CS 229, Fall 2018

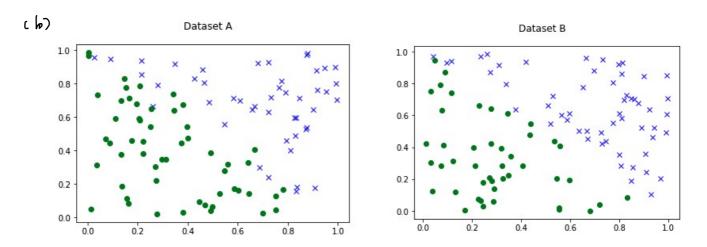
Problem Set #2 Solutions: Supervised Learning II

1.

(a)

 $\ \ \, \text{Logistic regression converged on dataset A, but didn't converge on dataset B.} \ \ \, \textbf{Run python POI_Ir.py}$

```
$ python p01_lr.py
==== Training model on data set A ====
Finished 10000 iterations
Finished 20000 iterations
Finished 30000 iterations
Converged in 30357 iterations
   = Training model on data set B ====
Finished 10000 iterations
Finished 20000 iterations
Finished 30000 iterations
Finished 40000 iterations
Finished 50000 iterations
Finished 60000 iterations
Finished 70000 iterations
Finished 80000 iterations
Finished 90000 iterations
Finished 100000 iterations
```



At first glance, the only difference between the two datasets seems to be that dataset B is linearly separable, whereas dataset A is not.

```
def calc_grad(X, Y, theta):
   """Compute the gradient of the loss with respect to theta."""
   m, n = X.shape
    margins = Y * X.dot(theta)
    probs = 1. / (1 + np.exp(margins))
    grad = -(1./m) * (X.T.dot(probs * Y))
    return grad
def logistic_regression(X, Y):
    """Train a logistic regression model."""
    m, n = X.shape
    theta = np.zeros(n)
    learning_rate = 10
    i = 0
    while True:
       i += 1
       prev_theta = theta
       grad = calc_grad(X, Y, theta)
        theta = theta - learning_rate * grad
        if i % 10000 == 0:
            print('Finished %d iterations' % i)
        if np.linalg.norm(prev_theta - theta) < 1e-15:</pre>
            print('Converged in %d iterations' % i)
    return
```

Recall that in SVM the functional margin $\hat{\gamma}$ is

$$\hat{\gamma}^{(i)} = y^{(i)}(w^Tx^{(i)} + b)$$

Because there is no constraint on w (such as $||w||_2 = 1$), we can scale the w and b to increase the functional margin without changing the decision boundary.

In this problem, the labels y are {-1, +1} instead of {0, 1}. So the loss function $J(\theta)$ is

$$J(heta) = rac{1}{m} \sum_{i}^{m} \log(1 + exp\{-y^{(i)} heta^T x^{(i)}\})$$
 $lacksquare$

Notice there is $y^{(i)}\theta^Tx^{(i)}$ in the expression above, this has a similar property like the functional margin.

When the dataset is linearly separable, $y^{(i)}\theta^Tx^{(i)}>0$ for all training examples. So we can scale θ to make $J(\theta)$ smaller (close to 0). However, when the dataset is not linearly separable, $y^{(i)}\theta^Tx^{(i)}$ could be greater or smaller than 0. So we can't arbitrarily scale θ to reduce $J(\theta)$.

(c)

i.

iii.

No, using a different learning rate will not help to reduce the value of θ .

No, as you can see in the pictures the input feature are already scaled.

Yes, adding L_2 regularization will help reduce the value of θ .

٧.

Yes, adding noise could make the dataset becomes not linearly separable.

But how to control the scale of noise to avoid losing accuracy?



SVM use hinge loss is not vulnerable to linearly separable dataset like B.

Here is the hinge loss

$$J(\hat{y}) = \max(0, 1 - y \cdot \hat{y}), \text{ where } \hat{y} = w^T x + b$$

Assume that the dataset is linearly separable, so $y \cdot \hat{y} > 0$.

When we increase w and b to make $|\hat{y}| \geq 1$, then $J(\hat{y}) = 0$.

2.

(a)

The log likelihood is

$$\ell(heta) = \log L(heta) = \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \log h(x^{(i)}) + (1-y^{(i)}) \log (1-h(x^{(i)}))$$

After training, the gradients are equal to 0

$$rac{\partial \ell(heta)}{\partial heta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - h(x^{(i)})) x_j^{(i)} = 0$$

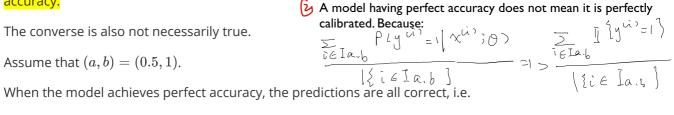
Set j=0. Because $x_0^{(i)}=1$, so

$$egin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - h(x^{(i)})) &= 0 \ &\sum_{i=1}^m h(x^{(i)}) = \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \ &h(x^{(i)}) = P(y^{(i)} = 1 | x^{(i)}; heta), \; y^{(i)} = \mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)} = 1\} \ &\sum_{i=1}^m P(y^{(i)} = 1 | x^{(i)}; heta) = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)} = 1\} \end{aligned}$$

When
$$(a,b)=(0,1)$$
, $I_{a,b}=\{x^{(i)},y^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^m$ and $|\{i\in I_{a,b}\}|=m$
$$\frac{\sum_{i\in I_{a,b}}P\left(y^{(i)}=1|x^{(i)};\theta\right)}{|\{i\in I_{a,b}\}|}=\frac{\sum_{i\in I_{a,b}}\mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)}=1\}}{|\{i\in I_{a,b}\}|}$$

The model is perfectly calibrated doesn't necessarily imply that the model achieves perfect

accuracy.



(1)

$$\sum_{i \in I_{a,b}} \mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)} = 1\} = |\{i \in I_{a,b}\}|$$

For all $i \in I_{a,b}$

$$0.5 < P(y^{(i)} = 1|x^{(i)}; heta) < 1$$

So

$$\frac{\sum_{i \in I_{a,b}} P\left(y^{(i)} = 1 | x^{(i)}; \theta\right)}{|\{i \in I_{a,b}\}|} < \frac{\sum_{i \in I_{a,b}} \mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)} = 1\}}{|\{i \in I_{a,b}\}|}$$

However, when the model is perfectly calibrated, the following property always hold

$$\frac{\sum_{i \in I_{a,b}} P\left(y^{(i)} = 1 | x^{(i)}; \theta\right)}{|\{i \in I_{a,b}\}|} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I_{a,b}} \mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)} = 1\}}{|\{i \in I_{a,b}\}|}$$

So model is perfectly calibrated doesn't mean model achieves perfect accuracy. The converse neither.

(c)

When adding L_2 regularization, heta is not the maximum likelihood parameter learned after training.

Furthermore, the loss function is

$$J(heta) = -\sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \log h(x^{(i)}) + (1-y^{(i)}) \log (1-h(x^{(i)})) + rac{1}{2} \lambda || heta||_2^2$$

After training, the gradients are equal to 0

$$rac{\partial J(heta)}{\partial heta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^m (h(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)} + \lambda heta_j = 0$$

Set j=0. Because $x_0^{(i)}=1$, so

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (h(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) + \lambda heta_0 = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m h(x^{(i)}) + \lambda heta_0 = \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} P(y^{(i)} = 1 | x^{(i)}; \theta) + \sqrt{\lambda \theta_0} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{I}\{y^{(i)} = 1\}$$

So the model will not be well-calibrated.

(a)

$$p(\theta|x,y) = \frac{p(x,y,\theta)}{p(x,y)} = \frac{p(y|x,\theta)p(x,\theta)}{p(x,y)} = \frac{p(y|x,\theta)p(\theta|x)p(x)}{p(x,y)}$$

Assume that $p(\theta) = p(\theta|x)$, then

$$p(\theta|x,y) = \frac{p(y|x,\theta)p(\theta)p(x)}{p(x,y)} = p(y|x,\theta)p(\theta) \cdot \frac{p(x)}{p(x,y)}$$

$$\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(\theta|x,y) = \arg\max_{\theta} p(y|x,\theta)p(\theta) \underbrace{\frac{p(x)}{p(x,y)}}_{\theta(x,y)} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(y|x,\theta)p(\theta)$$

(b)

$$\begin{split} \theta_{\text{MAP}} &= \arg\max_{\theta} p(y|x,\theta) p(\theta) \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} \log \Big(p(y|x,\theta) p(\theta) \Big) \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} \log p(y|x,\theta) + \log p(\theta) \\ &= \arg\min_{\theta} - \log p(y|x,\theta) - \log p(\theta) \end{split}$$

$$p(\theta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \mu)^{T} \Sigma^{-1}(\theta - \mu)\right)$$

$$\log p(\theta) = -\frac{1}{2} \theta^{T} \Sigma^{-1} \theta$$

$$egin{aligned} heta_{ ext{MAP}} &= rg\min_{ heta} - \log p(y|x, heta) - \log p(heta) \ &= rg\min_{ heta} - \log p(y|x, heta) + rac{1}{2\eta^2} || heta||_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2\eta^2}$$

(c)

$$\begin{split} \epsilon^{(i)} &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \\ y^{(i)} &= \theta^T x^{(i)} + \epsilon^{(i)} \\ y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}, \theta &\sim \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x^{(i)}, \sigma^2) \\ p(y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}, \theta) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)})^2\} \\ p(\vec{y} | X, \theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^m p(y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}, \theta) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)})^2\} \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{m/2} \sigma^m} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)})^2\} \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{m/2} \sigma^m} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} ||X\theta - \vec{y}||_2^2\} \end{split}$$

$$\log p(\vec{y}|X,\theta) = -\frac{m}{2}\log(2\pi) - m\log\sigma - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}||X\theta - \vec{y}||_2^2$$

$$\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \arg\min_{\theta} -\log p(y|x,\theta) + \frac{1}{2\eta^2}||\theta||_2^2$$

$$= \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}||X\theta - \vec{y}||_2^2 + \frac{1}{2\eta^2}||\theta||_2^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}||X\theta - \vec{y}||_2^2 + \frac{1}{2\eta^2}||\theta||_2^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}||X\theta - \vec{y}||_2^2 + \frac{1}{2\eta^2}||\theta||_2^2 = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}|(\vec{y} - x\theta)|^{\mathsf{T}}(\vec{y} - x\theta) + \frac{1}{2\eta^2}||\theta||_2^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}|X\theta - x^{\mathsf{T}}\vec{y}| + \frac{\rho^2}{\eta^2}\theta > 2\rho$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2}(x^{\mathsf{T}}X\theta - x^{\mathsf{T}}\vec{y}) + \frac{\rho^2}{\eta^2}\theta > 2\rho$$

$$= (x^{\mathsf{T}}X + \frac{\rho^2}{\eta^2}) = x^{\mathsf{T}}\vec{y}$$

$$\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \arg\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = (X^{\mathsf{T}}X + \frac{\sigma^2}{\eta^2}I)^{-1}X^{\mathsf{T}}\vec{y}$$

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{L}(0,bI) \quad \text{if } \vec{y} = \vec{y}^{\mathsf{T}} + \vec{y} = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x^{\mathsf{T}} + x^{\mathsf{T}}) = \frac{1}{2$$

4.

Yes, K_1 and K_2 are both PSD, so $K_1 + K_2$ is PSD.

$$z^T K z = z^T (K_1 + K_2) z = z^T K_1 z + z^T K_2 z \ge 0$$

(b)

No, although K_1 and K_2 are both PSD, K_1-K_2 may not be PSD.

For example, $K_2=2K_1$

$$z^TKz = z^T(K_1 - K_2)z = z^T(K_1 - 2K_1)z = -z^TK_1z \le 0$$

(c)

Yes, K_1 is PSD, so $aK_1(a\in\mathbb{R}^+)$ is PSD.

$$z^T K z = z^T a K_1 z = a \cdot z^T K_1 z > 0$$

(d)

No, K_1 is PSD, so $-aK_1(a\in\mathbb{R}^+)$ is not PSD.

$$z^{T}Kz = z^{T}(-aK_{1})z = -a \cdot z^{T}K_{1}z < 0$$

(e)

Yes, K_1K_2 is PSD.

$$egin{aligned} z^T K z &= \sum_i \sum_j z_i K_{ij} z_j \ &= \sum_i \sum_j z_i K_1ig(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}ig) K_2ig(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}ig) z_j \ &= \sum_i \sum_j z_i \phi_1(x^{(i)})^T \phi_1(x^{(j)}) \phi_2(x^{(i)})^T \phi_2(x^{(j)}) z_j \ &= \sum_i \sum_j z_i \sum_a \phi_{1a}(x^{(i)}) \phi_{1a}(x^{(j)}) \sum_b \phi_{2b}(x^{(i)}) \phi_{2b}(x^{(j)}) z_j \ &= \sum_a \sum_b \sum_i \sum_j z_i \phi_{1a}(x^{(i)}) \phi_{1a}(x^{(j)}) \phi_{2b}(x^{(i)}) \phi_{2b}(x^{(j)}) z_j \ &= \sum_a \sum_b \sum_i \left(z_i \phi_{1a}(x^{(i)}) \phi_{2b}(x^{(i)})
ight)^2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

(f)

No, K is not a Mercer kernel.

 $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a real-valued function,

A counter example would be f: y-> sign(y), and choosing (x, z) = (-1, 1)

(g) It is straightforward to prove K is a Mercer kernel, since K_3 is a Mercer kernel. This is independent of the chosen map ϕ

Yes, $K_3(\phi(x),\phi(z))$ is a valid kernel, no matter what the inputs are.

(h)

Yes, $p(K_1)$ is a valid kernel.

p(x) is a polynomial function with coefficients $c_k>0$, $k=0,1,\ldots,n$

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k$$

$$K(x,z)=p(K_1(x,z))=\sum_{k=0}^n c_k \Bigl(K_1(x,z)\Bigr)^k$$

From (e) we know $K(x,z)=K_1(x,z)K_2(x,z)$ is a valid kernel, so $K(x,z)=\Big(K_1(x,z)\Big)^k$ is valid.

From (a) and (c), we know $K(x,z)=K_1(x,z)+K_2(x,z)$ and $K(x,z)=aK_1(x,z), a\in\mathbb{R}^+$ are both valid.

So $K(x,z) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k \Big(K_1(x,z)\Big)^k$ is a valid kernel.

5.

(a) Recall the update rule

$$\theta^{(i+1)} := \theta^{(i)} + \alpha (y^{(i+1)} - h_{\theta^{(i)}}(\phi(x^{(i+1)}))) \phi(x^{(i+1)})$$

i. We can easily figure out that $heta^{(i)}$ is a linear combination of $\phi(x^{(1)}),\dots,\phi(x^{(i)})$, that is

$$\theta^{(i)} = \sum_{j=1}^{i} \beta_j \phi(x^{(j)})$$
$$\theta^{(0)} = \vec{0}$$

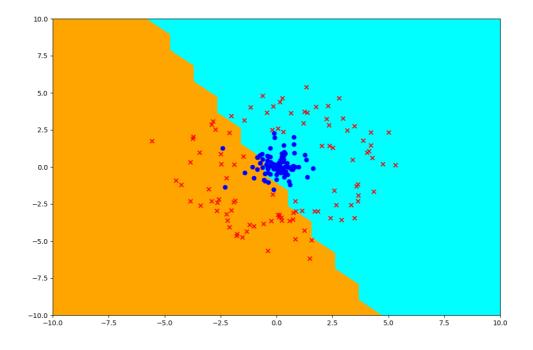
ii.

$$egin{aligned} h_{ heta^{(i)}}\left(\phi(x^{(i+1)})
ight) &= gig({ heta^{(i)}}^T\phi(x^{(i+1)})ig) \ &= ext{sign}ig({ heta^{(i)}}^T\phi(x^{(i+1)})ig) \ &= ext{sign}ig(\sum_{j=1}^ieta_j\phi(x^{(j)})^T\phi(x^{(i+1)})ig) \ &= ext{sign}ig(\sum_{j=1}^ieta_jig\langle\phi(x^{(j)}),\phi(x^{(i+1)})ig
angleig) \ &= ext{sign}ig(\sum_{j=1}^ieta_jKig(x^{(j)},x^{(i+1)})igig) \end{aligned}$$

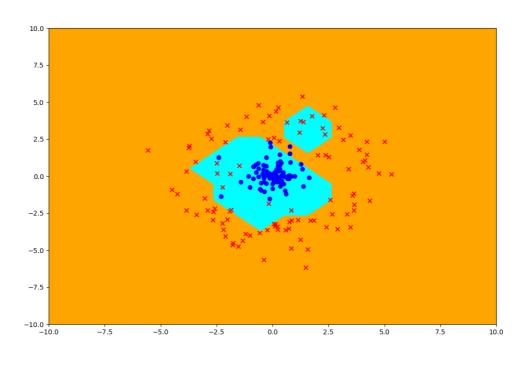
iii.

$$\begin{split} \theta^{(i+1)} := \theta^{(i)} + \alpha \Big(y^{(i+1)} - h_{\theta^{(i)}} \left(\phi(x^{(i+1)}) \right) \Big) \phi(x^{(i+1)}) \\ = \sum_{j=1}^i \beta_j \phi(x^{(j)}) + \alpha \Big(y^{(i+1)} - \mathrm{sign} \Big(\sum_{j=1}^i \beta_j K \big(x^{(j)}, x^{(i+1)} \big) \Big) \Big) \phi(x^{(i+1)}) \\ \beta_{i+1} = \alpha \Big(y^{(i+1)} - \mathrm{sign} \Big(\sum_{j=1}^i \beta_j K \big(x^{(j)}, x^{(i+1)} \big) \Big) \Big) \end{split}$$

(c)



dot kernel



rbf kernel

Dot kernel performs poorly than rbf kernel. Because dot kernel doesn't do feature mapping $\phi(x)=x$, and the dataset is not linearly separable.

(b)

$$\begin{split} \mathscr{E}(\phi_{y}, \phi_{k|y=1}, \phi_{k|y=0}) &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \log p(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}; \ \phi_{y}, \phi_{k|y=1}, \phi_{k|y=0}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \log p(x^{(i)} \mid y^{(i)}; \ \phi_{k|y=1}, \phi_{k|y=0}) \ p(y^{(i)}; \ \phi_{y}) \end{split}$$

where $x^{(i)} \mid y^{(i)=1}$; $\phi_{k|y=1} \sim \text{Mult}(n, \phi_{k|y=1})$, $\phi_{k|y=1}$ is the probability that word k appears given y=1. Similar for $\phi_{k|y=0}$.

Therefore, to maximize ℓ w.r.t $\phi_{k|y=1}$ is equivalent to maximizing

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k^{(i)} \log \phi_{k|y=1}$$

subject to the constraints $\phi_{k|y=1} \ge 0$ and $\sum_{k=1}^n \phi_{k|y=1} = 1$, where $x_k^{(i)}$ is the number of times that word k appears in the i-th message.

By introducing a Lagrange multiplier $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ corresponding to the second constraint, we have

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda, \phi_{k|y=1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_k^{(i)} \log \phi_{k|y=1} - \lambda \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \phi_{k|y=1} - 1\right)$$

By solving the Lagrange multiplier problem and applying Laplace smoothing,

$$\phi_{k|y=1} := \frac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\} x_k^{(i)}}{n + \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j^{(i)}}$$

Similarly,

$$\phi_{k|y=0} := \frac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1\{y^{(i)} = 0\} x_k^{(i)}}{n + \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1\{y^{(i)} = 0\} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{(i)}}$$

and ϕ_y is still $(1/m) \sum_{i=1}^m 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\}$.

To make a prediction, instead of computing the probabilities explicitly, we compare the

To make a prediction, instead of computing the probabilities explicitly, we compare the logarithm of
$$p(y=1|x)/p(y=0|x)$$
 with 0.

$$\log \frac{p(y=1|x)}{p(y=0|x)} = \log \frac{p(x|y=1)}{p(x|y=0)} = \log \frac{p(x|y=1)}{p($$

- (c). The top 5 indicative words for Naive Bayes are: ['claim', 'won', 'prize', 'tone', 'urgent!']
- (d). The optimal SVM radius was 0.1. The SVM model had an accuracy of 0.9695... on the testing set.