

# Comp 6321 - Machine Learning - Assignment 3

Federico O'Reilly Regueiro

November 10<sup>th</sup>, 2016

## Question 1: Midterm preparation question

Propose an adequate learning algorithm for each instance.

- 1.a 1000 samples, 6-dimensional continuous space, classify  $\sim 100$  examples.
- 1.b Classifier for children in special-ed, justified to the board before it's implemented.

One of the easiest classification algorithms to explain in layman's terms is decision trees; since the method should be justified to the board, this would probably be an adequate choice.

- 1.c Binary classification of 1 million bits (empirical preference rate for others), very large data-set. Frequent updates.
- 1.d 40 attributes, discrete and continuous, some have noise; only about 50 labeled observations.

## Question 2: Properties of entropy

- 2.a Compute the following for  $(X, Y)$ :

$$p(0, 0) = 1/3, p(0, 1) = 1/3, p(1, 0) = 0, p(1, 1) = 1/3.$$

- i  $H[x] = -\sum_x p(x) \log_2(p(x)) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) - \frac{2}{3} \log_2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = .9182$
- ii  $H[y] = -\sum_y p(y) \log_2(p(y)) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) - \frac{2}{3} \log_2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = .9182$
- iii  $H[y|x] = -\sum_x p(x) H[Y|X=x] = -\frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right) = \frac{2}{3}$
- iv  $H[x|y] = -\sum_y p(y) H[X|Y=y] = -\frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right) = \frac{2}{3}$
- v  $H[x, y] = -\sum_x \sum_y p(x, y) \log_2(p(x, y)) = 3 \left(-\frac{1}{3} \log_2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right) = 1.5849$

vi  $I[x, y] = \sum_x \sum_y p(x, y) \log_2 \left( \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right) = H[x] - H[x|y] = 0.2516$

## 2.b Prove maximum entropy in a discrete distribution happens in $U$

We wish to find:

$$\arg \max_{p_n} \sum_{n=1}^N p_n \log(p_n)$$

With constraints:

$$1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n = 0, p_i \geq 0, \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$$

We use Lagrange for maximization with constraints with a lagrangian multiplier only for the first constraint<sup>1</sup>:

$$\mathcal{L}(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n, \lambda) = \sum_{n=1}^N p_n \log(p_n) - \lambda(1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n)$$

And by setting the gradient of the Lagrangian function to 0

$$\nabla_{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N, \lambda} \mathcal{L}(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n, \lambda) = 0$$

We are thus left with a system:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p_1} \sum_{n=1}^N p_n \log(p_n) - \lambda(1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n) &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p_2} \sum_{n=1}^N p_n \log(p_n) - \lambda(1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p_N} \sum_{n=1}^N p_n \log(p_n) - \lambda(1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n) &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} \lambda(1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Which in turn yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \log(p_1) + 1 - \lambda p_1 &= 0 \\ \log(p_2) + 1 - \lambda p_2 &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ \log(p_N) + 1 - \lambda p_N &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

---

<sup>1</sup>The second constraint should be satisfied by the following solution

$$1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n = 0 \quad (1)$$

From which:

$$\lambda = \frac{\log(p_1) + 1}{p_1} = \frac{\log(p_2) + 1}{p_2} = \dots = \frac{\log(p_N) + 1}{p_N} \quad (2)$$

it is clear from equations ?? and ?? that  $p_1 = p_2 = \dots p_N = \frac{1}{N}$ , which is precisely a discrete uniform distribution.

## 2.c Show that $T_1$ wins

The notes show two possible tests for a decision tree.  $T_1$ , where the left child has  $[20+, 10-]$  possible outcomes in its sub-trees and the right node has  $[10+, 0-]$ .  $T_2$ , on the other hand, yields:  $left = [15+, 7-]$ ;  $right = [15+, 3-]$ .

The best choice should yield the maximum mutual information or information gain  $I[p, T_n], n \in \{1, 2\}$ . So for  $T_1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} H[p] &= -\frac{1}{4}\log_2\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) - \frac{3}{4}\log_2\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) = 0.8112 \\ H[p|T_1 = t] &= -\frac{2}{3}\log_2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) - \frac{1}{3}\log_2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 0.9182 \\ H[p|T_1 = f] &= 0 \\ H[p|T_1] &= p(T_1 = t)H[p|T_1 = t] + p(T_1 = f)H[p|T_1 = f] \\ &= 0.6887 \\ I[p, T_1] &= H[p] - H[p|T_1] = 0.1225 \end{aligned}$$

Whereas for  $T_2$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} H[p|T_2 = t] &= -\frac{15}{22}\log_2\left(\frac{15}{22}\right) - \frac{7}{22}\log_2\left(\frac{7}{22}\right) = 0.9024 \\ H[p|T_2 = f] &= -\frac{15}{18}\log_2\left(\frac{15}{18}\right) - \frac{3}{18}\log_2\left(\frac{3}{18}\right) = 0.65002 \\ H[p|T_2] &= p(T_2 = t)H[p|T_2 = t] + p(T_2 = f)H[p|T_2 = f] \\ &= \frac{22}{40}0.9024 + \frac{18}{40}0.65002 = 0.7888 \\ I[p, T_2] &= H[p] - H[p|T_2] = 0.02245 \end{aligned}$$

From which we can see that we gain much more information from knowing the result of  $T_1$  than by knowing the result of  $T_2$ .

## Question 3: Kernels

Suppose  $k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  and  $k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  are valid kernels over  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ . Prove or disprove that the following are valid kernels.

Use Mercer's theorem regarding the Gram matrix<sup>2</sup> or the fact that a kernel can be expressed as  $k(x, z) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{z})$ .

### preliminaries

From Mercer, we know for each  $k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  and  $k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  we have corresponding kernel matrices  $\mathbf{M}_1$  and  $\mathbf{M}_2$  which are symmetric and positive semi-definite.

For both  $\mathbf{M}_1$  and  $\mathbf{M}_2$ :

Symmetry:

$$\mathbf{M}_i = \mathbf{M}_i^T \quad (3)$$

Positive semidefiniteness:

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{M}_i \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \quad (4)$$

$$|\mathbf{M}_i| \geq 0 \quad (5)$$

#### 3.a $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = ak_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + bk_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}), a, b > 0; a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Firstly, we establish that if  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  is a valid kernel, then  $ak(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  is also a valid kernel  $\forall a > 0; a \in \mathbb{R}$ :

We know that for a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  of size  $n \times n$ ,  $|a\mathbf{A}| = a^n |\mathbf{A}|$ . And, since  $a \geq 0$ , we know that  $a^n \geq 0$ . Thus equation ?? holds for both of our summands. Additionally, since the scalar multiplication of a symmetric matrix yields another symmetric matrix, both summands are symmetric and therefore valid kernels.

Now, let us say:

$$ak_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k'_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

and

$$bk_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k'_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

are both valid kernels with kernel matrices  $\mathbf{M}'_1$  and  $\mathbf{M}'_2$ . The addition of two symmetric matrices yields a symmetric matrix, so we need to check for positive semi-definiteness.

Since both  $\mathbf{M}'_1$  and  $\mathbf{M}'_2$  are symmetric we can write:

$$\mathbf{M}'_1 = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_U \mathbf{U}$$

$$\mathbf{M}'_2 = \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_V \mathbf{V}$$

and using equation ??:

$$(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_U \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_V \mathbf{V} \mathbf{x}) \geq 0$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_U \mathbf{U} + \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_V \mathbf{V}) \mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{M}'_1 + \mathbf{M}'_2) \mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

Which proves that  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = ak_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + bk_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}), a, b > 0; a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  is a valid kernel.

---

<sup>2</sup>Equivalently known as the kernel matrix.

**3.b**  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = ak_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - bk_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}), a, b > 0; a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Suppose:

$$a = 1, b = 1, M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

Both  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  symmetric, positive semi-definite matrices. Yet  $M' = aM_1 - bM_2$  would yield:

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of which are  $\lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 1$ , making  $M'$  a non positive semi-definite matrix and thus  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  is not a valid kernel.

**3.c**  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$

The kernel matrix  $M'$  of the product of two matrices  $k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}), k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  is equivalent to the element-wise multiplication of the respective two kernel matrices  $M' = M_1 \odot M_2$ . This is also known as the Hadamard product or the Schur product. The Schur product theorem states that said product of two positive semi-definite matrices is also positive semi-definite. It is trivial to show that symmetry is preserved under such conditions. Thus  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$  is a valid kernel.

**3.d**  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = f(\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{z}), \text{ where } f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Here we rely on the fact that a kernel can be expressed as  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{z})$  where  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$  maps  $\mathbf{x}$  onto an n-dimensional space.

It is trivial to see that if  $n = 1$  and  $\phi = f$ ,  $f(\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{z})$  constitutes a valid kernel since it can be expressed as  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{z})$ .

**3.e**  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{z}), \text{ where } p \text{ pdf.}$

The same rationale as question ?? applies here.

## Question 4: Nearest neighbour vs decision trees, do boundaries coincide?

Boundaries do not necessarily coincide for these two classification strategies; moreover, in typical usage, they would tend to be non-coincidental but in some rare or contrived cases the boundaries might equate.

Decision tree boundaries are typically composed of hyper-planes that are orthogonal to the features  $f_d$  chosen for each decision; boundaries pass through the midpoint between points neighboring on a projection along the axis of  $f_d$ <sup>3</sup>.

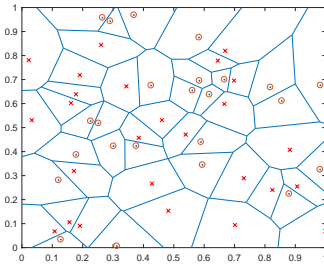
---

<sup>3</sup>We note that any function of an arbitrary number of features may be used as a decision or boundary segment but this is a somewhat contrived usage of the decision tree algorithm.

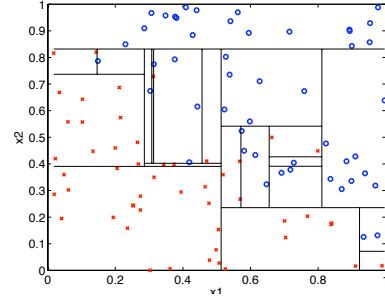
Thus each segment of a decision-tree boundary can have one out of  $n$  directions for an  $n$ -dimensional space.

Conversely, boundaries for nearest-neighbours correspond to a Voronoi tessellation, where each boundary segment corresponds to a hyper-plane running orthogonal to the line between the boundary's nearest neighbors and passing through the midpoint of such a line (thus the ensemble of said hyperplanes has a wide gammut of directions witin the space).

For an example, see figures ?? and ??.



(a) Nearest-neighbour



(b) decision tree

Figure 1: A Voronoi tessellation has boundary segments in many different directions, perpendicular to the lines between any two nearest-neighbors whereas decision-tree boundary segments are typically perpendicular to any one of a given set of features or feature combinations

## Question 5: Bayes rate

For the following univariate case where  $P(\omega_i) = \frac{1}{c}$  and

$$P(x|\omega_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{cr}{c-1} \\ 1 & i \leq x \leq i+1 - \frac{cr}{c-1} \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

### 5.a Show that $P^* = r$

The minimal multi-class classification error rate  $P^*$  is given by:

$$P^* = 1 - \int \arg \max_i P(\omega_i) P(x|\omega_i) dx$$

And given the class density and probability, we can see that for any region with overlapping densities, the choice of any  $i$  will maximize. Additionally, we see

that the constraints imposed by existing densities demand that  $0 \leq r \leq \frac{c-1}{c}$ . This in turn implies that densities overlap only in  $[0, \frac{cr}{c-1}]$  Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}
P^* &= 1 - \int P(\omega_1)P(x|\omega_1)dx \\
&= 1 - \frac{1}{c} \int_0^{\frac{cr}{c-1}} dx - \sum_{i=1}^c \frac{1}{c} \int_i^{i+1-\frac{cr}{c-1}} dx \\
&= 1 - \frac{1}{c} \frac{cr}{c-1} - 1 - \frac{cr}{c-1} \\
&= \frac{cr-r}{c-1} \\
&= r
\end{aligned}$$

**5.b Show the nearest-neighbor rate  $P = P^*$**

$$\begin{aligned}
LNN &= \int \left[ 1 - \sum_{i=1}^c P^2(\omega_i|x) \right] p(x) dx \\
&= \int \left[ 1 - \sum_{i=1}^c \left( \frac{P(x|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)}{p(x)} \right)^2 \right] p(x) dx \\
&= \int p(x) - \sum_{i=1}^c \frac{P(x|\omega_i)^2 P(\omega_i)^2}{p(x)} dx \\
&= \int p(x) - \sum_{i=1}^c \frac{P(x|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)(P(x|\omega_i)P(\omega_i))}{p(x)} dx \\
&= \int p(x) - \sum_{i=1}^c \frac{P(x|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)p(x)}{p(x)} dx \\
&= \int p(x) dx - \frac{1}{c} \int_0^{\frac{cr}{c-1}} dx - \sum_{i=1}^c \frac{1}{c} \int_i^{i+1-\frac{cr}{c-1}} dx \\
&= 1 - \frac{1}{c} \frac{cr}{c-1} - 1 - \frac{cr}{c-1} \\
&= \frac{cr-r}{c-1} \\
&= r
\end{aligned}$$

## Question 6: Implementation