10/29/2020 decision\_tree.py

```
1 import pandas as pd
 2 import numpy as np
 3 from pprint import pprint
 4 import sys
 6 # Reads the data from CSV files, each attribute column can be obtained via
  its name, e.g., y = data['y']
 7 def getDataframe(filePath):
      data = pd.read_csv(filePath)
9
      return data
10
11 # predicted_y and y are the predicted and actual y values respectively as
  numpy arrays
12 # function prints the accuracy
13 def compute_accuracy(predicted_y, y):
14
      acc = 100.0
15
      acc = np.sum(predicted_y == y)/predicted_y.shape[0]
16
      return acc
17
18 #Compute entropy according to y distribution
19 def compute_entropy(y):
20
      entropy = 0.0
21
      elements, counts = np.unique(y, return_counts = True)
22
      n = y.shape[0]
23
24
      for i in range(len(elements)):
25
          prob = counts[i]/n
26
          if prob!= 0:
27
              entropy -= prob * np.log2(prob)
28
      return entropy
29
30|#att_name: attribute name; y_name: the target attribute name for
  classification
31 def compute info gain(data, att name, y name):
      info_gain = 0.0
32
33
34
      #Calculate the values and the corresponding counts for the select
  attribute
      vals, counts = np.unique(data[att_name], return_counts=True)
35
      total_counts = np.sum(counts)
36
37
      #Calculate the conditional entropy
38
      #======#
39
      # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
40
      #======#
41
      total_info = compute_entropy(data[y_name])
42
      info A = 0.0
43
      for i in range(len(vals)):
44
          info_A += (counts[i]/total_counts) *
  compute_entropy(data.loc[data[att_name] == vals[i]][y_name])
45
      #======#
          END YOUR CODE HERE
46
47
      #======#
48
      info_gain = total_info - info_A
49
      return info_gain
50
51
52 def comput_gain_ratio(data, att_name, y_name):
53
      gain_ratio = 0.0
```

#Calculate the values and the corresponding counts for the select

54

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```
decision_tree.py
55
       vals, counts = np.unique(data[att_name], return_counts=True)
56
       total_counts = np.sum(counts)
57
       #Calculate the information for the selected attribute
58
59
       att info = 0.0
       #======#
60
       # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
61
62
       #======#
63
       for i in range(len(vals)):
64
           p = counts[i] / total_counts
           att_info -= p * np.log2(p)
65
66
       #=======#
           END YOUR CODE HERE
67
68
       #=======#
       gain ratio = 0.0 if np.abs(att info) < 1e-9 else min(1,
69
   compute_info_gain(data, att_name, y_name) / att_info)
70
       return gain_ratio
71
72 # Class of the decision tree model based on the ID3 algorithm
73 class DecisionTree(object):
74
       def init (self):
75
           self.train_data = pd.DataFrame()
76
           self.test_data = pd.DataFrame()
77
78
       def load_data(self, train_file, test_file):
79
           self.train_data = getDataframe(train_file)
80
           self.test_data = getDataframe(test_file)
81
82
       def train(self, y_name, measure, parent_node_class = None):
83
           self.y_name = y_name
84
           self.measure = measure
85
           self.tree = self.make tree(self.train data, parent node class)
86
87
       def make_tree(self, train_data, parent_node_class = None):
88
           data = train_data
89
           features = data.drop(self.y_name, axis = 1).columns.values
           measure = self.measure
90
           #Stopping condition 1: If all target_values have the same value,
91
   return this value
92
           if len(np.unique(data[self.y_name])) <= 1:</pre>
93
               leaf value = -1
94
               #======#
95
               # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
96
               #======#
97
               leaf_node = np.unique(data[self.y_name])[0]
98
               #=======#
99
                   END YOUR CODE HERE
100
               #======#
101
               return leaf_node
102
103
           #Stopping condition 2: If the dataset is empty, return the
   parent_node_class
           elif len(data)== 0:
104
105
               return parent_node_class
106
           #Stopping condition 3: If the feature space is empty, return the
107
   majority class
108
           elif len(features) == 0:
109
               return np.unique(data[self.y_name])
```

```
10/29/2020
                                           decision_tree.py
110
111
            # Not a leaf node, create an internal node
112
113
                 #Set the default value for this node --> The mode target feature
    value of the current node
114
                 parent_node_class = np.unique(data[self.y_name])
     [np.argmax(np.unique(data[self.y_name],return_counts=True)[1])]
115
116
                 #Select the feature which best splits the dataset
117
                 if measure == 'info gain':
                     item_values = [compute_info_gain(data, feature, self.y_name)
118
    for feature in features] #Return the information gain values for the features
    in the dataset
119
                 elif measure == 'gain ratio':
120
                     item values = [comput gain ratio(data, feature, self.y name)
    for feature in features] #Return the gain_ratio for the features in the
    dataset
121
                 else:
                     raise ValueError("kernel not recognized")
122
123
124
                 best_feature_index = np.argmax(item_values)
125
                 best_feature = features[best_feature_index]
126
                 print('best_feature is: ', best_feature)
127
128
                 #Create the tree structure. The root gets the name of the feature
    (best_feature)
                 tree = {best feature:{}}
129
130
131
132
             #Grow a branch under the root node for each possible value of the
    root node feature
133
134
             for value in np.unique(data[best_feature]):
135
                 #Split the dataset along the value of the feature with the
    largest information gain and therwith create sub_datasets
                 sub data = data.where(data[best feature] == value).dropna()
136
137
138
                 #Remove the selected feature from the feature space
139
                 sub_data = sub_data.drop(best_feature, axis = 1)
140
141
                 #Call the ID3 algorithm for each of those sub datasets with the
    new parameters --> Here the recursion comes in!
142
                 subtree = self.make_tree(sub_data, parent_node_class)
143
144
                 #Add the sub tree, grown from the sub_dataset to the tree under
    the root node
145
                 tree[best_feature][value] = subtree
146
147
             return tree
148
149
150
         def test(self, y_name):
151
             accuracy = self.classify(self.test data, y name)
152
             return accuracy
153
154
         def classify(self, test_data, y_name):
155
             #Create new query instances by simply removing the target feature
    column from the test dataset and
```

156

#convert it to a dictionary

```
10/29/2020
                                            decision_tree.py
158
             test y = test data[y name]
159
160
             n = test_data.shape[0]
161
             predicted_y = np.zeros(n)
162
             #Calculate the prediction accuracy
163
             for i in range(n):
164
                 predicted_y[i] = DecisionTree.predict(self.tree, test_x.iloc[i])
165
166
167
             output = np.zeros((n,2))
             output[:,0] = test_y
168
169
             output[:,1] = predicted_y
170
             accuracy = compute_accuracy(predicted_y, test_y.values)
171
             return accuracy
172
         def predict(tree, query):
173
174
             # find the root attribute
175
             default = -1
176
             for root name in list(tree.keys()):
177
                     subtree = tree[root name][guery[root name]]
178
179
                 except:
180
                     return default ## root_name does not appear in query
    attribute list (it is an error!)
181
182
                 ##if subtree is still a dictionary, recursively test next
    attribute
183
                 if isinstance(subtree, dict):
                     return DecisionTree.predict(subtree, query)
184
185
                 else:
186
                     leaf = subtree
187
                     return leaf
188
189
```

10/29/2020 svm.py

58

```
1 import numpy as np
2 from numpy import linal
3 import cvxopt
4 import cvxopt.solvers
5 import sys
6 import pandas as pd
7 cvxopt.solvers.options['show_progress'] = False
8
9 # Reads the data from CSV files, converts it into Dataframe and returns x and
  y dataframes
10 def getDataframe(filePath):
11
      dataframe = pd.read_csv(filePath)
12
      y = dataframe['y']
13
      x = dataframe.drop('y', axis=1)
14
      y = y*2 -1.0
15
      return x.to_numpy(), y.to_numpy()
16
17 def compute_accuracy(predicted_y, y):
18
      acc = 100.0
      acc = np.sum(predicted_y == y)/predicted_y.shape[0]
19
20
      return acc
21
22 def gaussian_kernel_point(x, y, sigma=5.0):
23
      return np.exp(-linalg.norm(x-y)**2 / (2 * (sigma ** 2)))
24
25 def linear_kernel(X, Y=None):
26
      Y = X if Y is None else Y
27
      m = X.shape[0]
28
      n = Y.shape[0]
29
      assert X.shape[1] == Y.shape[1]
30
      kernel_matrix = np.zeros((m, n))
31
      #======#
32
      # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
33
      #======#
34
      for i in range(m):
35
          for j in range(n):
36
              kernel_matrix[i,j] = np.dot(X[i], Y[j])
37
      #======#
38
          END YOUR CODE HERE
39
      #======#
40
      return kernel_matrix
41
42 def polynomial_kernel(X, Y=None, degree=3):
43
      Y = X if Y is None else Y
44
      m = X.shape[0]
45
      n = Y.shape[0]
46
      assert X.shape[1] == Y.shape[1]
47
      kernel_matrix = np.zeros((m, n))
      #======#
48
49
      # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
50
      #=======#
51
      for i in range(m):
52
          for j in range(n):
53
              kernel_matrix[i,j] = (np.dot(X[i], Y[j]) + 1) ** degree
54
      #=======#
55
          END YOUR CODE HERE
56
      #======#
57
      return kernel_matrix
```

```
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                                            svm.py
        Y = X if Y is None else Y
 60
 61
        m = X.shape[0]
 62
        n = Y.shape[0]
        assert X.shape[1] == Y.shape[1]
 63
 64
        kernel matrix = np.zeros((m, n))
 65
        #=======#
        # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
 66
 67
        #======#
 68
        for i in range(m):
 69
            for j in range(n):
                kernel_matrix[i,j] = gaussian_kernel_point(X[i], Y[j])
 70
 71
        #======#
 72
            END YOUR CODE HERE
        #======#
 73
 74
        return kernel matrix
 75
 76
 77 # Bonus question: vectorized implementation of Gaussian kernel
 78 # If you decide to do the bonus question, comment the gaussian_kernel
    function above,
 79 # then implement and uncomment this one.
 80 # def gaussian_kernel(X, Y=None, sigma=5.0):
 81 #
          return
 82
 83 class SVM(object):
 84
        def __init__(self):
 85
            self.train x = pd.DataFrame()
 86
            self.train_y = pd.DataFrame()
 87
            self.test_x = pd.DataFrame()
 88
            self.test_y = pd.DataFrame()
            self.kernel name = None
 89
 90
            self.kernel = None
 91
 92
        def load_data(self, train_file, test_file):
 93
            self.train_x, self.train_y = getDataframe(train_file)
 94
            self.test_x, self.test_y = getDataframe(test_file)
 95
 96
 97
        def train(self, kernel_name='linear_kernel', C=None):
 98
            self.kernel_name = kernel_name
            if(kernel name == 'linear kernel'):
 99
                self.kernel = linear_kernel
100
            elif(kernel_name == 'polynomial_kernel'):
101
102
                self.kernel = polynomial kernel
            elif(kernel_name == 'gaussian_kernel'):
103
104
                self.kernel = gaussian_kernel
105
            else:
                raise ValueError("kernel not recognized")
106
107
108
            self.C = C
            if self.C is not None:
109
                self.C = float(self.C)
110
111
112
            self.fit(self.train_x, self.train_y)
113
114
        # predict labels for test dataset
115
        def predict(self, X):
            if self.w is not None: ## linear case
116
117
                n = X.shape[0]
```

```
10/29/2020
                                        svm.py
119
              #=======#
120
              # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
121
              #======#
              predicted_y = np.dot(X, self.w) + self.b
122
123
              #======#
124
                  END YOUR CODE HERE #
125
              #=======#
126
               return predicted_y
127
128
           else: ## non-linear case
129
              n = X_shape[0]
              predicted_y = np.zeros(n)
130
131
              #======#
132
              # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
133
              #======#
134
              kernel_matrix = self.kernel(X, self.sv)
              predicted_y = np.dot(kernel_matrix * self.sv_y, self.a) + self.b
135
136
              #======#
                  END YOUR CODE HERE
137
138
              #======#
139
               return predicted_y
140
141
       # Please DON'T change any code below this line! #
142
       143
       def fit(self, X, y):
144
145
           n_samples, n_features = X.shape
146
           # Kernel matrix
           K = self.kernel(X)
147
148
149
           # dealing with dual form quadratic optimization
           P = cvxopt.matrix(np.outer(v,v) * K)
150
151
           q = cvxopt.matrix(np.ones(n_samples) * -1)
           A = cvxopt.matrix(y, (1,n_samples),'d')
152
153
           b = cvxopt.matrix(0.0)
154
           if self.C is None:
155
156
              G = cvxopt.matrix(np.diag(np.ones(n_samples) * -1))
157
              h = cvxopt.matrix(np.zeros(n_samples))
158
           else:
159
               tmp1 = np.diag(np.ones(n samples) * -1)
              tmp2 = np.identity(n_samples)
160
161
              G = cvxopt.matrix(np.vstack((tmp1, tmp2)))
162
              tmp1 = np.zeros(n samples)
              tmp2 = np.ones(n_samples) * self.C
163
164
              h = cvxopt.matrix(np.hstack((tmp1, tmp2)))
165
166
           # solve QP problem
           solution = cvxopt.solvers.qp(P, q, G, h, A, b)
167
           # Lagrange multipliers
168
169
           a = np.ravel(solution['x'])
170
171
           # Support vectors have non zero lagrange multipliers
172
           sv = a > 1e-5
173
           ind = np.arange(len(a))[sv]
174
           self.a = a[sv]
           self.sv = X[sv]
175
```

176

self.sv\_y = y[sv]

```
10/29/2020
                                              svm.py
             print("%d support vectors out of %d points" % (len(self.a),
178
    n_samples))
179
180
             # Intercept via average calculating b over support vectors
181
             self.b = 0
             for n in range(len(self.a)):
182
                 self.b += self.sv_y[n]
183
                 self.b -= np.sum(self.a * self.sv_y * K[ind[n],sv])
184
185
             self.b /= len(self.a)
186
             # Weight vector
187
             if self.kernel_name == 'linear_kernel':
188
                 self.w = np.zeros(n_features)
189
190
                 for n in range(len(self.a)):
                     self.w += self.a[n] * self.sv y[n] * self.sv[n]
191
192
             else:
193
                 self.w = None
194
195
196
        def test(self):
197
             accuracy = self.classify(self.test_x, self.test_y)
198
             return accuracy
199
        def classify(self, X, y):
200
             predicted_y = np.sign(self.predict(X))
201
202
             accuracy = compute_accuracy(predicted_y, y)
203
             return accuracy
```

## CS145 Howework 2

Important Note: HW2 is due on 11:59 PM PT, Oct 30 (Friday, Week 4). Please submit through GradeScope.

### Print Out Your Name and UID

\*Name: Ali Mirabzadeh, UID: 305179067 \*

## **Before You Start**

You need to first create HW2 conda environment by the given cs145hw2.yml file, which provides the name and necessary packages for this tasks. If you have conda properly installed, you may create, activate or deactivate by the following commands:

```
conda env create -f cs145hw2.yml
conda activate hw1
conda deactivate
```

OR

```
conda env create --name NAMEOFYOURCHOICE -f cs145hw2.yml
conda activate NAMEOFYOURCHOICE
conda deactivate
```

To view the list of your environments, use the following command:

```
conda env list
```

More useful information about managing environments can be found <a href="https://docs.conda.io/projects/conda/en/latest/user-guide/tasks/manage-environments.html">https://docs.conda.io/projects/conda/en/latest/user-guide/tasks/manage-environments.html</a>).

You may also quickly review the usage of basic Python and Numpy package, if needed in coding for matrix operations.

In this notebook, you must not delete any code cells in this notebook. If you change any code outside the blocks (such as some important hyperparameters) that you are allowed to edit (between STRART/END YOUR CODE HERE), you need to highlight these changes. You may add some additional cells to help explain your results and observations.

```
In [10]: import numpy as np
   import pandas as pd
   import seaborn as sns
   import sys
   import random as rd
   import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%load_ext autoreload
%autoreload 2
```

The autoreload extension is already loaded. To reload it, use: %reload ext autoreload

If you can successfully run the code above, there will be no problem for environment setting.

## 1. Decision trees

This workbook will walk you through a decision tree.

#### 1.1 Attribute selection measures

For classification models, misclassification rate is usually used as the final performance measurement. However, for classification trees, when selecting which attribute to split, measurements people often use includes information gain, gain ratio, and Gini index. Let's investigate these different measurements through the following problem.

Note: below shows how to calculate the misclassification rate of a classification tree with N total data points, K classes of the value we want to predict, and M leaf nodes.

In a node  $m, m=1,\ldots,M$ , let's denote the number of data points using  $N_m$ , and the number of data points in class k as  $N_{mk}$ , so the class prediction under majority vote is  $j=argmax_kN_{mk}$ . The misclassification rate of this node m is  $R_m=1-\frac{N_{mj}}{N_m}$ . The total misclassification rate of the tree will be  $R=\frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M}R_m*N_m}{N}$ 

#### Questions

Note: this question is a pure "question answer" problem. You don't need to do any coding.

Suppose our dataset includes a total of 800 people with 400 males and 400 females, and our goal is to do gender classification. Consider two different possible attributes we can split on in a decision tree model. Split on the first attribute results in a node11 with 300 male and 100 female, and a node12 with 100 male and 300 female. Split on the second attribute results in in a node21 with 400 male and 200 female, and a node22 with 200 female only.

- 1. Which split do you prefer when the measurement is misclassifcation rate and why?
- 2. What is the entropy in each of these four node?
- 3. What is the information gain of each of the two splits?

- 4. Which split do you prefer if the measurement is information gain. Do you see why it is an uncertainty or impurity measurement?
- 5. What is the gain ratio (normalized information gain) of each of the two splits? Which split do you prefer under this measurement. Do you get the same conclusion as information gain?

#### Your answer here:

Note: you can use several code cells to help you compute the results and answer the questions. Again you don't need to do any coding.

#### Please type your answer here!

answer 1: I prefer the 2nd split as has a lower  $R_m = 0.33$  whereas the first one has  $R_m = 0.5$ 

```
answer 2:
```

```
node11: entropy(3/4, 1/4) = -3/4log2(3/4) - 1/4log2(1/4) = 0.811

node12: entropy(1/4, 3/4) = -1/4log2(1/4) - 3/4log2(3/4) = 0.811

node21: entropy(2/3, 1/3) = -2/3log2(2/3) - 1/3log2(1/3) = 0.918

node22: entropy(0, 1) = -0log2(0) - 1log2(1) = 0

info(beforesplit1) = entropy(1/2, 1/2) = 1

info(beforesplit2) = entropy(1/2, 1/2) = 1
```

#### answer 3:

```
info gain(split1) = info([400, 400]) - info([300, 100], [100, 300]) = 1 - ((1/2)0.811) + (1/2) * 0.811) = 0.189 info gain(split2) = info([600, 200]) - info([400, 200], [0, 200]) = 1 - ((3/4)0.918) + (1/4) * 0) = 0.312
```

answer 4: Split1 is better as it has a better information gain. Yes, I can see that information gain is biased towards attributes with larger values

```
answer 5:
```

```
Gain Ratio (split1) = 0.189/1 = 0.189
Gain Ratio (split2) = 0.312/0.811 = 0.384
```

I got different results as you can see! I think split two would be better as at least in one branch we're getting all females

## 1.2 Coding decision trees

In this section, we are going to use the decision tree model to predict the the animal type class of the zoo dataset. The dataset has been preprocessed and splited into decision-tree-train.csv and decision-tree-test.csv for you.

```
In [7]: from hw2code.decision_tree import DecisionTree
    mytree = DecisionTree()
    mytree.load_data('./data/decision-tree-train.csv','./data/decision-tree-tes
    # As a sanity check, we print out the size of the training data (80, 17) an
    print('Training data shape: ', mytree.train_data.shape)
    print('Testing data shape:', mytree.test_data.shape)
Training data shape: (80, 17)
```

## 1.2.1 Infomation gain

Testing data shape: (21, 17)

Complete the make\_tree and compute\_info\_gain function in decision\_tree.py.

Train you model using info gain measure to classify type and print the test accuracy.

```
In [8]: mytree = DecisionTree()
   mytree.load_data('./data/decision-tree-train.csv','./data/decision-tree-tes
   test_acc = 0
   #==========#
# STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
#==========#
mytree.train('type', 'info_gain')
test_acc = mytree.test('type')
#===========#
# END YOUR CODE HERE #
#=========#
print('Test accuracy is: ', test_acc)
```

```
best_feature is: legs
best_feature is: fins
best_feature is: toothed
best_feature is: eggs
best_feature is: hair
best_feature is: hair
best_feature is: toothed
best_feature is: aquatic
Test accuracy is: 0.8571428571428571
```

### 1.2.2 Gain ratio

Complete the compute\_gain\_ratio function in decision\_tree.py .

Train you model using gain ratio measure to classify type and print the test accuracy.

```
In [9]: mytree = DecisionTree()
  mytree.load_data('./data/decision-tree-train.csv','./data/decision-tree-tes
  test_acc = 0
  #===========#
  # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
  #===========#
  mytree.train('type', 'gain_ratio')
  test_acc = mytree.test('type')
  #===========#
  # END YOUR CODE HERE #
  #=========#
  print('Test accuracy is: ', test_acc)
```

```
best_feature is: feathers
best_feature is: backbone
best_feature is: airborne
best_feature is: predator
best_feature is: milk
best_feature is: fins
best_feature is: legs
Test accuracy is: 0.8095238095238095
```

#### Question

Which measure do you like the most and why?

#### Your answer here:

I would chose information gain as it has a better accuracy. Here the lower accuracy for Gain Ratio might be becasue it reduced the bias towards multi-valued attributes.

## 2. SVM

This workbook will walk you through a SVM.

## 2.1 Support vectors and decision boundary

Note: for this question you can work entirely in the Jupyter Notebook, no need to edit any .py files.

Consider classifying the following 20 data points in the 2-d plane with class label y

```
In [7]: ds = pd.read_csv('data/svm-2d-data.csv')
ds
# This command above will print out the first five data points
# in the dataset with column names as "x1", "x2" and "y"
# You may use command "ds" to show the entire dataset, which contains 20 da
```

$\sim$	 	 7 7	

	<b>x1</b>	<b>x2</b>	У
0	0.52	-1.00	1
1	0.91	0.32	1
2	-1.48	1.23	1
3	0.01	1.44	1
4	-0.46	-0.37	1
5	0.41	2.04	1
6	0.53	0.77	1
7	-1.21	-1.10	1
8	-0.39	0.96	1
9	-0.96	0.08	1
10	2.46	2.59	-1
11	3.05	2.87	-1
12	2.20	3.04	-1
13	1.89	2.64	-1
14	4.51	-0.52	-1
15	3.06	1.30	-1
16	3.16	-0.56	-1
17	2.05	1.54	-1
18	2.34	0.72	-1
19	2.94	0.13	-1

Suppose by solving the dual form of the quadratic programming of svm, we can derive the  $\alpha_i$ 's for each data point as follows: Among  $j=0,1,\cdots,19$  (note that the index starts from 0),  $\alpha_1=0.5084$ ,  $\alpha_5=0.4625$ ,  $\alpha_{17}=0.9709$ , and  $\alpha_j=0$  for all other j.

#### Questions

- 1. Which vectors in the training points are support vectors?
- 2. What is the normal vector of the hyperplane w?
- 3. What is the bias b?
- 4. With the parameters w and b, we can now use our SVM to do predictions. What is predicted label of  $x_{new} = (2, -0.5)$ ? Write out your  $f(x_{new})$ .

5. A plot of the data points has been generated for you. Please change the support\_vec
variable such that only the support vectors are indicated by red circles. Please also fill in the code to draw the decision boundary. Does your prediction of part 4 seems right visually on the plot?

#### Your answer here

Note: you can use several code cells to help you compute the results and answer the questions. Again you don't need to edit any .py files.

### Please type your answer here!

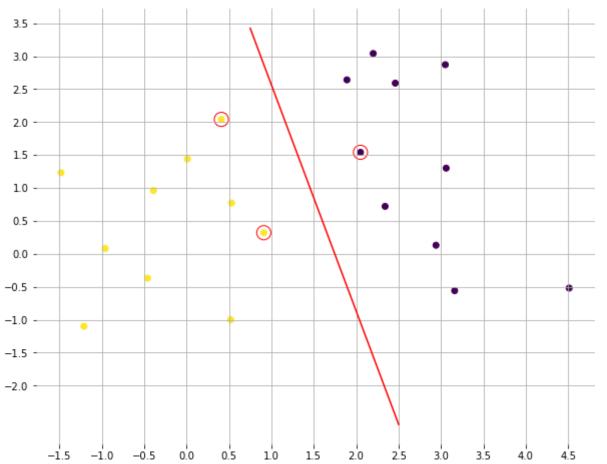
answer 1: The support vectors are those with a non-zero alpha: data points 1, 5, and 17(indexed 0): <0.91, 0.32>, <0.41, 2.04>, <2.05, 1.54>

answer 2: 
$$w = \sum_{i} (\alpha_i * y_i * x_i) \Rightarrow w = < -1.34, 0.39 >$$

answer 3: 
$$b = \frac{\sum y_k - w^T x_k}{N_k} = b = 2.34$$

answer 4: 
$$f(x_{new}) = -1.34x_1 - 0.39x_2 + 2.34 \Rightarrow f(x_{new}) = -0.14$$

```
In [9]: # answer 5
       x1 \text{ range} = np.arange(-2, 5, 0.5)
       x2_range = np.arange(-2, 4., 0.5)
       fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(10, 8))
       ax = fig.gca()
       ax.set_xticks(x1_range)
       ax.set_yticks(x2_range)
       ax.grid()
       ax.scatter(ds['x1'], ds['x2'], c=ds['y'])
       support_vec = ds
       #======#
       # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
       #======#
       support_vec = ds.loc[(ds['x1'] == 0.91) | (ds['x1'] == 0.41) | (ds['x1'] == 0.41) |
       w = -1.34/0.39
       x = np.linspace(0.75, 2.5)
       y = w * x - 2.34 / -0.39
       plt.plot(x, y, 'r-')
       #======#
           END YOUR CODE HERE
       #======#
       ax.scatter(support_vec['x1'], support_vec['x2'], marker='o', facecolor='non
       sns.despine(ax=ax, left=True, bottom=True, offset=0)
       plt.show()
```



## 2.2 Coding SVM

In this section, we are going to use SVM for classifying the y value of 4-dimensional data points. The dataset has been preprocessed and splited into svm-train.csv and svm-test.csv for you.

For this question we are going to use the <code>cvxopt</code> package to help us solve the optimization problem of SVM. You will see it in the .py files, but you don't need to any coding with it. For this question, you only need to implement the right kernel function, and your kernel matrix <code>K</code> in <code>svm.py</code> line 135 will be pluged in the <code>cvxopt</code> optimization problem solver.

For more information about cyxopt please refer to http://cyxopt.org/ (http://cyxopt.org/)

```
In [2]: from hw2code.svm import SVM
       svm = SVM()
       svm.load_data('./data/svm-train.csv', './data/svm-test.csv')
       # As a sanity check, we print out the size of the training data (1098, 4) a
       print('Training data shape: ', svm.train_x.shape, svm.train_y.shape)
       print('Testing data shape:', svm.test_x.shape, svm.test_y.shape)
       svm.train x
       Training data shape: (1098, 4) (1098,)
       Testing data shape: (274, 4) (274,)
                 3.6216 , 8.6661 , -2.8073 , -0.446991,
Out[2]: array([[
                 4.5459 , 8.1674 , -2.4586 , -1.4621 ],
              ſ
                                                0.10645],
                 3.866 , -2.6383 , 1.9242 ,
              [
              [-4.4775, -13.0303, 17.0834, -3.0345],
              [-4.1958, -8.1819, 12.1291,
                                               -1.6017 ],
              [-3.38, -0.7077, 2.5325, 0.71808]])
```

### 2.2.1 Linear kernel

Complete the SVM.predict and linear\_kernel function in svm.py. Train a hard margin SVM and a soft margin SVM with linear kernel. Print the test accuracy for both cases.

```
In [3]: svm hard = SVM()
      svm hard.load data('./data/svm-train.csv', './data/svm-test.csv')
      hard test acc = 0
       #======#
       # STRART YOUR CODE HERE
       #======#
       svm_hard.train('linear_kernel')
       hard pred = svm hard.predict(svm hard.train x)
      hard test acc = svm hard.test()
       #=======#
        END YOUR CODE HERE
       #=======#
      svm soft = SVM()
       svm_soft.load_data('./data/svm-train.csv', './data/svm-test.csv')
       soft test acc = 0
       #======#
       # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
       #======#
       svm soft.train('linear kernel', 100)
       soft pred = svm soft.predict(svm soft.train x)
       soft_test_acc = svm_soft.test()
       #======#
          END YOUR CODE HERE
       #======#
       print('Hard margin test accuracy is: ', hard_test_acc)
       print('Soft margin test accuracy is: ', soft test acc)
```

```
1098 support vectors out of 1098 points
30 support vectors out of 1098 points
Hard margin test accuracy is: 0.5547445255474452
Soft margin test accuracy is: 0.9890510948905109
```

#### Questions

Are these two results similar? Why or why not?

#### Your Answer

No, they are not similar! Hard margin has lower accuracy as there are no missclassification. Soft margin has a better accuracy as we allow missclassification

## 2.2.2 Polynomial kernel

Complete the  $polynomial\_kernel$  function in svm.py. Train a soft margin SVM with degree 3 polynomial kernel and parameter C = 100 for the regularization term. Print the test accuracy.

```
In [4]: svm = SVM()
    svm.load_data('./data/svm-train.csv', './data/svm-test.csv')
    test_acc = 0
#========#
# STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
#=========#
svm.train('polynomial_kernel', 100)
pred = svm.predict(svm.train_x)
test_acc = svm.test()
#========#
# END YOUR CODE HERE #
#========#
print('Test accuracy is: ', test_acc)
```

19 support vectors out of 1098 points Test accuracy is: 0.927007299270073

#### Questions

Is the result better than linear kernel? Why or why not?

#### **Your Answer**

No, Polynomial Kernel has a lower accuracy and I think that's because of our dataset as it's not that noisy and classifies better with linear\_kernel

### 2.2.3 Gaussian kernel

Complete the gaussian\_kernel function using the gaussian\_kernel\_point in svm.py. Train a soft margin SVM with Gaussian kernel and parameter C = 100 for the regularization term. Print the test accuracy.

```
In [5]: svm = SVM()
    svm.load_data('./data/svm-train.csv', './data/svm-test.csv')
    test_acc = 0
    #===========#
    # STRART YOUR CODE HERE #
    #svm.train('gaussian_kernel', 100)
    pred = svm.predict(svm.train_x)
    test_acc = svm.test()
    #=========#
    # END YOUR CODE HERE #
    #=======#
    print('Test accuracy is: ', test_acc)
```

35 support vectors out of 1098 points Test accuracy is: 1.0

#### Questions

- 1. Is the result better than linear kernel and polynomial kernel? Why or why not?
- 2. Which one of these four models do you like the most and why?
- 3. (Bonus question, optional) Can you come up with a vectorized implementation of gaussian kernel without calling gaussian kernel point? Fill that in svm.py.

#### Your Answer

Please write down your answers and/or observations here

answer 1: Yes, it's better as the accuracy is 1. and that is because it becomes easier to overfit the data; however, the computation is slow

answer 2: For this dataset, I'd choose Linear Kernel as it has a really good accuracy and it's faster than gaussian\_kernel

# End of Homework 2:)

After you've finished the homework, please print out the entire <code>ipynb</code> notebook and two <code>py</code> files into one PDF file. Make sure you include the output of code cells and answers for questions. Prepare submit it to GradeScope. Also this time remember assign the pages to the questions on GradeScope