

CSCI567 Machine Learning (Fall 2025)

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Administration

Will discuss HW1 solutions in today discussion session.

HW2 will be released next week.

Outline

- 1 Review of Last Lecture
- 2 Multiclass Classification
- 3 Kernel methods

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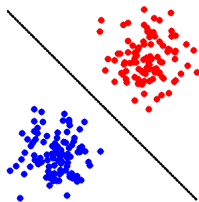
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Linear classifiers

Linear models for **binary** classification:

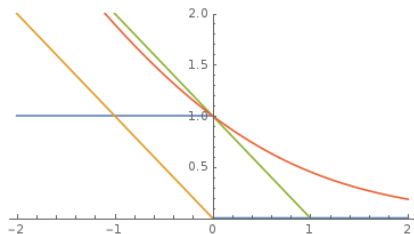
Step 1. Model is the set of **separating hyperplanes**

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$



Linear classifiers

Step 2. Pick the **surrogate loss**



- **perceptron loss** $\ell_{\text{perceptron}}(z) = \max\{0, -z\}$ (used in Perceptron)
- **hinge loss** $\ell_{\text{hinge}}(z) = \max\{0, 1 - z\}$ (used in SVM and many others)
- **logistic loss** $\ell_{\text{logistic}}(z) = \log(1 + \exp(-z))$ (used in logistic regression)

Linear classifiers

Step 3. Find empirical risk minimizer (ERM):

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D} F(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \ell(y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n)$$

using

- **GD:** $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla F(\mathbf{w})$
- **SGD:** $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \eta \tilde{\nabla} F(\mathbf{w})$ $(\mathbb{E}[\tilde{\nabla} F(\mathbf{w})] = \nabla F(\mathbf{w}))$
- **Newton:** $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - (\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{w}))^{-1} \nabla F(\mathbf{w})$

Convergence guarantees of GD/SGD

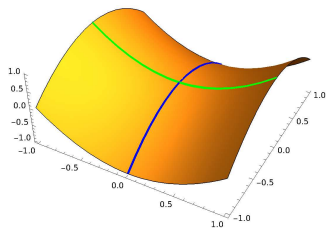
- GD/SGD converges to a stationary point

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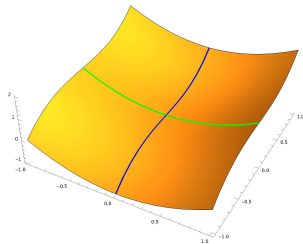
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Convergence guarantees of GD/SGD

- GD/SGD converges to a stationary point
- for convex objectives, this is all we need
- for nonconvex objectives, can get stuck at local minimizers or “bad” saddle points (random initialization escapes “good” saddle points)



“good” saddle points



“bad” saddle points

Perceptron and logistic regression

Initialize $w = \mathbf{0}$ or randomly.

Repeat:

- pick a data point x_n uniformly at random (**common trick for SGD**)

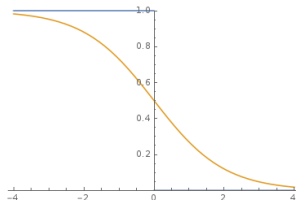
Perceptron and logistic regression

Initialize $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$ or randomly.

Repeat:

- pick a data point $\mathbf{x}_n$ uniformly at random (**common trick for SGD**)
- update parameter:

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \begin{cases} \mathbb{I}[y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n \leq 0] y_n \mathbf{x}_n & \text{(Perceptron)} \\ \eta \sigma(-y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n) y_n \mathbf{x}_n & \text{(logistic regression)} \end{cases}$$



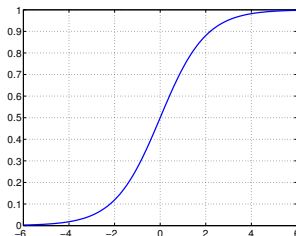
A Probabilistic view of logistic regression

Minimizing logistic loss = MLE for the sigmoid model

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{n=1}^N \ell_{\text{logistic}}(y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \prod_{n=1}^N \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{w})$$

where

$$\mathbb{P}(y \mid \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(y \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}}}$$



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 - Multinomial logistic regression
 - Reduction to binary classification
- 3 Kernel methods

Classification

Recall the setup:

- input (feature vector): $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$
- output (label): $y \in [C] = \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$
- goal: learn a mapping $f : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow [C]$

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Examples:

- recognizing digits ($C = 10$) or letters ($C = 26$ or 52)
- predicting weather: sunny, cloudy, rainy, etc
- predicting image category: ImageNet dataset ($C \approx 20K$)

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Nearest Neighbor Classifier naturally works for arbitrary C .

Linear models: from binary to multiclass

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for any $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2$ s.t. $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}_1 - \mathbf{w}_2$

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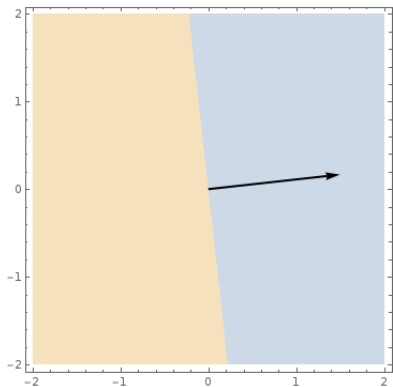
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for any $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2$ s.t. $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}_1 - \mathbf{w}_2$

Think of $\mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}$ as **a score for class k** .

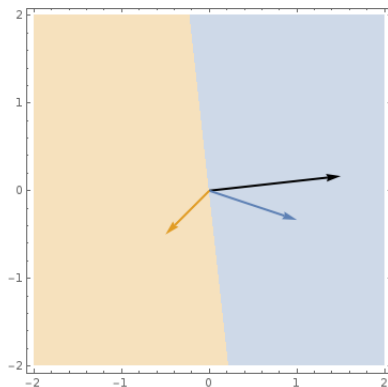
Linear models: from binary to multiclass



$$\mathbf{w} = \left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{6}\right)$$

- Blue class:
 $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \geq 0\}$
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Linear models: from binary to multiclass



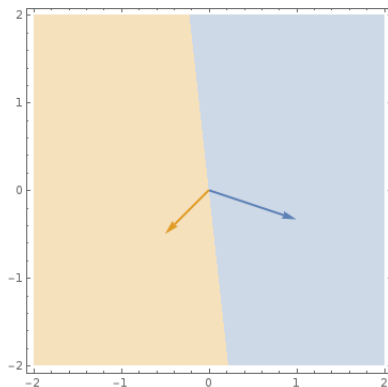
$$\mathbf{w} = \left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{6}\right) = \mathbf{w}_1 - \mathbf{w}_2$$

$$\mathbf{w}_1 = \left(1, -\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{w}_2 = \left(-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

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 $\{\mathbf{x} : 1 = \operatorname{argmax}_k \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}\}$
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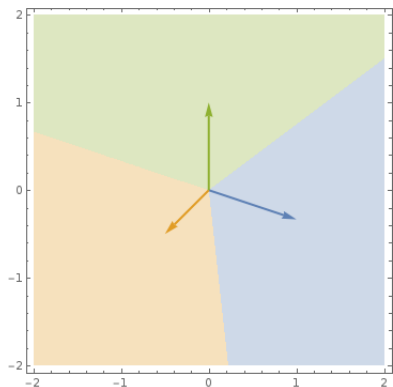


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Linear models: from binary to multiclass



$$\mathbf{w}_1 = (1, -\frac{1}{3})$$

$$\mathbf{w}_2 = (-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2})$$

$$\mathbf{w}_3 = (0, 1)$$

- Blue class:
 $\{\mathbf{x} : 1 = \operatorname{argmax}_k \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}\}$
- Orange class:
 $\{\mathbf{x} : 2 = \operatorname{argmax}_k \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}\}$
- Green class:
 $\{\mathbf{x} : 3 = \operatorname{argmax}_k \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}\}$

Linear models for multiclass classification

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [C]} \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_C \in \mathbb{R}^D \right\}$$

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This lecture: focus on the more popular **logistic loss**

Multinomial logistic regression: a probabilistic view

Observe: for binary logistic regression, with $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}_1 - \mathbf{w}_2$:

$$\mathbb{P}(y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}}} = \frac{e^{\mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{x}}}{e^{\mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{x}} + e^{\mathbf{w}_2^T \mathbf{x}}} \propto e^{\mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{x}}$$

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Important operator: *softmax function* (or really, “softargmax”)

$$\text{For a vector } \mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^C, \text{ softmax}(\mathbf{s}) = \left(\frac{e^{s_1}}{\sum_{k \in [C]} e^{s_k}}, \dots, \frac{e^{s_C}}{\sum_{k \in [C]} e^{s_k}} \right)$$

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Applying MLE again

Maximize probability of seeing labels $y_1, \dots, y_N$ given $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$

$$P(\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{n=1}^N \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W}) = \prod_{n=1}^N \frac{e^{\mathbf{w}_{y_n}^T \mathbf{x}_n}}{\sum_{k \in [C]} e^{\mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}_n}}$$

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By taking **negative log**, this is equivalent to minimizing

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This is the *multiclass logistic loss*, a.k.a. *cross-entropy loss*.

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When $C = 2$, this is the same as binary logistic loss.

Step 3: Optimization

Apply **SGD**: what is the gradient of

$$F_n(\mathbf{W}) = \ln \left(1 + \sum_{k' \neq y_n} e^{(\mathbf{w}_{k'} - \mathbf{w}_{y_n})^T \mathbf{x}_n} \right) ?$$

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If $k \neq y_n$:

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else:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}_k^T} F_n(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{- \left(\sum_{k' \neq y_n} e^{(\mathbf{w}_{k'} - \mathbf{w}_{y_n})^T \mathbf{x}_n} \right)}{1 + \sum_{k' \neq y_n} e^{(\mathbf{w}_{k'} - \mathbf{w}_{y_n})^T \mathbf{x}_n}} \mathbf{x}_n^T$$

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else:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}_k^T} F_n(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{- \left(\sum_{k' \neq y_n} e^{(\mathbf{w}_{k'} - \mathbf{w}_{y_n})^T \mathbf{x}_n} \right)}{1 + \sum_{k' \neq y_n} e^{(\mathbf{w}_{k'} - \mathbf{w}_{y_n})^T \mathbf{x}_n}} \mathbf{x}_n^T = (\mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W}) - 1) \mathbf{x}_n^T$$

SGD for multinomial logistic regression

Initialize $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{0}$ (or randomly). Repeat:

- 1 pick $n \in [N]$ uniformly at random
- 2 update the parameters

$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \eta \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{P}(y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W}) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{P}(y = y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W}) - 1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{P}(y = C \mid \mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W}) \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_n^T$$

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Think about why the algorithm makes sense intuitively.

A note on prediction

Having learned $\mathbf{W}$, we can either

- make a *deterministic* prediction $\operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [C]} \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}$

A note on prediction

Having learned $\mathbf{W}$, we can either

- make a *deterministic* prediction $\operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [C]} \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x}$
- make a *randomized* prediction drawn from $\operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x})$

Generalization of cross-entropy loss

Given a general model class:

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [\mathbf{C}]} s(\mathbf{x})_k \right\}$$

where $s : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^C$ is a **“scoring” function**.

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where $s : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^C$ is a **“scoring” function**.

The *cross-entropy loss* of f for a training sample $(\mathbf{x}, y)$ is

$$-\ln(\operatorname{softmax}(s(\mathbf{x}))_y) = -\ln\left(\frac{e^{s(\mathbf{x})_y}}{\sum_{k \in [C]} e^{s(\mathbf{x})_k}}\right) = \ln\left(1 + \sum_{k \neq y} e^{s(\mathbf{x})_k - s(\mathbf{x})_y}\right)$$

Reduce multiclass to binary

Is there an *even more general and simpler approach* to derive multiclass classification algorithms?

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Given a binary classification algorithm (*any one*, not just linear methods), can we turn it to a multiclass algorithm, *in a black-box manner*?

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Is there an *even more general and simpler approach* to derive multiclass classification algorithms?

Given a binary classification algorithm (*any one*, not just linear methods), can we turn it to a multiclass algorithm, *in a black-box manner*?

Yes, there are in fact many ways to do it.

- **one-versus-all** (one-versus-rest, one-against-all, etc.)
- **one-versus-one** (all-versus-all, etc.)
- **tree-based reduction**

One-versus-all (OvA)

(picture credit: [link](#))

Idea: train C binary classifiers to learn “**is class k or not?**” for each k .

One-versus-all (OvA)

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Training: for each class $k \in [C]$,

- relabel examples with class k as $+1$, and all others as -1
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x_1 	$\Rightarrow$	x_1 —	x_1 +	x_1 —	x_1 —
x_2 		x_2 —	x_2 —	x_2 +	x_2 —
x_3 		x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 +
x_4 		x_4 —	x_4 +	x_4 —	x_4 —
x_5 		x_5 +	x_5 —	x_5 —	x_5 —
		$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$
		h_1	h_2	h_3	h_4

One-versus-all (OvA)

Prediction: for a new example x

- ask each h_k : **does this belong to class k ?** (i.e. $h_k(x)$)

One-versus-all (OvA)

Prediction: for a new example $\mathbf{x}$

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- randomly pick among all k 's s.t. $h_k(\mathbf{x}) = +1$.

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Prediction: for a new example $\mathbf{x}$

- ask each h_k : **does this belong to class k ?** (i.e. $h_k(\mathbf{x})$)
- randomly pick among all k 's s.t. $h_k(\mathbf{x}) = +1$.

Issue: will (probably) make a mistake *as long as one of h_k errs*.

One-versus-one (OvO)

(picture credit: [link](#))

Idea: train $\binom{C}{2}$ binary classifiers to learn “**is class k or k' ?**”.

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Training: for each pair (k, k') ,

- relabel examples with class k as $+1$ and examples with class k' as -1
- *discard all other examples*
- train a binary classifier $h_{(k,k')}$ using this new dataset

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- relabel examples with class k as $+1$ and examples with class k' as -1
- *discard all other examples*
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	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■
x_1 ■	x_1 —			x_1 —		x_1 —
x_2 ■		x_2 —	x_2 +			x_2 +
x_3 ■ $\Rightarrow$			x_3 —	x_3 +	x_3 —	
x_4 ■	x_4 —			x_4 —		x_4 —
x_5 ■	x_5 +	x_5 +			x_5 +	
	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$	$\Downarrow$
	$h_{(1,2)}$	$h_{(1,3)}$	$h_{(3,4)}$	$h_{(4,2)}$	$h_{(1,4)}$	$h_{(3,2)}$

One-versus-one (OvO)

Prediction: for a new example x

- ask each classifier $h_{(k,k')}$ to **vote for either class k or k'**

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Prediction: for a new example x

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- predict the class with the most votes (break tie in some way)

One-versus-one (OvO)

Prediction: for a new example x

- ask each classifier $h_{(k,k')}$ to **vote for either class k or k'**
- predict the class with the most votes (break tie in some way)

More robust than one-versus-all, but *slower* in prediction.

Tree based method

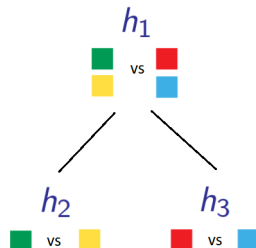
Idea: train $\approx C$ binary classifiers to learn “**belongs to which half?**”.

Tree based method

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Training: see pictures

		■ vs ■ ■	■ vs ■	■ vs ■
x_1	■	x_1 +	x_1 —	
x_2	■	x_2 —		x_2 +
x_3	■	x_3 —		x_3 —
x_4	■	x_4 +	x_4 —	
x_5	■	x_5 +	x_5 +	
	$\Rightarrow$	↓ h_1	↓ h_2	↓ h_3

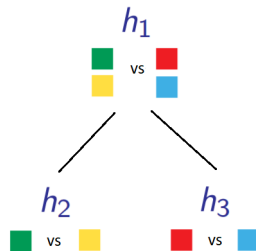


Tree based method

Idea: train $\approx C$ binary classifiers to learn “**belongs to which half?**”.

Training: see pictures

		■ vs ■ ■	■ vs ■	■ vs ■
		■ vs ■	■ vs ■	■ vs ■
x_1	■	x_1 +	x_1 —	
x_2	■	x_2 —		x_2 +
x_3	■	x_3 —		x_3 —
x_4	■	x_4 +	x_4 —	
x_5	■	x_5 +	x_5 +	
	$\Rightarrow$	↓ h_1	↓ h_2	↓ h_3



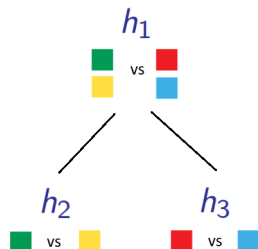
Prediction is also natural,

Tree based method

Idea: train $\approx C$ binary classifiers to learn “**belongs to which half?**”.

Training: see pictures

		■ vs ■ ■	■ vs ■	■ vs ■
		■ ■		
x_1	■	x_1 +	x_1 —	
x_2	■	x_2 —		x_2 +
x_3	■	x_3 —		x_3 —
x_4	■	x_4 +	x_4 —	
x_5	■	x_5 +	x_5 +	
	$\Rightarrow$	↓ h_1	↓ h_2	↓ h_3



Prediction is also natural, *but is very fast!* (think ImageNet where $C \approx 20K$)

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many

binary predictions are made

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA			

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

		■	■	■	■
x_1	■	x_1 —	x_1 +	x_1 —	x_1 —
x_2	■	x_2 —	x_2 —	x_2 +	x_2 —
x_3	■	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 +
x_4	■	x_4 —	x_4 +	x_4 —	x_4 —
x_5	■	x_5 +	x_5 —	x_5 —	x_5 —
	$\Rightarrow$	$\downarrow$ h_1	$\downarrow$ h_2	$\downarrow$ h_3	$\downarrow$ h_4

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN		

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

		■	■	■	■
x_1	■	x_1 —	x_1 +	x_1 —	x_1 —
x_2	■	x_2 —	x_2 —	x_2 +	x_2 —
x_3	■	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 +
x_4	■	x_4 —	x_4 +	x_4 —	x_4 —
x_5	■	x_5 +	x_5 —	x_5 —	x_5 —
	$\Rightarrow$	$\downarrow$ h_1	$\downarrow$ h_2	$\downarrow$ h_3	$\downarrow$ h_4

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

		■	■	■	■
x_1	■	x_1 —	x_1 +	x_1 —	x_1 —
x_2	■	x_2 —	x_2 —	x_2 +	x_2 —
x_3	■	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 —	x_3 +
x_4	■	x_4 —	x_4 +	x_4 —	x_4 —
x_5	■	x_5 +	x_5 —	x_5 —	x_5 —
	$\Rightarrow$	$\downarrow$ h_1	$\downarrow$ h_2	$\downarrow$ h_3	$\downarrow$ h_4

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

		■	■	■	■
x_1	■	$x_1 -$	$x_1 +$	$x_1 -$	$x_1 -$
x_2	■	$x_2 -$	$x_2 -$	$x_2 +$	$x_2 -$
x_3	■	$x_3 -$	$x_3 -$	$x_3 -$	$x_3 +$
x_4	■	$x_4 -$	$x_4 +$	$x_4 -$	$x_4 -$
x_5	■	$x_5 +$	$x_5 -$	$x_5 -$	$x_5 -$
	$\Rightarrow$	$\downarrow$ h_1	$\downarrow$ h_2	$\downarrow$ h_3	$\downarrow$ h_4

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO			

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■
x_1 ■	x_1 —			x_1 —		x_1 —
x_2 ■		x_2 —	x_2 +			x_2 +
x_3 ■			x_3 —	x_3 +	x_3 —	
x_4 ■	x_4 —			x_4 —		x_4 —
x_5 ■	x_5 +	x_5 +			x_5 +	
	⇓ $h_{(1,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,3)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(4,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,2)}$

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$		

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■
x_1 ■	x_1 —			x_1 —		x_1 —
x_2 ■		x_2 —	x_2 +			x_2 +
x_3 ■			x_3 —	x_3 +	x_3 —	
x_4 ■	x_4 —			x_4 —		x_4 —
x_5 ■	x_5 +	x_5 +			x_5 +	
	⇓ $h_{(1,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,3)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(4,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,2)}$

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■
x_1 ■	x_1 —			x_1 —		x_1 —
x_2 ■		x_2 —	x_2 +			x_2 +
x_3 ■			x_3 —	x_3 +	x_3 —	
x_4 ■	x_4 —			x_4 —		x_4 —
x_5 ■	x_5 +	x_5 +			x_5 +	
	⇓ $h_{(1,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,3)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(4,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,2)}$

Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made

	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■	■ vs. ■
x_1 ■	x_1 —			x_1 —		x_1 —
x_2 ■		x_2 —	x_2 +			x_2 +
x_3 ■			x_3 —	x_3 +	x_3 —	
x_4 ■	x_4 —			x_4 —		x_4 —
x_5 ■	x_5 +	x_5 +			x_5 +	
	⇓ $h_{(1,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,3)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(4,2)}$	⇓ $h_{(1,4)}$	⇓ $h_{(3,2)}$

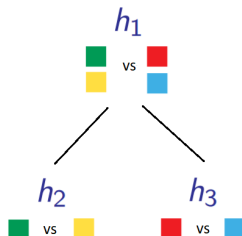
Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
Tree			

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made



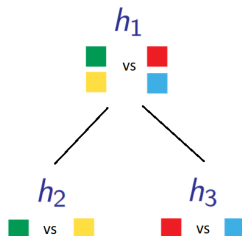
Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
Tree	$\mathcal{O}((\log_2 C)N)$		

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made



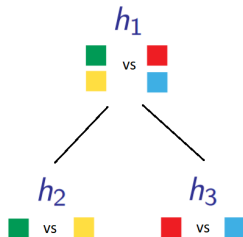
Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
Tree	$\mathcal{O}((\log_2 C)N)$	$\mathcal{O}(\log_2 C)$	

training time: how many

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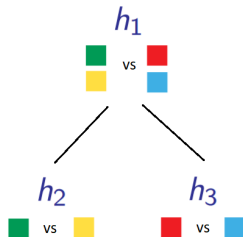
Comparisons

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	C	not robust
OvO	$(C - 1)N$	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
Tree	$\mathcal{O}((\log_2 C)N)$	$\mathcal{O}(\log_2 C)$	good for “extreme classification”

training time: how many

training points are created

prediction time: how many
binary predictions are made



Outline

- 1 Review of Last Lecture
- 2 Multiclass Classification
- 3 Kernel methods
 - Motivation
 - Example: Perceptron
 - Kernel Trick
 - Kernelized Perceptron

Motivation

Recall: when linear models are not good enough, we can use **a nonlinear feature map** $\phi : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^M$ to transform all x to $\phi(x)$.

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Issue: what if M is huge, or even infinity?

Solution: kernel methods

Case study: Perceptron for binary classification

Perceptron

Initialize $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$

Repeat:

- Pick a data point index n uniformly at random
- If $\text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n) \neq y_n$, update $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_n \mathbf{x}_n$

Case study: Perceptron for binary classification

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Observation: $\mathbf{w}$ is a **linear combination** of training data

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where $\alpha_m = y_m \times$ **number of times $\mathbf{x}_m$ has been misclassified**

Dual form of Perceptron

Perceptron (primal form)

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How to update $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N$ so that $\sum_{m=1}^N \alpha_m \mathbf{x}_m \equiv \mathbf{w}$ holds always?

Perceptron (dual form)

Dual form of Perceptron

Perceptron (primal form)

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Repeat:

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Perceptron (dual form)

Initialize $\alpha_m = 0$ for all $m \in [N]$

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Perceptron (primal form)

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Repeat:

- Pick a data point index n uniformly at random
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Dual form of Perceptron

Perceptron (primal form)

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Applying a feature map

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If we can compute $\phi(\mathbf{x}_m)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)$ without explicitly evaluating $\phi(\mathbf{x}_m)$ and $\phi(\mathbf{x}_n)$, then time/space is independent of M!

Example

Consider the following polynomial basis $\phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Therefore, *the inner product in the new space is simply a function of the inner product in the original space.*

Another example

$\phi : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2D}$ is parameterized by θ :

$$\phi_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta x_1) \\ \sin(\theta x_1) \\ \vdots \\ \cos(\theta x_D) \\ \sin(\theta x_D) \end{pmatrix}$$

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Once again, *the inner product in the new space is a simple function of the features in the original space.*

More complicated example

Based on ϕ_θ , define $\phi_L : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2D(L+1)}$ for some integer L :

$$\phi_L(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_0(\mathbf{x}) \\ \phi_{\frac{2\pi}{L}}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \phi_{2\frac{2\pi}{L}}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_{L\frac{2\pi}{L}}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

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What is the inner product between $\phi_L(\mathbf{x})$ and $\phi_L(\mathbf{x}')$?

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Note that using this mapping in linear classification, we are *learning a weight w with infinite dimension!*

Kernel functions

Definition: a function $k : \mathbb{R}^D \times \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a *kernel function* if there exists a function $\phi : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^M$ so that for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^D$,

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Examples we have seen

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2$$

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Verify using the definition of kernel!

Common kernel functions

Two most commonly used kernel functions in practice:

Polynomial kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^d$$

for $c \geq 0$ and d is a positive integer.

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Think about *what the corresponding ϕ is* for each kernel.

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Completely *M-independent*, becomes a *non-parametric* method

Gram/kernel matrix

When N is small, can precompute all inner products as a **Gram matrix**

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) & \cdots & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ k(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_1) & k(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_2) & \cdots & k(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_1) & k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_2) & \cdots & k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$\text{Recall: } \Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_N)^T \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$$

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Gram matrix vs covariance matrix

	dimensions	entry (i, j)	property
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Gram matrix vs covariance matrix

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$\Phi\Phi^T$	$N \times N$	$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$	both are symmetric and positive semidefinite
$\Phi^T\Phi$	$M \times M$	$\sum_{n=1}^N \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)_j$	

Mercer Theorem

$k : \mathbb{R}^D \times \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a kernel function if and only if the Gram matrix $\mathbf{K}$ for *any N and any $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$* is positive semidefinite.

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is *not a kernel*, why?

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$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2\|_2^2 \\ \|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2\|_2^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Kernelizing ML algorithms

Many other ML algorithms can be **kernelized**:

- nearest neighbor classifier
- linear regression
- logistic regression
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Key idea: rewrite the algorithm so that its dependence on the transformed dataset Φ is only through the Gram matrix $\mathbf{K} = \Phi\Phi^T$.