CSC311, Fall 2022, Homework 2

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Due Monday, October 17, 2022

a) The expected loss $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y,t)]$ for y=Keep:

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y=Keep,t)] &= P(t=NonSpam) * \mathcal{J}(y=Keep,t=NonSpam) \ &+ P(t=Spam) * \mathcal{J}(y=Keep,t=Spam) \ &= 0+0.2*1 \ &= 0.2 \end{aligned}$$

The expected loss $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y,t)]$ for y = Remove:

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y=Remove,t)] &= P(t=NonSpam) * \mathcal{J}(y=Remove,t=NonSpam) \ &+ P(t=Spam) * \mathcal{J}(y=Remove,t=Spam) \ &= 0.8 * 500 + 0 \ &= 400 \end{aligned}$$

b) Denote S = Spam, NS = NonSpam, K = Keep, R = Remove. Given the conditional probability P(t = S|x), the Bayes optimal $y* \in \{Keep, Remove\}$ can be obtained by having $y_* = \underset{y \in \{Keep, Remove\}}{argmin} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y,t)|x]$. Where When y = Keep:

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y=K,t)|x] &= \mathcal{J}(y=K,t=NS) * P(t=NS|x) \ &+ \mathcal{J}(y=K,t=S) * P(t=S|x) \ &= 0 * P(t=NS|x) + 1 * P(t=S|x) \ &= P(t=S|x) \end{aligned}$$

When y = Remove:

Note:
$$\overline{P(t=S|x)} = 1 - P(t=NS|x)$$

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y=R,t)|x] &= \mathcal{J}(y=R,t=NS)*P(t=NS|x) \ &+ \mathcal{J}(y=R,t=S)*P(t=S|x) \ &= 500*P(t=NS|x)+0*P(t=S|x) \ &= 500*(1-P(t=S|x)) \end{aligned}$$

Since we want to minimize $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y,t)|x]$, we can choose the Bayes optimal as

$$egin{aligned} y_* &= egin{cases} Keep, & P(t = S|x) \leq 500*(1 - P(t = S|x)) \ Remove, & P(t = S|x) > 500*(1 - P(t = S|x)) \ &= egin{cases} Keep, & P(t = S|x) \leq rac{500}{501} \ Remove, & P(t = S|x) > rac{500}{501} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

c) We know

$$P(x_1,x_2) = P((x_1,x_2)|t=S) * P(t=S) + P((x_1,x_2)|t=NS) * P(t=NS)$$

- $P(x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0) = 0.45 * 0.2 + 0.996 * 0.8 = 0.8868$
- $P(x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1) = 0.25 * 0.2 + 0.002 * 0.8 = 0.0516$
- $P(x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0) = 0.18 * 0.2 + 0.002 * 0.8 = 0.0376$
- $P(x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1) = 0.12 * 0.2 + 0 * 0.8 = 0.024$

From b), we only need to find what $P(t = S|(x_1, x_2))$ is for different combinations of x_1 and x_2 and see which combination decides what the Bayes Optimal is. The formula is

$$P(t=S|(x_1,x_2)) = rac{P((x_1,x_2)|t=S)*P(t=S)}{P(x_1,x_2)}$$

1. For $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0$:

$$P(t=S|(x_1,x_2)) = rac{0.45*0.2}{0.8868} = rac{75}{739} = 0.101488... \leq rac{500}{501}$$

2. For $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1$:

$$P(t=S|(x_1,x_2)) = rac{0.25*0.2}{0.0516} = rac{125}{129} = 0.968992... \leq rac{500}{501}$$

3. For $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0$:

$$P(t=S|(x_1,x_2)) = rac{0.18*0.2}{0.0376} = rac{45}{47} = 0.9574468... \leq rac{500}{501}$$

4. For $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$:

$$P(t=S|(x_1,x_2)) = rac{0.12*0.2}{0.024} = 1 > rac{500}{501}$$

Based on part b and the result we get, given features x_1, x_2 , the Bayes Optimal decision for y_* would be

$$y_* = egin{cases} Keep, & x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0 \lor x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1 \lor x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0 \ Remove, & x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1 \end{cases}$$

d) According to the Bayes decision rule from part c. The expected loss $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y_*,t)]$ is

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{J}(y_*,t)] = 1 * P(y_* = K, t = S) + 500 * P(y_* = R, t = NS)$$

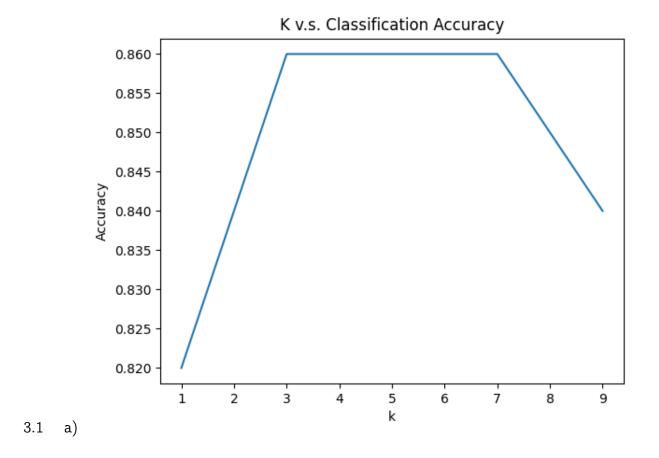
$$= 1 * \left[P(t = S | (x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0)) * P(x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0) + P(t = S | (x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1)) * P(x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1) + P(t = S | (x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0)) * P(x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0) \right]$$

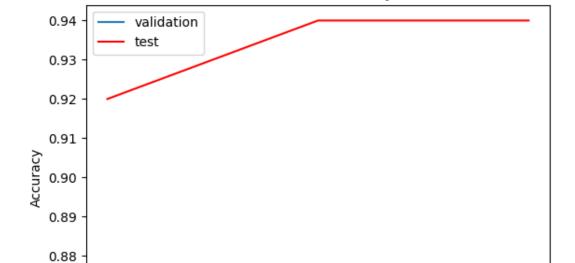
$$+ 500 * (1 - P(t = S | (x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1))) * P(x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1)$$

$$= 1 * \left[\frac{75}{739} * 0.8868 + \frac{125}{129} * 0.0516 + \frac{45}{47} * 0.0376 \right] + 500 * (1 - 1) * 0.024$$

$$= 0.176$$

a) From definition, a data-set is linearly separable if the training examples can be perfectly separated by a linear decision rule. However, if we want to visualize this data-set in Data Space, we see that the half-spaces are not convex. For instance, let's draw a line segment connecting two points $(x_1 = -2, x_2 = -1)$ and $(x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3)$ that lie in the positive half-space, we see that the line intersects $(x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2)$, which lies in the negative half-space. Therefore, the data-set is not linearly separable. Furthermore, there exists no linear line that separates this data-set perfectly.





K v.s. Test Accuracy

b)

We chose $k^*=5$ since it has the highest validation accuracy for all $k\in\{1,3,5,7,9\}$ as shown in part a. From the plot shown above, we see running K-Nearest-Neibors on test inputs has higher accuracy than running KNN on validation inputs. The validation accuracy stays the same for all k^*-2, k^*, k^*+2 at around 86%, but we see an increase of the test accuracy from 92% when $k=k^*-2$ to 94% for both $k=k^*$ and $k=k^*+2$. Moreover, as k changes, the test and validation accuracies changes in the same direction (i.e. positively correlated).

5.0

k

4.5

5.5

6.0

6.5

7.0

3.2 b) The best hyper-parameter settings I've found is:

3.5

4.0

- Learning rate = 0.1

0.87

0.86

3.0

- Weight regularization = 0
- Number of iterations = 200
- Initialize weights = (M + 1) x 1 zero vector

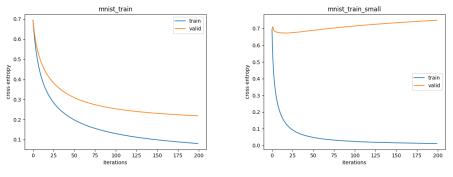
Training set comes from mnist_train

```
{'learning_rate': 0.1, 'weight_regularization': 0.0, 'num_iterations': 200}
---Training---
Final Cross entropy: 0.0807561108521313
Classification Accuracy: 1.0
---Validation---
Final Cross entropy: 0.21857461101776998
Classification Accuracy: 0.88
---Test---
Final Cross entropy: 0.20737230681000285
Classification Accuracy: 0.92
```

Training set comes from mnist train small

```
{'learning_rate': 0.1, 'weight_regularization': 0.0, 'num_iterations': 200}
---Training---
Final Cross entropy: 0.011964472987210952
Classification Accuracy: 1.0
---Validation---
Final Cross entropy: 0.7496887121880731
Classification Accuracy: 0.7
---Test---
Final Cross entropy: 0.6701922932955665
Classification Accuracy: 0.78
```

c) After running the code five times with the same hyperparameter settings, the result remains the same.



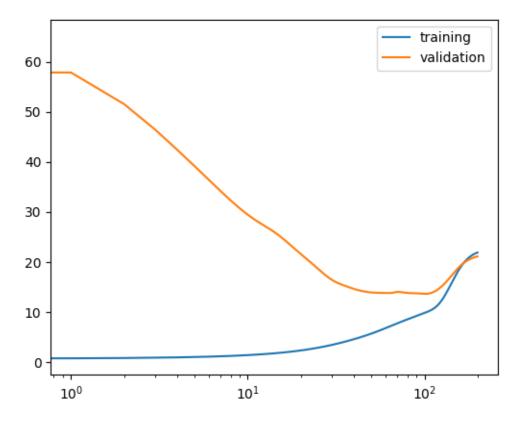
The cross-entropy decreases as the training progresses.

a) Let $\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} a^{(i)} (y^{(i)} - \mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$. We want to find \mathbf{w}^* that minimizes \mathcal{J} by setting the derivative of J w.r.t \mathbf{w} to 0. (i.e. $\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0$)
Note:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^T}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= 1\\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} * \mathbf{w} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} * \mathbf{w} = 2\mathbf{w} \end{split}$$

Find \mathbf{w}^* :

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} a^{(i)} (y^{(i)} - \mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)}) (-x^{(i)}) + \lambda \mathbf{w} \ &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} (-x^{(i)}) a^{(i)} (y^{(i)} - \mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)}) + \lambda \mathbf{w} \ &= -\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) + \lambda \mathbf{w} \ &= -\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{w} + \lambda \mathbf{w} \ 0 &\stackrel{ ext{set}}{=} -\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} \ (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} \ \mathbf{w}^* &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$



c)

d) As $\tau \to \inf$, with $||x-x^{(i)}||$ and $||x-x^{(j)}||$ are fixed, $a^{(i)} \to \frac{1}{N}$ because the terms in exponent tends to zero, i.e. $\frac{||x-x^{(i)}||^2}{2\tau^2} \to 0$. Therefore, the algorithm behaves almost the same as traditional l2 regularized linear regressions.

As $\tau \to 0$, the terms in exponent tends to infinity, which makes $a^{(i)}$ super small. Since τ acts as a bandwidth where it gives more weight to points that are closer to the test example, less to those that are further away. But since $\tau \to 0$, the weights for any points are super small, i.e. zero. In this case, the algorithm only focuses on the point exactly at the test example, which causes overfitting.

e) Advantage: Locally weighted regression works well when there exists a non-linear relationship between the data and the targets, while traditional linear regression cannot be used to make prediction for a non-linear data-set.

Disadvantage: Higher computational cost than traditional linear regressions since it uses local fitting of data points and the model computes for each single data point.