



pin-TSVM: A Robust Transductive Support Vector Machine and its Application to the Detection of COVID-19 Infected Patients

Manisha Singla¹ · Debdas Ghosh²  · K. K. Shukla¹

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Abstract

Training a machine learning model on the data sets with missing labels is a challenging task. Not all models can handle the problem of missing labels. However, if these data sets are further corrupted with label noise, it becomes even more challenging to train a machine learning model on such data sets. We propose to use a transductive support vector machine (TSVM) for semi-supervised learning in this situation. We make this model robust to label noise by using a truncated pinball loss function with it. We name our approach, $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM. We provide both the primal and the dual formulations of the obtained robust TSVM for linear and non-linear kernels. We also perform experiments on synthetic and real-world data sets to prove the superior robustness of our model as compared to the existing approaches. To this end, we use small as well as large-scale data sets to perform the experiments. We show that the model is capable of training in the presence of $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM to detect the coronavirus patients based on their chest X-ray images.

Keywords Transductive support vector machine · Truncated pinball loss function · Robust statistics · VGG-19 · COVID-19 · Semi-supervised learning

The codes and data for the implementation is available at <https://github.com/manisha1427/Truncpin-TSVM>. For any clarification on implementation, readers are requested to contact the first author (M. Singla).

✉ Debdas Ghosh
debdas.mat@iitbhu.ac.in

Manisha Singla
manishasigla.rs.cse17@iitbhu.ac.in

K. K. Shukla
kkshukla.cse@iitbhu.ac.in

¹ Computer Science and Engineering Department, Indian Institute of Technology (Banaras Hindu University), Varanasi, Uttar Pradesh 221005, India

² Department of Mathematical Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology (Banaras Hindu University), Varanasi, Uttar Pradesh 221005, India

1 Introduction

Support Vector Machine (SVM)[39] covers a considerable part of machine learning literature. It is one of the most well-performing models in the family of supervised machine learning models. Due to this, researchers applied SVM in various application areas, like bioinformatics [8], medical sciences [17], time-series prediction [32], image classification [11] and signal processing [33], etc.

Besides the pros, several cons also come under the description of SVM. Sensitivity towards noise is one of them [35,36]. Time to time researchers have proposed several variants of SVM, like transductive support vector machine (TSVM) [40], twin SVM (TWSVM) [20], one-class SVM (OCSVM) [15], etc. The limitation of sensitivity towards noise is inherited in these variants too as these variants also use the conventional hinge loss function, which is sensitive to noise and outliers [35]. Many research works in the literature of SVM focus on overcoming the limitation of noise sensitivity. In addition to SVM, there are many works to deal with the sensitivity issue in the classification and regression variants of SVM [37]. This is best described in [35].

In all the above-discussed works, it is assumed that all the class labels are available during the training of a model, i.e., they come under supervised machine learning. The assignment of labels during data set creation is one of the costly and error-prone tasks. Therefore, in practice, we often come across data sets with missing labels. Training the models over such data sets comes under the category of semi-supervised learning. Transductive support vector machine (TSVM) is a semi-supervised variant of SVM [40]. It was first proposed in [41] and implemented in [6]. There are various applications in which TSVM is used for learning purposes when there are some unlabeled data samples. The survey article [14] best describes the rich literature of TSVM.

Similar to SVM, TSVM is also sensitive to the label noise. This is due to the presence of a noise-sensitive loss function, e.g., the hinge loss function. The novelty of the present study lies in the fact that we propose to use the truncated pinball loss function with TSVM and solve the corresponding optimization problem by implementing both the primal and dual forms.

Next, in Subsect. 1.1, we describe the conventional TSVM and the existing robust TSVMs. Robust TSVM handles noise sensitivity. In Subsect. 1.2, we mention the motivation behind this work and describe main contributions of this work.

1.1 A Brief Introduction of TSVM

For a set $\mathcal{L} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_L, y_L)\}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $y \in \{+1, -1\}$ of L labeled training instances and U unlabeled instances $\mathcal{U} = \{x_{L+1}, \dots, x_{L+U}\}$, we need to find an optimal separating hyperplane defined by $\theta = (w, b)$, where w is the weight vector and b is the bias term. The decision function of the form

$$f_{\theta}(x) = w^T \phi(x) + b \quad (1)$$

is used to label new samples, where the kernel function, ϕ , maps the original data into a higher dimensional feature space.

We train SVM using \mathcal{L} and the trained SVM provides the best separating hyperplane with the largest possible margin. It then assign the labels to the U unlabeled instances of the set \mathcal{U} . TSVM is a combinatorial classifier of SVM and a constraint that the unlabeled samples should be as far as possible from the margin [41]. The optimization formulation

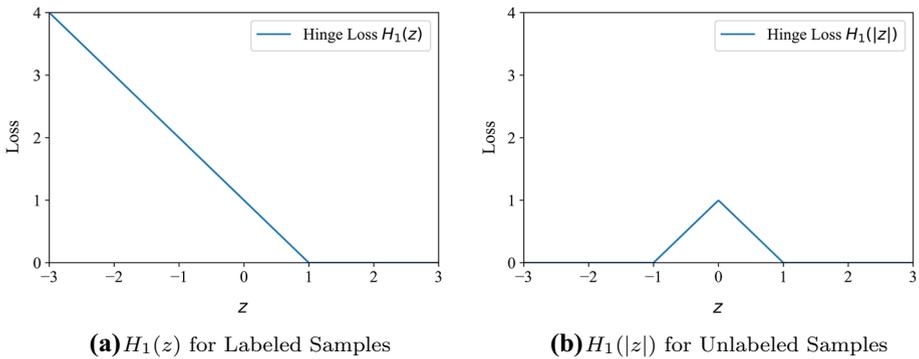


Fig. 1 Hinge loss function

corresponding to this combinatorial problem is

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \arg \min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L \xi_i + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} \xi_i \\
 & \text{subject to } y_i(f_\theta(x_i)) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, L, \\
 & \quad |f_\theta(x_i)| \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = L + 1, \dots, L + U,
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where C and C^* are the weight controlling parameters corresponding to the labeled and unlabeled instances. The minimization problem (2) can be written as an unconstrained optimization problem of the form [6]

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L H_1(y_i f_\theta(x_i)) + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} H_1(|f_\theta(x_i)|), \tag{3}$$

$H_1(z) = \max\{0, 1 - z\}$ is the hinge loss function [35], $z = yf_\theta(x)$. In TSVM, $H_1(z)$ is used for the labeled samples while $H_1(|z|)$ is used for the unlabeled samples. These are shown in Fig. 1.

The TSVM has the limitation of assigning all the unlabeled samples to one of the classes, leading to abysmal accuracy. To solve this problem, Chapelle and Zien [13] used a significant relaxed balancing constraint:

$$\frac{1}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} f_\theta(x_i) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i. \tag{4}$$

TSVM is used in many applications, like cancer classifications [26], classification of mammographic abnormalities [46], glaucoma classification [47], image retrieval [10], ship category recognition [27], etc.

Li et al. [23] proposed a robust TSVM for multi-view classification. They observed that the multi-view representation of data from a different perspective could effectively improve the generalization performance [23]. Training a model on huge data sets is a tedious task. Training on small labeled sets is also challenging since the model has insufficient learning instances. Xu et al. [44] proposed an improved version of TSVM that can learn a small labeled training set well and applied this to the motor imagery based brain-computer interface.

Table 1 Various TSVMs that are robust towards noise

S. No.	Reference	For labeled samples	For unlabeled samples
1	Semi-supervised SVM [41]	Hinge loss	Symmetric hinge loss
2	Transductive inference [19]	Hinge loss	Symmetric hinge loss
3	Semi-supervised classification by low density separation [13]	Hinge loss	Symmetric sigmoid loss
4	Large scale transductive SVM [16]	Hinge loss	Symmetric ramp loss
5	Large-scale robust transductive SVMs [9]	Ramp loss	Symmetric ramp loss

Besides these, there are also many formulations in which researchers added robustness to the conventional TSVM by changing the loss functions. These methods are tabulated in Table 1. This table mentions the loss function for labeled and unlabeled samples that are used by various researchers to make the TSVM robust to noise. These loss functions include the conventional hinge loss function, symmetric sigmoid loss function [24] and the ramp loss function [25].

A recent work on TSVM proposed to address its problem with Universum data [42]. In that work, Xiao et al. followed two steps: to select informative examples from the Universum data and to use that data for semi-supervised classification [42]. They used Lagrange method to solve it further. Another recent work on TSVM handled the problem of lack of sparsity in LapSVM [5]. To do this, Zheng et al. [49] used L_1 norm in LapSVM. The method performed well (in terms of accuracy) on UCI data sets. Recently, SSL is also extended to various applications like fault identification in electricity distribution networks [22], for intrusion detection system [30] and enhanced prediction of heart disease [38].

In this work, we focus on the following three challenges:

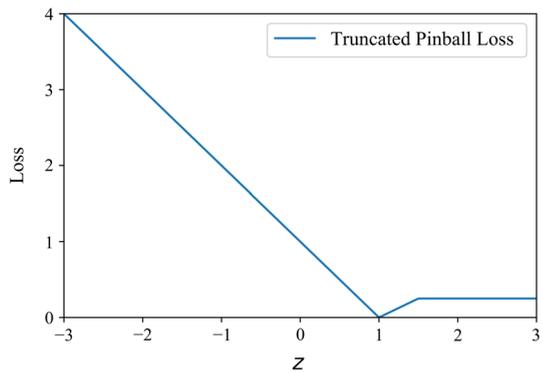
- (i) To train the model in the presence of a significant number of unlabeled data.
- (ii) To train the model to handle small as well as large data sets effectively.
- (iii) To train the model under the varied amount of label noise in the data.

1.2 Motivation and Contribution

The robust behavior of the pinball loss function [34] is the primary motivation behind this work. The use of pinball loss function in other variants of SVM, like TWSVM [43], also made the model robust towards label noise. Since the use of pinball loss function affects the sparsity of a classifier [34], we use the truncated pinball loss function in this work, which leads to less computational time (shown experimentally in Sect. 3). We list here the main contributions of this work:

- (i) We use the truncated pinball loss function in place of the conventional hinge loss in TSVM. This makes the model robust towards the label noise.
- (ii) The use of the truncated pinball loss function makes the model sparse, hence requiring fewer variables to contribute in the decision-making process of the model. This reduces the computational time of the model.
- (iii) We use the proposed model for the detection of disease caused by the coronavirus in a human body. To do this, we train the model on the chest X-ray images. The results

Fig. 2 Truncated pinball loss function with $\tau = s = 0.5$



(shown in Sect. 4) indicate that the model can be used to predict if a patient is infected by coronavirus or not.

In the next section, we describe the proposed robust TSVM with a truncated pinball loss function. In Sect. 3, we report the results of the experiments performed using the proposed approach and compare those with the existing approaches. Further, in Sect. 4, we show that the proposed approach can be used to predict the COVID-19 infected patients. Finally, we conclude the work in Sect. 5.

2 pin-TSVM: A Robust Transductive Support Vector Machine with Truncated Pinball Loss Function

In this section, we describe the robust TSVM formulation using truncated pinball loss function. The truncated pinball loss function is

$$P_{\tau,s}(z) = H_{1+\tau}(z) - (H_{\tau}(z + s) - \tau s) = \begin{cases} \tau s, & \text{if } z \geq 1 + s \\ -\tau(1 - z), & \text{if } 1 < z < 1 + s \\ 1 - z, & \text{if } z \leq 1 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where $0 \leq \tau \leq 1$. It is shown in Fig. 2. Please note that $s > 0$ is the hinge point [34].

In (3), we replace the hinge loss function by the truncated pinball loss function. Accordingly, $J(\theta)$ in (3) becomes

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L P_{\tau,s}(z) + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} P_{\tau,s}(z). \quad (6)$$

To avoid the poor classification of the unlabeled samples, we also use the same constraint as described earlier in (4). Now, putting in (6), we get

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L (H_{1+\tau}(y_i f_{\theta}(x_i)) - H_{\tau}(y_i f_{\theta}(x_i) + s) - \tau s) + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} (H_{1+\tau}(y_i f_{\theta}(x_i)) - H_{\tau}(y_i f_{\theta}(x_i) + s) - \tau s). \quad (7)$$

Now, we represent each unlabeled sample as two instances labeled with both positive and negative classes. This leads to the creation of new samples [9]

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_i &= +1, \quad i \in [L + 1, \dots, L + U], \\
 y_i &= -1, \quad i \in [L + U + 1, \dots, L + 2U], \\
 x_i &= x_{i-U}, \quad i \in [L + U + 1, \dots, L + 2U].
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8}$$

We can now split this function into convex ($J_{\text{convex}}(\theta)$) and concave ($J_{\text{concave}}(\theta)$) parts [34]:

$$J_{\text{convex}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L H_{1+\tau}(y_i f_\theta(x_i)) + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} H_{1+\tau}(y_i f_\theta(x_i)) \tag{9}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{and } J_{\text{concave}}(\theta) &= -C \sum_{i=1}^L H_\tau(y_i f_\theta(x_i) + s) + CL\tau s \\
 &\quad - C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} H_\tau(y_i f_\theta(x_i) + s) + C^*(2U)\tau s.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{10}$$

To perform the minimization of $J(\theta)$ with respect to $\theta = (w, b)$, we use the concave-convex procedure (CCCP) [45] as given by Algorithm 1. CCCP decomposes the non-convex function into a concave and a convex part. It uses an iterative procedure where in each iteration, concave part is approximated by its tangent [9]. In Algorithm 1, $J'(\theta)$ represents $\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$. The convergence of CCCP algorithm is given in [45].

Algorithm 1 The Concave-Convex Procedure (CCCP) [45]

Input: $J_{\text{concave}}(\theta)$ and $J_{\text{convex}}(\theta)$

- 1: Initialize θ^0 .
 - 2: **repeat**
 - 3: $\theta^{t+1} = \arg \min_{\theta} (J_{\text{convex}}(\theta) + J'_{\text{concave}}(\theta^t)\theta)$
 - 4: **until** the convergence of θ^t .
-

Next, we find the gradient of $J_{\text{concave}}(\theta)$ with respect to θ

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta_\theta J_{\text{concave}}(\theta) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} J_{\text{concave}}(\theta) = -C \sum_{i=1}^L \left(\frac{\partial H_\tau(\theta)}{\partial f_\theta(x_i)} \right) \left(\frac{\partial f_\theta(x_i)}{\partial \theta} \right) \\
 &\quad - C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \left(\frac{\partial H_\tau(\theta)}{\partial f_\theta(x_i)} \right) \left(\frac{\partial f_\theta(x_i)}{\partial \theta} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now, } \frac{\partial H_\tau(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \tau \cdot \frac{\partial f_\theta(x_i)}{\partial \theta} \cdot (-y_i).$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Therefore, } \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} J_{\text{concave}}(\theta) &= -C \sum_{i=1}^L \tau y_i \frac{\partial f_\theta(x_i)}{\partial \theta} - C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \tau y_i \frac{\partial f_\theta(x_i)}{\partial \theta} \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \frac{\partial f_\theta(x_i)}{\partial \theta},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{11}$$

where

$$-\beta_i = \begin{cases} C\tau, & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq L \\ C^*\tau, & \text{if } L + 1 \leq i \leq L + 2U. \end{cases} \tag{12}$$

Therefore, the problem (7) can now be stated [45] as the minimization of

$$\begin{aligned} & J_{\text{convex}}(\theta) + \frac{\partial J_{\text{concave}}(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \\ &= J_{\text{convex}}(\theta) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \frac{\partial f_{\theta}(x_i)}{\partial \theta} \right) \theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L H_{1+\tau}(y_i f_{\theta}(x_i)) + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} H_{1+\tau}(y_i f_{\theta}(x_i)) + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i f_{\theta}(x_i). \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

By introducing the slack variable, ξ in (13), we get our final minimization problem [34]

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\theta, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L \xi_i + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \xi_i + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i f_{\theta}(x_i) \\ & \text{subject to } y_i f_{\theta}(x_i) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{1+\tau} \xi_i, \quad \xi_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, L, \\ & \frac{1}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} f_{\theta}(x_i) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i. \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

We solve (14) by using the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) method [7] given in Algorithm 2. To implement (14) using SGD, we require data set, $D = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^{L+U}$ from which we get the value of L and U . We also input λ , the learning rate of SGD and ϵ , the tolerance value required in the convergence of Algorithm 2.

Since the CCCP algorithm converges fast [9] in maximum five iterations in our experiments, we consider $T = 5$ in all the algorithms. However, we also mention the convergence conditions in the algorithms (Step 12 in Algorithm 2, Step 13 in Algorithm 3 and Algorithm 4).

The time complexity of Algorithm 2 is mainly due to the Step 2 and the conventional steps of SGD (Step 8 and Step 9). Step 2 is executed using the *svmtrain()* (LIBSVM) which has a time complexity of $O(n^3)$ [12]. However, the time complexity of SGD is $O(\bar{d}/\lambda\epsilon)$ [9], where \bar{d} is used for the non-zero attributes of the data set, λ is the learning rate of SGD and ϵ is the tolerance value. Therefore, the overall time complexity of Algorithm 2 is $O(n^3) + O(\bar{d}/\lambda\epsilon)$, i.e. $O(n^3)$. We also implement pin-TSVM using the dual form of (14).

Algorithm 2 pin-TSVM with Stochastic Gradient Method to Get Optimal Weight Vector and Bias Term

Input: $D = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^{L+U}$;
 T is the maximum number of iterations;
 ϵ is the tolerance value;
 L is the number of labeled instances in the data set D ;
 U is the number of unlabeled instances in the data set D ;
 $\lambda_0 > 0$ is the learning rate of SGD;

Output: Optimal weight vector and bias term, w_t and b_t respectively.

- 1: Split the data set D into training set and test set.
- 2: Train SVM on training set and get w_0 and b_0 .
- 3: Initialize $t = 0$ and $\epsilon > 0$.
- 4: Compute β_i^0 for $i = 1, 2, \dots, (L + 2U)$ using (12).
- 5: **while** $t \leq T$ **do**
- 6: $\lambda_t \leftarrow \frac{\lambda_0}{t}$.
- 7: **for** $i \in \text{randperm}(L + 2U)$ **do**
- 8: Compute the sub-gradient of (13) w.r.t w and b

$$g_t = \begin{cases} -y_i(1 + \tau)C(C^*)x_i + \beta_i y_i x_i, & \text{if } y_i(w^T x_i + b) \leq 1, \\ \beta_i y_i x_i, & \text{if } y_i(w^T x_i + b) > 1 \end{cases}$$

and

$$h_t = \begin{cases} -y_i(1 + \tau)C(C^*) + \beta_i y_i, & \text{if } y_i(w^T x_i + b) \leq 1, \\ \beta_i y_i, & \text{if } y_i(w^T x_i + b) > 1. \end{cases}$$

- 9: Update parameters

$$\hat{w}_t \leftarrow w_t - \frac{\lambda_t}{L + 2U}(w_t + g_t)$$

and

$$\hat{b}_t \leftarrow b_t - \frac{\lambda_t}{L + 2U}h_t.$$

- 10: Set $w_t \leftarrow \hat{w}_t$ and $b_t \leftarrow \hat{b}_t$
- 11: **end for**
- 12: if $(t \geq 2)$ & $\|w_t - w_{t-1}\| \leq \epsilon$, break
- 13: Compute β_i^{t+1} using (12).
- 14: Set $t = t + 1$.
- 15: **end while**

To get the dual form of (14), we find the Lagrangian function

$$\begin{aligned} L(w, b, \xi, \alpha, \nu) = & \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^L \xi_i + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \xi_i \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i f_\theta(x_i) - \alpha_0 \left(\frac{1}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} f_\theta(x_i) - \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i \right) \\ & - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i \left(y_i(w^T x_i + b) - 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \tau} \xi_i \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \nu_i \xi_i, \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

where $\alpha_i, v_i \geq 0$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, (L + 2U)$. The necessary Karush-Kuhn Tucker (KKT) optimality conditions for (15) are

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = w + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \phi(x_i) - \frac{\alpha_0}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} \phi(x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i y_i \phi(x_i) = 0, \tag{16}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i + \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \tag{17}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \xi} = C - \frac{\alpha_i}{1 + \tau} - v_i = 0, \quad 1 \leq i \leq L, \tag{18}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \xi} = C^* - \frac{\alpha_i}{1 + \tau} - v_i = 0, \quad L + 1 \leq i \leq L + 2U. \tag{19}$$

For simplification, we define a new sample

$$\phi(x_0) = \frac{1}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} \phi(x_i), \quad y_0 = 1. \tag{20}$$

From (16), we get

$$\begin{aligned} w &= \frac{\alpha_0}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} \phi(x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i y_i \phi(x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \phi(x_i) \\ &= \alpha_0 \phi(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} y_i \phi(x_i) (\alpha_i - \beta_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{L+2U} y_i \phi(x_i) (\alpha_i - \beta_i), \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

where $\beta_0 = 0$ and $y_0 = 1$. On putting the value of (21) in (15), we get

$$\begin{aligned} L(b, \xi, \alpha, v) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{L+2U} y_i \phi(x_i) (\alpha_i - \beta_i) \right)^T \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j \phi(x_j) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \right) \\ &\quad + C \sum_{i=1}^L \xi_i + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \xi_i + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \left[\left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j \phi(x_j) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \right)^T \phi(x_i) + b \right] \\ &\quad - \alpha_0 \left(\frac{1}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+U} \left[\left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j \phi(x_j) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \right)^T \phi(x_i) + b \right] - \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i \right) \\ &\quad - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i \left(y_i \left[\left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j \phi(x_j) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \right)^T \phi(x_i) + b \right] - 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \tau} \xi_i \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} v_i \xi_i. \end{aligned}$$

On simplification,

$$L(b, \xi, \alpha, v) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=0}^{L+2U} y_i y_j (\alpha_i - \beta_i) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_j) \right) \phi(x_i) \\
 & + b \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i - \frac{\alpha_0}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_j) \right) \phi(x_i) - \frac{\alpha_0}{U} b \\
 & + \frac{\alpha_0}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i y_i \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j \phi(x_j) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \right) \phi(x_i) \\
 & - b \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \frac{\alpha_i}{1 + \tau} \xi_i - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} v_i \xi_i \\
 & + C \sum_{i=1}^L \xi_i + C^* \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \xi_i. \tag{22}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, adding and subtracting $\alpha_0 y_0 \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j \phi(x_j) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \right) \phi(x_0)$ from (22), we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 L(b, \xi, \alpha, v) = & - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=0}^{L+2U} y_i y_j (\alpha_i - \beta_i) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j) \\
 & + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_j) \phi(x_i) \right) + b \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \beta_i y_i \\
 & - \frac{\alpha_0}{U} \sum_{i=L+1}^{L+2U} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_j) \right) \phi(x_i) - \frac{\alpha_0}{U} b \\
 & + \frac{\alpha_0}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i - b \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i \\
 & + \alpha_0 y_0 \left(\sum_{j=0}^{L+2U} y_j (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_j) \right) \phi(x_0). \tag{23}
 \end{aligned}$$

Simplifying (23) using (18) and (20), we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 \min_{\alpha} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=0}^{L+2U} y_i y_j (\alpha_i - \beta_i) (\alpha_j - \beta_j) \phi(x_i)^T / \phi(x_j) \\
 & - \frac{\alpha_0}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i - \sum_{i=1}^{L+2U} \alpha_i \\
 \text{subject to} \quad & \sum_{i=0}^{L+2U} y_i (\alpha_i - \beta_i) = 0, \\
 & 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq (1 + \tau)C, \quad 1 \leq i \leq L, \\
 & 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq (1 + \tau)C^*, \quad L + 1 \leq i \leq L + 2U. \tag{24}
 \end{aligned}$$

Considering the kernel matrix, K such that $K_{ij} = \phi(x_i)^T / \phi(x_j)$ and $\hat{\alpha}_i = y_i(\alpha_i - \beta_i)$, we get the final dual problem as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\hat{\alpha}} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \hat{\alpha} K \hat{\alpha} - \gamma^T \hat{\alpha} \\ \text{subject to} \quad & 0 \leq y_i \hat{\alpha}_i \leq (1 + \tau)C, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, L \\ & -\beta_i \leq y_i \hat{\alpha}_i \leq (1 + \tau)C^* - \beta_i, \quad i = L + 1, L + 2, \dots, L + 2U, \\ & \sum_{i=0}^{L+2U} \hat{\alpha}_i = 0, \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

where $\gamma = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq L + 2U$ and $\gamma_0 = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i$. To solve (25), we follow Algorithm 3 to find the optimal weight vector and bias term. We then use the weight vector and the bias term to find the $\text{sign}(w^T x + b)$ in case of linear vector. In Algorithm 3, we first train the SVM using `svmtrain()` function using LIBSVM whose time complexity is $O(n^3)$, where n represents the number of instances in a data set [12], and then we use `mlcv_quadprog()` [9] to implement Step 7 in Algorithm 3, whose time complexity is again $O(n^3)$ [48]. Therefore, the overall time complexity of the Algorithm 3 is $O(n^3)$.

Similarly, we can also solve the dual optimization problem given in (25) using the non-linear kernels. The Algorithm 4 shows the steps to be followed for non-linear kernels.

Algorithm 3 pin-TSVM to get optimal weight vector and bias term (Linear Kernel)

Input: $D = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^{L+U}$;
 T is the maximum number of iterations;
 ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 are the tolerance values;
 L is the number of labeled instances of data set D ;
 U is the number of unlabeled instances of data set D ;

Output: Optimal weight vector and bias term, w_t and b_t respectively.

- 1: Split the data set D into training set and test set .
- 2: Train SVM on training set and get w_0 and b_0 .
- 3: Initialize $t = 0$ and $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 > 0$.
- 4: Compute β_t^0 using (12).
- 5: Set $\gamma_i = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq L + 2U$ and $\gamma_0 = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i$.
- 6: **while** $t \leq T$ **do**
- 7: Solve the convex optimization problem given by (25).
- 8: Compute w using

$$w = \sum_{i=0}^{L+2U} y_i(\alpha_i - \beta_i)x_i.$$

- 9: Set $w_{t+1} = w$.
- 10: Compute b using the following constraints;

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, L\}, 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C\tau \implies y_i(w^T x_i + b) = 1,$$

or

$$\forall i \in \{L + 1, \dots, L + 2U\}, 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C^*\tau \implies y_i(w^T x_i + b) = 1,$$

- 11: Set $b_{t+1} = b$.
 - 12: Compute β_t^{t+1} using (12).
 - 13: if $(t \geq 2)$ & $(\|w_{t+1} - w_t\| \leq \epsilon_1$ or $\|\beta^{t+1} - \beta^t\| \leq \epsilon_2)$, break
 - 14: Set $t = t + 1$.
 - 15: **end while**
-

Algorithm 4 $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM to get Accuracy using Non-linear Kernel

Input: $D = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^{L+U}$;
 T is the maximum number of iterations;
 ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 are the tolerance values;
 L is the number of labeled instances of data set D ;
 U is the number of unlabeled instances of data set D ;

Output: Accuracy

- 1: Split the data set D into training set and test set.
- 2: Choose a non-linear kernel.
- 3: Compute kernel matrix, K using the training features.
- 4: Train SVM on training set and get α_0, b_0 and support vectors, SV_{initial} .
- 5: Initialize $t = 0$.
- 6: Compute β_i^0 using (12).
- 7: Set $\gamma_i = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq L + 2U$ and $\gamma_0 = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L y_i$.
- 8: **while** $t \leq T$ **do**
- 9: Solve the convex optimization problem (25) using α_0, b_0 and SV_{initial} . Find $\hat{\alpha}$ and support vectors, S .
- 10: Compute b using the following constraints

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, L\}, 0 \leq \hat{\alpha}_i \leq C\tau \implies y_i(K * \hat{\alpha}_i + b) = 1,$$

or

$$\forall i \in \{L + 1, \dots, L + 2U\}, 0 \leq \hat{\alpha}_i \leq C^*\tau \implies y_i(K * \hat{\alpha}_i + b) = 1,$$

- 11: Set $b^{t+1} = b$ and $\hat{\alpha}^{t+1} = \hat{\alpha}$
- 12: Compute β_i^{t+1} using (12).
- 13: if $((t \geq 2) \ \& \ (\|\hat{\alpha}^{t+1} - \hat{\alpha}^t\| \leq \epsilon_1 \ \text{or} \ \|\beta^{t+1} - \beta^t\| \leq \epsilon_2))$, break
- 14: Set $t = t + 1$.
- 15: **end while**
- 16: Construct kernel matrix, K' using test features and support vectors, S .
- 17: Evaluate $y_{\text{pred}} = \text{sign}(\hat{\alpha}K' + b)$.
- 18: Compute Accuracy by $\text{length}(\text{find}(y_{\text{pred}} == \text{test label}))/\text{length}(\text{test label})$

It is noteworthy that the time complexity of both the algorithms, Algorithm 3 and Algorithm 4 is same as we use *mlcv_quadprog()* [9] to implement both the algorithms.

3 Numerical Experiments

In this section, we report the results obtained by $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM on various data sets. We also compare our model with the standard SVM, TSVM and TSVM with ramp loss function (Ramp-TSVM). Firstly, we evaluate the model performance on synthetic data sets. We generate the two-dimensional synthetic data set of 100 samples with 50 samples for both positive and negative classes. We add a different amount of label noise in this data set to test the performance of the proposed method against the existing TSVM methods. To add $k\%$ noise to the data set, we switch the $k\%$ labels of the labeled training data from -1 to $+1$ and vice-versa. We consider $k = 10, 15, 20$ and 25 to add label noise in the synthetic data set. These results are reported in Table 2.

In Table 2, the best accuracies are marked in bold. Note that we use the labeled set to train SVM since it is a supervised learning model. For the rest of the techniques, unlabeled test data is also used for training. It is noteworthy that for all the experiments, we use the weight adjusting parameters C and C^* from the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $\{0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5\}$,

Table 2 Comparison of various techniques on synthetic data set using linear kernel

Methods	Noise-free Data	10% Noise	15% Noise	20% Noise	25% Noise
SVM	94	88	83	85	49
TSVM	93	86	85	88	44
Ramp-TSVM	93	93	90	91	67
$\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM-SG	93	93	91	92	67
$\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM-dual	94	87	84	88	45

Bold marked entries in Table 2 represent the best accuracy in a row

Table 3 Small data sets used for experimentation purposes

S. No.	Data sets	Instances	Features	No. of classes	Class ratio
1	Sonar	208	61	2	3.00:1
2	Cleveland heart	303	14	2	0.83:1
3	Haberman	306	4	2	0.36:1
4	WDBC	568	32	2	0.59:1
5	Australian	690	15	2	0.80:1
6	Pima indians	738	9	2	0.74:1
7	CMC	1443	10	3	1.34:1
8	Spambase	4601	58	2	0.65:1

respectively. We perform cross-validation on 10% of the training data to optimally select the value of C and C^* . We observe that the proposed method, $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM-SG, shows better accuracy for most cases; however, the dual form of the proposed method lacks in terms of accuracy on this small synthetic data set. These experiments are performed on linear kernel. However, we provide the algorithms for both linear and non-linear kernels (see Algorithm 2, 3 and 4). Similar trends were observed with other kernels as well.

3.1 Experiments on Real-world Data Sets

In this subsection, we compare the performance of the existing TSVM techniques with the proposed technique on real-world data sets. We first report experiments on small real-world data sets and then we evaluate the techniques on large real-world data sets. Small real-world data sets are listed in Table 3.

- *Description of the Data Sets*

In Table 3, we arrange the data sets in the increasing order of instances. A short description of each data set is given as follows:

- **Sonar** [4]: To classify two types of sonar signals: one bounced off a roughly cylindrical rock and those sonar signals which bounced off a metal cylinder.
- **Cleveland Heart** [4]: To classify patients based on presence or absence of heart disease.
- **Haberman** [31]: Classification based on the survival status of patients (who died within 5 years or patients who survived 5 years or longer) who had undergone surgery for breast cancer.

Table 4 Comparison of various techniques with 0% noise in the real-world data sets

Data Sets	Results	SVM	T SVM	Ramp-T SVM	$\overline{\text{pin-T SVM-SG}}$	$\overline{\text{pin-T SVM-dual}}$
Sonar	Accuracy	71.28±2.92	76.75±3.61	73.40±3.50	74.47±4.21	78.72±3.14
	Precision	0.8481	0.8842	0.8241	0.8335	0.8706
	Recall	0.8561	0.8893	0.8734	0.8861	0.8916
	Time	1.36	1.84	41.61	7.12	2.13
Cleveland	Accuracy	81.39±2.74	82.11±2.17	83.01±3.72	82.35±2.95	83.09±2.14
	Precision	0.8760	0.8828	0.8760	0.8795	0.8829
	Recall	0.9117	0.9239	0.9317	0.9333	0.9339
	Time	0.45	1.29	37.09	8.71	1.06
Haberman	Accuracy	72.46±2.01	75.36±9.61	72.46±2.24	73.46±2.14	76.09±4.34
	Precision	0.7246	0.8320	0.7246	0.7291	0.8333
	Recall	1	0.8889	1	1	1
	Time	0.9837	0.7631	12.216	1.26	0.8609
WDBC	Accuracy	96.05±1.34	96.88±1.36	93.75±1.14	94.92±1.31	97.27±1.44
	Precision	0.9760	0.9802	0.9836	0.9878	0.9881
	Recall	0.9643	0.9880	0.9524	0.9605	0.9842
	Time	0.0050	0.0861	109.71	18.285	1.326
Australian	Accuracy	85.91±1.94	84.84±1.57	84.52±1.72	86.13±1.56	84.84±0.88
	Precision	0.8926	0.9007	0.9112	0.9082	0.9007
	Recall	0.9568	0.9359	0.9193	0.9435	0.9359
	Time	0.0210	3.5915	72.052	19.958	2.068
Pima Indians	Accuracy	77.90±1.36	77.18±1.76	76.59±2.28	78.61±2.05	78.32±1.83
	Precision	0.9017	0.9100	0.9332	0.9351	0.9400
	Recall	0.8317	0.8588	0.7958	0.8344	0.8576
	Time	0.0113	1.109	141.874	22.357	1.292

Table 4 continued

Data Sets	Results	SVM	TSVM	Ramp-TSVM	pin-TSVM-SG	pin-TSVM-dual
CMC	Accuracy	66.16±2.78	66.38±1.63	65.95±1.98	64.87±1.39	67.67±2.06
	Precision	0.8016	0.8021	0.8407	0.8269	0.8845
	Recall	0.7912	0.7918	0.7537	0.7506	0.7923
	Time	0.5967	2.591	148.16	29.481	3.029
Spambase	Accuracy	89.76±1.03	90.40±1.12	89.54±0.53	89.69±0.26	91.16±0.36
	Precision	0.9712	0.9663	0.9696	0.9766	0.9762
	Recall	0.9221	0.8469	0.8601	0.8618	0.9430
	Time	0.7151	21.18	182.71	119.56	41.33

Bold entries in Table 4 represent the best values of performance metrics in a row

- **WDBC** [4]: Features describe the characteristics of the nuclei of the cell present in the images. It classifies if the case is benign or malignant.
- **Australian** [4]: The task is to classify the applications approved for credit card.
- **Pima Indians**: Based on the women living in Arizona and the task is to classify them as diabetic or non-diabetic.
- **CMC** [4]: The task is to predict the contraceptive method choice of a woman based on her socio-economic and demographic characteristics.
- **Spambase** [4]: To classify an email as spam or non-spam.

To perform the experiments over these data sets, we divide the data sets into the ratio of 55:45, where 55% of data is used for training while the rest 45% of data is used for testing purposes. We only use 55% labeled data to train the model. In this way, we test the performance of all the methods with greater complexity. Therefore, we have 45% unlabeled data for training.

We train the SVM model over the labeled training set (similar to the synthetic data set) using *svmtrain()* from LIBSVM [12]. We use the weight vector and the bias term obtained from training the SVM to train other models. To check the robustness of the proposed model, we add noise to the labeled training data. In this part of the work, we evaluate model's performance by adding 0%, 15%, and 30% noise in the data sets. To add $k\%$ noise to the data set, we change the $k\%$ labels of the labeled training data from -1 to $+1$ and vice-versa. For experimentation, we consider $k = 0, 15$ and 30 for real-world small and large data sets. We compare the performance of all these models based on accuracy, precision [3] and recall [3]. We also mention the computational time (in seconds) of all the methods.

It is noteworthy that these experiments on small data sets are performed on a Lenovo laptop with Windows 10 operating system having 4GB RAM and RADEON graphics. All the codes are written in MATLAB and are available at <https://github.com/manisha1427/TruncpinTSVM>.

First, we report the results over data sets with 0% noise in Table 4. The boldfaced accuracies, precision and recall values represent the best values corresponding to the data sets. We observe that the dual form of $\overline{\text{pin-TSVM}}$ perform better than rest of the techniques on most data sets. Note that for SVM and TSVM, we implement the dual forms of these techniques for small data sets only as the computational time depends on the number of examples [48], so we cannot use it for large-scale data sets. We implement the primal form using SGD (Algorithm 1) for large real-world data sets.

Next, we add 15% label noise to the data sets and report the results in Table 5. The $\overline{\text{pin-TSVM}}$ -dual outperforms the other techniques in most cases. We also observe that the decrease in the accuracy after adding 15% noise in the data sets is also less for $\overline{\text{pin-TSVM}}$ -dual than the other techniques.

We further increase the training data sets' label noise to 30% and report the results in Table 6. In Table 6, we observe that the $\overline{\text{pin-TSVM}}$ -dual still outperforms the rest of the methods in terms of accuracy, precision and recall. The method is also in close comparison to the TSVM in terms of computational time.

In all the above tables, Tables 4, 5 and 6, the computational time for SVM is significantly less since we use only the labeled training set to train the model while in the rest of the techniques, we use labeled as well as the unlabeled set for training.

We next perform experiments on large real-world data sets to compare the results of the proposed technique with the existing models. The data sets that are used here are listed in Table 7. We implement the CCCP form of TSVM, Ramp-TSVM, and the proposed approach to perform these experiments. $\overline{\text{pin-TSVM}}$ is implemented using Algorithm 2.

Table 5 Comparison of various techniques with 15% noise in the real-world data sets

Data Sets	Results	SVM	TSVM	Ramp-TSVM	pin-TSVM-SG	pin-TSVM-dual
Sonar	Accuracy	62.77±3.48	69.15±2.61	59.67±8.23	63.24±4.11	71.24±4.11
	Precision	0.8551	0.8442	0.8235	0.8587	0.8571
	Recall	0.7024	0.7927	0.6829	0.7189	0.7952
	Time	0.0058	1.6075	38.22	7.74	1.42
Cleveland	Accuracy	80.62±3.61	80.15±2.66	77.49±1.50	78.68±3.14	80.88±2.19
	Precision	0.8505	0.8662	0.8346	0.8492	0.8871
	Recall	0.9307	0.8934	0.9011	0.9145	0.9016
	Time	0.0411	1.0062	39.83	8.998	1.311
Haberman	Accuracy	70.29±1.46	65.23±2.91	70.29±2.50	71.21±1.55	73.91±1.62
	Precision	0.7029	0.8182	0.7027	0.7313	0.8361
	Recall	0.8991	0.7627	0.8982	0.9011	0.9264
	Time	0.0027	0.7228	1.273	1.218	0.805
WDBC	Accuracy	92.97±1.02	94.53±1.13	91.02±1.34	91.80±1.20	95.70±1.11
	Precision	0.9123	0.9837	0.9957	1	0.9879
	Recall	0.9297	0.9603	0.9137	0.9180	0.9684
	Time	0.144	1.716	88.163	17.504	1.99
Australian	Accuracy	82.58±1.17	82.57±1.57	82.90±0.72	82.58±0.15	83.61±0.17
	Precision	0.8533	0.8534	0.8567	0.8633	0.8717
	Recall	0.9624	0.9642	0.9625	0.9624	0.9732
	Time	0.0226	2.0554	55.704	20.258	2.261
Pima Indians	Accuracy	71.25±3.64	73.12±1.53	71.54±1.53	72.83±3.12	73.41±1.79
	Precision	0.9214	0.8405	0.8729	0.9265	0.8469
	Recall	0.7645	0.7254	0.7404	0.7736	0.8467
	Time	0.0144	1.1704	132.14	22.274	1.506

Table 5 continued

Data Sets	Results	SVM	TSVM	Ramp-TSVM	pin-TSVM-SG	pin-TSVM-dual
CMC	Accuracy	65.73±2.16	65.19±2.67	66.81±2.17	67.46±1.52	66.16±2.21
	Precision	0.8356	0.8010	0.8517	0.8537	0.8588
	Recall	0.7550	0.7887	0.7961	0.7709	0.7963
	Time	0.0315	2.524	126.54	28.52	3.135
Spambase	Accuracy	87.10±1.16	89.08±1.32	60.95±1.05	89.30±0.89	89.90±1.61
	Precision	0.9609	0.9588	0.8106	0.9808	0.9568
	Recall	0.8943	0.9162	0.7842	0.8962	0.9371
	Time	1.0635	46.344	930.795	117.944	71.02

Bold entries in Table 5 represent the best values of performance metrics in a row

Table 6 Comparison of various techniques with 30% noise in the real-world data sets

Data Sets	Results	SVM	TSVM	Ramp-TSVM	pin-TSVM-SG	pin-TSVM-dual
Sonar	Accuracy	61.70±3.31	62.06±4.57	57.45±6.98	58.51±6.77	62.77±3.14
	Precision	0.6988	0.7754	0.6207	0.6595	0.7708
	Recall	0.8406	0.7500	0.6471	0.7112	0.8429
	Time	0.0252	2.113	42.21	7.97	1.193
Cleveland	Accuracy	73.77±2.15	77.94±3.81	80.15±5.72	78.35±5.11	79.41±3.32
	Precision	0.8337	0.8669	0.8761	0.9106	0.8926
	Recall	0.8121	0.8619	0.8651	0.8960	0.8780
Haberman	Time	0.0868	1.562	41.346	9.408	1.343
	Accuracy	70.46±2.11	61.59±3.12	71.46±3.62	72.47±1.72	73.19±1.72
	Precision	0.7046	0.8333	0.7246	0.7249	0.8050
WDBC	Recall	0.8913	0.7246	0.7246	1	0.8947
	Time	0.0026	0.6961	2.167	2.289	0.8330
	Accuracy	92.19±2.91	92.58±1.69	91.80±0.61	91.80±0.51	94.14±1.65
Australian	Precision	0.9958	0.9595	0.9476	0.9476	0.9640
	Recall	0.9256	0.9634	0.9671	0.9674	0.9757
	Time	0.0164	1.861	77.81	17.431	2.85
Pima Indians	Accuracy	83.18±4.48	83.58±4.18	84.74±2.85	87.74±3.22	87.82±2.83
	Precision	0.8944	0.8947	0.8977	0.8978	0.9064
	Recall	0.8742	0.9748	0.9749	0.9841	0.9861
Pima Indians	Time	0.0211	2.278	62.214	20.701	20.58
	Accuracy	72.54±3.64	73.99±4.25	73.57±4.16	75.14±3.53	74.57±2.83
	Precision	0.8961	0.8366	0.8721	0.8814	0.9350
Pima Indians	Recall	0.7771	0.8439	0.8113	0.8660	0.8746
	Time	0.0159	1.194	125.98	22.342	1.532

Table 6 continued

Data Sets	Results	SVM	T SVM	Ramp-T SVM	pin-T SVM-SG	pin-T SVM-dual
CMC	Accuracy	64.09±2.20	65.30±2.41	64.44±2.57	64.87±1.47	65.37±2.19
	Precision	0.8216	0.8102	0.8399	0.8361	0.8090
	Recall	0.6991	0.7710	0.7346	0.7462	0.7791
	Time	0.088	2.934	110.924	29.31	4.057
Spambase	Accuracy	83.48±0.98	88.26±1.16	62.38±1.45	83.14±0.91	88.41±1.11
	Precision	0.9686	0.9447	0.8243	0.9690	0.9443
	Recall	0.8580	0.9304	0.7918	0.8514	0.9327
	Time	1.462	109.073	849.58	118.602	190.886

Bold entries in Table 6 represent the best values of performance metrics in a row

Table 7 Used large data sets for experimentation purposes

S. No.	Data sets	Instances	Features	No. of classes
1	Banana	5300	3	2
2	Page Blocks	5473	11	5
3	Musk(version 2)	6568	168	2
4	Cats vs Dogs	25000	1001	2
5	CIFAR-10	60000	16384	10
6	MNIST	70000	1570	10
7	Forest	581012	54	7

Please note that we run the models on the master node of the IIT (BHU), Varanasi server with 96GB RAM to perform these experiments. We report these results in Table 8. For image data sets like CIFAR-10, we follow similar steps as in [9]. We obtain the feature set from these images. The number of instances and the number of attributes of this feature set are listed in Table 7.

- *Description of the Data Sets listed in Table 7*

- **Banana** [28]: This data set is based on the two types of banana classification based on its shape.
- **Page Blocks** [4]: The task is to classify those page blocks of a document that has been detected by a segmentation process.
- **Musk (version2)** [4]: To classify whether the new molecules are musk or not.
- **Cats vs Dogs** [18]: To classify the new image as cat image or dog image.
- **CIFAR-10** [21]: CIFAR-10 data set has 60,000 color images of size 32×32 pixels. These images belong to ten classes. To use this data set, we extract features from the image data set.
- **MNIST** [4]: MNIST database comprise of images of handwritten digits. The task is to identify the new digit based on the image.
- **Cover Type** [4]: The task is to predict the forest cover type based on the cartographic variables [4]. It includes a total of seven classes marked as integer 1 to 7 in the data set.

Similar to the experiments performed on small data sets, we add different levels of noise in these experiments also. For multi-class classification, we follow the one versus rest approach. From Table 8, we observe that the proposed approach is close to the rest of the approaches for the noise-free data set. However, when we add noise to the data, the proposed approach outperforms significantly. Please note that the methods with empty values in Table 8 indicate that these methods have not produced any results in one month. We also compare the above-discussed techniques with convolutional neural network (CNN) on image data sets.

To compare the above-discussed techniques over the computational time, we choose a data set with the maximum number of instances, Forest cover type. The computational time of SVM is 6.67×10^3 minutes, TSVM is 6.81×10^5 , Ramp-TSVM is 2.82×10^4 and the proposed method is 4.51×10^3 minutes. In the training time of the proposed method, pin-TSVM is less than the others.

As the proposed approach performs well on real-world data sets, we also apply this approach to detecting disease due to the presence of novel coronavirus in the human body. Based on chest X-ray images, we find whether a person is infected or not. Since assigning

Table 8 Comparison of various techniques over large real-world data sets using linear kernel

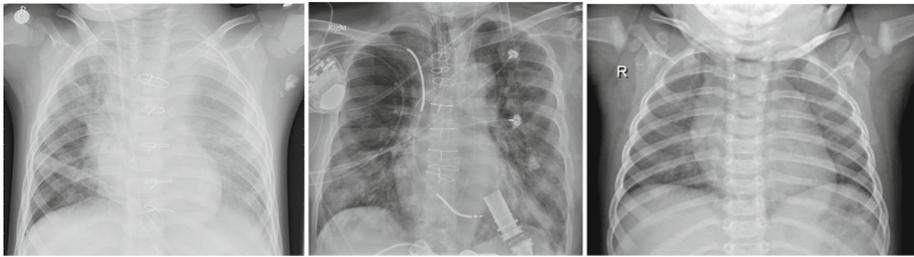
Data Sets	Noise	Results	SVM	T SVM	Ramp-TSVM	\bar{pin} -TSVM	CNN
Banana	0% Noise	Accuracy	54.84	50.40	58.70	58.91	-
		Precision	0.5484	0.6952	0.5980	0.6893	
		Recall	0.6630	0.6469	0.9701	0.9716	
	15% Noise	Accuracy	54.68	50.07	57.19	57.06	
		Precision	0.5448	0.7028	0.5723	0.6926	
		Recall	0.9890	0.6513	0.9981	0.9985	
	30% Noise	Accuracy	55.22	48.97	58.41	58.96	
		Precision	0.5522	0.6775	0.5860	0.7054	
		Recall	0.9770	0.6381	0.9943	0.9946	
Page Blocks	0% Noise	Accuracy	92.11	94.78	89.21	95.09	-
		Precision	0.9238	0.9697	0.8921	0.9788	
		Recall	0.9631	0.9767	0.9535	1	
	15% Noise	Accuracy	91.47	94.84	89.21	94.92	
		Precision	0.9153	0.9652	0.8921	0.9661	
		recall	0.9994	0.9820	0.9414	1	
	30% Noise	Accuracy	92.05	93.84	90.55	94.61	
		Precision	0.9211	0.9615	0.9055	0.9714	
		Recall	0.9994	0.9635	0.9433	0.9996	
Musk (version 2)	0% Noise	Accuracy	94.71	94.27	84.99	94.90	-
		Precision	0.9914	0.9717	0.9966	0.9791	
		Recall	0.9549	0.9623	0.8523	0.9681	
	15% Noise	Accuracy	89.17	91.24	87.92	91.76	
		Precision	0.9812	0.9770	0.9845	0.9790	

Table 8 continued

Data Sets	Noise	Results	SVM	TSVM	Ramp-TSVM	pin-TSVM	CNN
Cats vs Dogs	30% Noise	Recall	0.9445	0.9512	0.8512	0.9578	
		Accuracy	80.63	83.83	86.09	91.24	
		Precision	0.9891	0.9576	0.9783	0.9791	
	0% Noise	Recall	0.9499	0.9688	0.8465	0.9581	
		Accuracy	50.10	96.25	96.59	97.25	95.71
		Precision	1	0.9797	0.9869	0.9881	0.9771
15% Noise	Recall	0.5010	0.9725	0.9784	0.9841	98.10	
	Accuracy	50.09	96.02	93.81	96.18	93.78	
	Precision	1	0.9680	0.9548	0.9858	0.9615	
30% Noise	Recall	0.5009	0.9736	0.9427	0.9743	0.9558	
	Accuracy	48.48	95.50	89.79	95.80	76.20	
	Precision	1	0.9856	0.9844	0.9870	0.8712	
CIFAR-10	0% Noise	Recall	0.4841	0.9686	0.9020	0.9732	0.8711
		Accuracy	52.17	53.44	53.11	54.25	65.08
		Precision	0.5684	0.6687	0.5995	0.6993	0.6991
	15% Noise	Recall	0.6783	0.6523	0.9712	0.9778	0.9872
		Accuracy	48.67	49.65	51.41	52.78	45.13
		Precision	0.5432	0.6792	0.5980	0.7123	0.5810
30% Noise	Recall	0.9771	0.6498	0.9956	0.9956	0.9762	
	Accuracy	44.39	47.55	46.54	50.21	37.67	
	Precision	0.5211	0.5348	0.5312	0.6235	0.5210	
		Recall	0.8965	0.6894	0.9873	0.9881	0.9621

Table 8 continued

Data Sets	Noise	Results	SVM	T SVM	Ramp-T SVM	$\bar{\text{pin-T SVM}}$	CNN
MNIST	0% Noise	Accuracy	91.92	91.03	94.26	97.25	97.25
		Precision	0.9634	0.9601	0.9869	0.9891	1
		Recall	0.9775	0.9725	0.9784	0.9851	0.9812
	15% Noise	Accuracy	87.87	90.01	92.26	95.01	95.05
		Precision	0.9032	0.9227	0.9453	0.9721	0.9812
		Recall	0.9071	0.9436	0.9631	0.9878	0.8005
	30% Noise	Accuracy	82.21	89.98	91.56	94.34	94.01
		Precision	0.7898	0.9166	0.9229	0.9721	0.9651
		Recall	0.8445	0.9175	0.9246	0.9278	0.7927
Forest	0% Noise	Accuracy	63.57	76.14	69.18	77.47	-
		Precision	0.8226	0.8977	0.8451	0.9092	-
		Recall	0.9776	0.9712	0.9613	0.9842	-
	15% Noise	Accuracy	58.22	-	67.99	76.34	-
		Precision	0.8002	-	0.8271	0.8956	-
		Recall	0.9471	-	0.9606	0.9781	-
	30% Noise	Accuracy	51.21	-	65.46	73.21	-
		Precision	0.7911	-	0.8034	0.8676	-
		Recall	0.9251	-	0.9571	0.9661	-



(a) Patient having Bacterial Infection (b) Patient having Coronavirus (c) Normal X-ray

Fig. 3 Chest X-ray Images of Humans with a Bacterial Infection b Coronavirus c Normal X-ray

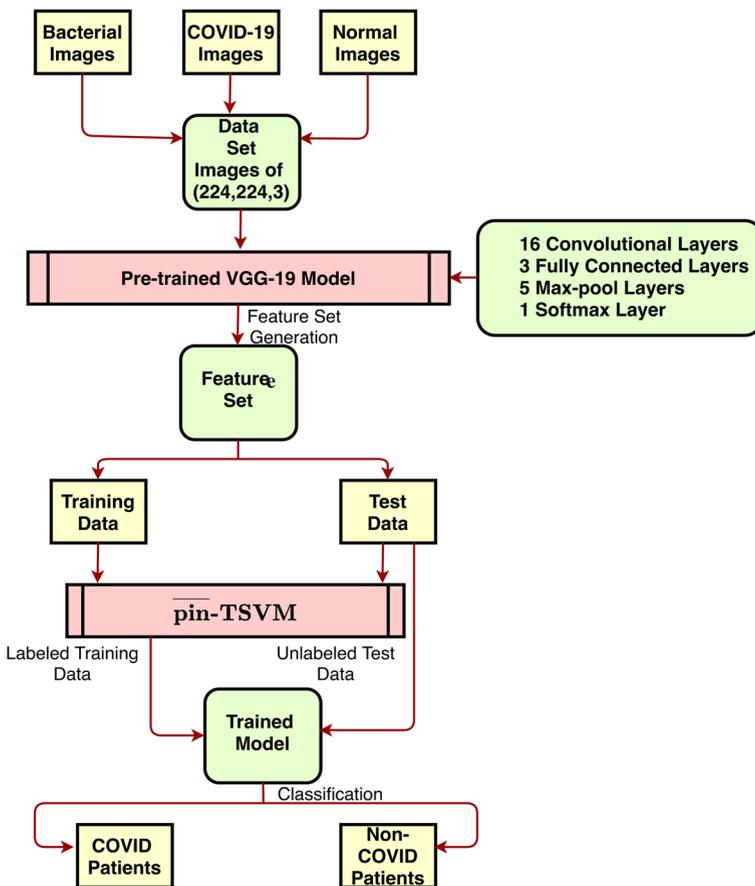


Fig. 4 Steps to extract features from the COVID-19 data set and training pin-TSVM

these labels manually is time-consuming and difficult, especially during this pandemic, we can predict the labels using our proposed robust semi-supervised learning framework, pin-TSVM.

Table 9 Comparison of various techniques over COVID-19 data set

Dats Sets	Results	SVM	T SVM	ramp-T SVM	$\overline{\text{pin-T SVM}}$	C
COVID-19 Data Set	0% Noise	93.63 (0.2524)	94.62 (5.70)	93.80 (7.11)	96.45 (10.1)	(1, 1, 2, 1)
	10% Noise	92.15 (0.2619)	93.10 (7.10)	91.74 (7.66)	94.63 (10.6)	(1, 1, 2, 3)
	15% Noise	89.67 (0.3974)	92.17 (14.73)	93.80 (16.41)	94.21 (14.66)	(2, 2, 1, 1)
	30% Noise	68.77 (0.3490)	91.74 (18.18)	92.18 (14.66)	93.15 (17.82)	(2, 2, 2, 2)
	40% Noise	68.18 (0.3880)	90.32 (13.97)	90.08 (14.21)	92.15 (20.75)	(2, 2, 2, 3)
COVID-19 Data Set with PCA	0% Noise	92.89 (0.0086)	92.15 (0.9896)	91.74 (1.6392)	95.21 (2.0552)	(2, 3, 1, 4)
	10% Noise	92.56 (0.0079)	91.80 (0.9192)	92.56 (1.8664)	93.89 (1.8642)	(2, 3, 1, 1)
	15% Noise	91.95 (0.0113)	92.98 (1.7626)	92.28 (1.6320)	94.12 (2.0590)	(2, 3, 1, 1)
	30% Noise	91.56 (0.0124)	90.08 (1.2117)	85.95 (2.1602)	92.15 (2.6186)	(2, 2, 1, 3)
	40% Noise	70.25 (0.0137)	86.78 (1.7512)	86.36 (2.4502)	88.02 (3.2693)	(2, 2, 1, 4)

Bold entries in Table 9 represent the best accuracy in a row

4 Application to the Detection of Novel Coronavirus (COVID-19) Infected Patients using Chest X-ray Images

In this section, we discuss the use of the $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM model to predict if a person is infected by COVID-19. To do this, we train the model using the chest X-ray images of humans.

It has been observed that the early detection of the disease with mild symptoms can help the patient in recovering from the disease. Therefore, it is required to detect the disease in its early stage. In this work, we use a semi-supervised machine learning model, TSVM, to detect the disease in humans using their chest X-ray images. Since labels come from human experts, and they do make mistakes, particularly in a pandemic like the situation where they are under considerable stress due to a large number of severe cases. We use the robust TSVM, $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM, to detect the presence of COVID-19 in a human body. We first create a data set using chest X-ray images of COVID patients, normal humans, and patients with bacterial infection. These images are shown in Fig. 3.

We use pre-trained VGG19 model to extract features from the images [29]. In VGG19, the feature extraction part is from the first input layer to the max-pooling layer. The rest of the part of VGG19 is used for classification purposes. VGG19 uses multi-channel array signals to generate images and hence, it is superior than other machine learning models in terms of classification [50]. Therefore, we use VGG19 for feature extraction. To perform the experiments on the COVID-19 data set, we follow the steps shown in Fig. 4.

In these experiments, we also switch some of the labels of the training data (as described earlier in Sect. 3) to test the robustness of $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM on the COVID-19 data set. Therefore, when a few labels in the training set are wrong, the task is to formulate a model that is robust enough such that it maintains its accuracy to some extent, i.e., degrades gracefully rather than catastrophically. $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM has proved its robustness through its performance on real-world data sets as discussed in the previous Sect. 3. We use this model on the COVID-19 data set (having chest X-ray images of humans). We compute the results in two ways: directly using the features obtained by applying the VGG 19 model and extracting the essential features from this step using principal component analysis (PCA) [1]. The results are reported in Table 9. We mention the accuracies and the computational time (in parenthesis) of the various techniques. The last column of Table 9 represents the value of C used in these experiments. Note that we use the same value of C and C^* in these experiments.

From Table 9, we observe that the proposed model outperforms the existing techniques even after increasing noise in the data set. We can also use this method to assign labels to the unlabeled samples efficiently.

5 Conclusions and Future Scope

In this paper, we proposed an improved and robust TSVM towards label noise in the data set. We used the truncated pinball loss function instead of the conventional hinge loss function to introduce robustness in this framework (Sect. 2). We implemented both the primal form and the dual form of the proposed technique. We used CCCP on the primal form and implemented it using SGD (see Algorithm 2). The dual form is implemented using the *mlcv_quadprog()* function [9] in MATLAB (see Algorithms 3 and 4). In this work, we provided algorithms for both linear and kernelized $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM. We compared our technique with the existing techniques on both the synthetic and real-world data sets. The proposed technique outperformed other techniques on the majority of the data sets.

We also extended the use of $\overline{\text{pin}}$ -TSVM in the detection of coronavirus infected patients using their chest X-ray images. The proposed technique resulted in better accuracy, precision and recall even under the noisy environment. It is found that the method can be efficiently used to detect the coronavirus infected patients using their chest X-ray images.

In continuation of this study, we will attempt to implement the proposed method on other real-world applications to find the missing labels.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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