [8] |
|----|--------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| W1 | 1.539 | 5.119 | 7.721 | 4.369 | 9.420 |
| W2 | 473.547 | 81.662 | 80.889 | 82.889 | 117.818 |
| W3 | 2.084 | 3.658 | 1.658 | 3.074 | 5.772 |
| W4 | 0.125 | 1.505 | 0.788 | 1.103 | 1.552 |
| W5 | 74.471 | 155.341 | 88.116 | 72.438 | 122.549 |
| W6 | 2.160 | 7.166 | 11.558 | 25.769 | 14.286 |

199 (II) Comparisons of efficiency

200 This section main discusses the running efficiency of our algorithm and the four comparison
201 algorithms. Here, we first analyzed the effects of data volume and data dimensionality on the running
202 efficiency of our algorithm. We find that data volume has more effects on the execution time than data
203 dimensionality does, of which the correlation for the former is 0.7076 (i.e., strong correlation) and that
204 for the latter is 0.0804 (weak correlation). Table 3 gives the execution time of the five algorithms,
205 showing that our algorithm wins the four competitive algorithms on part datasets. The execution time of
206 our algorithm is not exponentially increased as data volume augments. These mean that detection
207 efficiency of our algorithm is not exponentially impacted by data volume or data dimensionality. For our
208 algorithm, the density estimate of the data needs to spend time cost, especially on large-scale datasets,
209 hence, this is main consumption of our algorithm. As for the four competitive algorithms, the execution
210 time is related to the complexity of their architectures.

211 5. Conclusion

212 To detect the water quality of Yangtze River, this paper proposes a novel support vector machine
213 method with data density estimate. The critical thought is that we constructed a support vector machine
214 to separate anomalous data and normal data, thus fulfilling anomalous detection. To accurately detect
215 anomalous data, through estimating the data density, the support vector machine obtains the advanced
216 detection results. Since the density between normal data and anomalous data shows certain differences,
217 estimating data density is effectively in anomalous detection. Experimental results show that the
218 proposed method defeats the competitors in detection accuracy of water quality. Results also indicate
219 that the detection efficiency of the proposed method is not exponentially impacted by data volume or
220 data dimensionality, which means that it is suitable for anomalous detection of large volume water quality.
221 In future work, we will explore more intelligent detect methods used for anomalous detection to water
222 quality.

223 **Contributions**

224 Jingyi Li proposed the method and wrote the paper. Shiwei Chao and Xu Zhang performed the
225 source codes. Jingyi Li, Shiwei Chao and Xu Zhang designed the experiments and analyzed the results.

226 **Declaration**

227 There are no conflict interests of the authors.

228 **Data availability**

229 The data can be allowed be used.

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