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QUESTION

Student Name: Sanjeev Kumar Roll Number: 231110044 Date: September 15, 2023

Training data:

$$\{\mathbf{x_n}, \mathbf{y_n}\}_{n=1}^N$$
;

Optimization Problem:

$$(\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{M}}_{\mathbf{c}}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{c}}, \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{c}}} \sum_{\mathbf{x_n}: \mathbf{y_n} = \mathbf{c}} \frac{1}{N_c} \left((\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})^T \mathbf{M_c} (\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c}) - \log |\mathbf{M_c}| \right)$$

To find the optimal value of $\mathbf{w_c}$ and $\mathbf{M_c}$, we can differentiate the loss function partially w.r.t. each of the variable and equate to zero. (Since loss function is a convex function, it will have only global minima).

1. For Optimal $\mathbf{w_c}$: Taking partial derivative of the objective function with respect to $\mathbf{w_c}$ and setting it to zero:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w_c}} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w_c}} \sum_{\mathbf{x_n}: \mathbf{y_n} = c} \frac{1}{N_c} \left((\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})^T \mathbf{M_c} (\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c}) - \log |\mathbf{M_c}| \right) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{w_c} = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{\mathbf{x_n}: \mathbf{y_n} = c} (\mathbf{x_n})$$

2. For Optimal M_c : Taking partial derivative of the objective function with respect to M_c and setting it to zero:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{M_c}} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{M_c}} \sum_{\mathbf{x_n}: \mathbf{y_n} = c} \frac{1}{N_c} \left((\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})^T M_c (\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c}) - \log |\mathbf{M_c}| \right) = 0$$

Solving for the optimal $\mathbf{M_c}$ is more complex and involves matrix calculus. The optimal $\mathbf{M_c}$ would depend on the data and the specific values of $\mathbf{w_c}$ that minimize the objective function.

Regarding the special case when $\mathbf{M_c}$ is an identity matrix (I), this simplifies the optimization problem. In this case, the quadratic term $(\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})^T \mathbf{M_c} (\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})$ becomes $(\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})^T (\mathbf{x_n} - \mathbf{w_c})$, which is the Euclidean distance between $\mathbf{x_n}$ and $\mathbf{w_c}$. The optimization problem then becomes:

$$(\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\mathbf{c}}, \mathbf{I}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{c}}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{n}}: \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{n}} = c} \frac{1}{N_c} \|\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{n}} - \mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{c}}\|^2 - \log |I|$$

The term $-\log |I|$ is a constant and doesn't affect the optimization. So, the model reduces to finding the optimal $\mathbf{w_c}$ that minimizes the sum of squared distances between the data points $\mathbf{x_n}$ and $\mathbf{w_c}$, which is a common form of k-means clustering, where $\mathbf{w_c}$ represents the cluster centroids.

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The one-nearest-neighbor (1-NN) algorithm is consistent in the noise-free setting, where every training input is labeled correctly. In this scenario, the Bayes optimal error rate is zero because all training data is correctly classified. The 1-NN algorithm, which classifies a test point based on the class of its closest neighbor in the training data, will also achieve zero error in this noise-free setting because it will select the training point such that it perfectly matches the test input.

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When constructing Decision Trees for regression, we want to split on features which minimizes the variance of the real-valued labels within each child node. This quantifies the homogeneity or similarity of the labels in each node.

$$Variance = \frac{\sum (X - \mu)^2}{N}$$

Lower the value of Variance, higher the purity or homogeneity of the node and higher the variance more impure node, we will get.

Steps to calculate Variance:

- 1. Calculate variance of each child node using the above formula.
- 2. Calculate variance of each split which will work as a weighted average variance of child nodes.
- 3. Here we will select the split which has the lowest variance value.

These steps will continue until the homogeneous node is achieved.

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For unregularized linear regression model, weight vector can be given as:

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

where: X is the matrix having N training points each having D features. y is the column vector of all the responses of the training input.

Let \mathbf{x}_* be the test point then prediction y_* can be given as:

$$y_* = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_* = \mathbf{x}_*^T \mathbf{w}$$
$$y_* = \mathbf{x}_*^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$
$$y_* = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}$$

Where, $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{x_*}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T$. Therefore, $\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{w_1 w_2 w_n})$ comes out to be a 1xN matrix. We can also write $\mathbf{y} = (y_1 y_2 ... y_n)^T$

 y_* can be re-written as:

$$y_* = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{w_n} y_n$$

where \mathbf{w}_n is a n^{th} index of 1xN matrix \mathbf{W} , Since \mathbf{X} is a matrix having N training data inputs, \mathbf{w}_n can be written as:

$$\mathbf{w_n} = \mathbf{x_*}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x_n}$$

In linear regression, the weight vector depends on the full dataset $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$, whereas in weighted kNN, the weights typically depend only on the nearest neighbors.

The role of \mathbf{x}_* in the expression differs between the two methods; it appears in the numerator for linear regression and in the denominator for kNN.

The representation of weights also differs: in linear regression, they are products of \mathbf{x}_* and training data, while in kNN, they are typically expressed as a sum in the denominator.

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$$L(\mathbf{M}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{w}^T \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n)^2$$
$$L(\mathbf{M}) = \mathbf{k}y - \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{k}^2$$
$$L(\mathbf{M}) = \mathbf{k}y - (\mathbf{R} \circ \mathbf{X}) \mathbf{w} \mathbf{k}^2$$

When the input **X** is dropped out such that any input dimension is retained with probability p, then the expected value of L(M) is given by:

$$\mathbb{E}_{R \sim \text{Bernoulli}(n;p)} [L(M)]$$

To minimize this with respect to \mathbf{w} , a new objective function $L(\mathbf{w})$ is defined as:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[\mathbb{E}_{R \sim \mathrm{Bernoulli}(n;p)} \left[\mathbf{k}^T \mathbf{k} \right] \right]$$

This can be further expressed as:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[\mathbb{E}_{R \sim \text{Bernoulli}(n;p)} \left[(y - (\mathbf{R} \circ \mathbf{X}) \mathbf{w})^T (y - (\mathbf{R} \circ \mathbf{X}) \mathbf{w}) + p(1-p) \text{TRACE} \left((\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^T \right) \right] \right]$$

Simplifying the expression:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[\mathbf{k}y - p\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\mathbf{k}^2 + p(1-p)\text{TRACE}\left(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{X}^T\right) \right]$$

Comparing $L(\mathbf{w})$ with the ridge regression objective function:

$$L_{\text{ridge}}(\mathbf{w}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[(y - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (y - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} \right]$$

It's clear that the objective $L(\mathbf{w})$ resembles the objective function of ridge regression, where $p(1-p)\operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})$ acts as a regularizer and $\mathbf{k}y-p\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\mathbf{k}^2$ is like the squared loss.

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Method 1: Convex method -

Accuracy of the model on given test cases is: 46.89320388349515

Method 2: Linear regression -

Accuracy of model on different λ values are:

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 0.1$ is 59.54692556634305

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 1$ is 67.39482200647248

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 4$ is 73.52750809061487

Test accuracy for $\lambda=8$ is 73.43042071197411

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 12$ is 73.23624595469256

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 15$ is 72.79935275080906

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 20$ is 71.68284789644012

Test accuracy for $\lambda = 30$ is 69.51456310679612

 $\lambda = 4$ gives the best test case accuracy over different values of λ , we tried.