

MACHINE LEARNING HOMEWORK 1

| | | Q1 | Q2 | Q3 | Q4 | Q5 | Total |
|-------|----------|----|----|----|----|----|-------------|
| Grade | Max | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5 points |
| | Expected | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5 |

STUDENT

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COURSE NAME : MACHINE LEARNING

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QUESTION 1:

You can see the hand written solution of the question below.

For given table we confind
$$\frac{|x-1| \times 0 \times 1}{|Y-0|} = 0.65$$

When $Y=0$ and $X=1$ we can see the probability is $P(X|Y) = \frac{P(X \cap Y)}{P(Y)}$

$$P(x=1|Y=0) = \frac{P(x=1 \cap Y=0)}{P(Y=0)} = \frac{0.20}{0.65} = \boxed{0.307}$$

b.) Two random variables are independent if
$$P(X=a|Y=b)=P(X=a)$$
 for all a,b pairs. So finding on a,b pair that doesn't hold this assumption show that two random variables are dependent.

$$P(X=-1|Y=-1) = \frac{0.2}{0.35} = 0.571 \neq 0.35$$
So two variables are not independent.

 $P(X=-1)$

c-)
$$E(5.X + 3.Y.Y) = E(5X) + E(3.Y.Y) = 5E(X) + 3E(Y^2)$$

 $E(X) = \sum_{x} x f_X(x) = \sum_{x} x P(X=x)$ for a discrete random v-riable.
For $E(f(x)) = S \cdot f(x) \cdot P(X=x)$ we can apply this to find $E(Y^2) = S \cdot y^2 \cdot P(Y=y)$

From the table

$$E(\mathbf{X}) = -1.(0,2+0,15) + 0.(0,1+0,3) + 1.(0,05+0,20) = -0,10 = E(\mathbf{X})$$

$$E(\mathbf{Y}) = -1.(0,2+0,1+0,05) + 0.(0,15+0,3+0,20) = -0,35 = E(\mathbf{Y})$$

$$E(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{Y}^2.P(\mathbf{Y}_{=3}) = (-1)^2(0,2+0,1+0,05) + 0^2(0,15+0,3+0,20) = 0,35 = E(\mathbf{Y}^2)$$

$$5E(\mathbf{X}) + 3E(\mathbf{Y}^2) = 5. -0,10 + 3.0,35 = 0,55$$



QUESTION 2: A)

To compute the least squares regression line we first should implement polynomial regression function. When we give polynomial degree as 1 to this function, we would create the line that passes from data points. For given x data points and y values. Assumption of points are:

m is degree and n is number of data points. To calculate the polynomial coefficients for unique least squares

solution. We can create

$$y_i = eta_0 + eta_1 x_i + eta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + eta_m x_i^m + arepsilon_i \; (i=1,2,\dots,n)$$

matrix A and vector β . In this model we can assume that ϵ (epsilon) values are all zeros.

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^m \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_2^m \\ 1 & x_3 & x_3^2 & \dots & x_3^m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \dots & x_n^m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_m \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \varepsilon_3 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \widehat{\vec{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \ \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \vec{y},$$

From these multiplications we can find the unique polynomial regression coefficients. By having the coefficients we can make a prediction for every point. Note that for m and n values m < n should always hold to calculate the inverse of the matrix. You can see the Python code for the calculation below.

```
def polynomial_regression(x,y,degree = 1):
    if degree >= len(x):
        raise Exception("Degree cannot be higher than (number of data points - 1)")

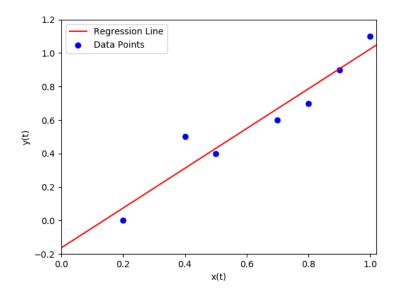
# Create column vector of y
y = np.array(y).reshape(len(y),1)
# Create big x matrix which holds values
X = np.ones((len(x),degree+1))
for row_ind,row in enumerate(X):
    for column_i in range(len(row)):
        row[column_i] = x[row_ind]**column_i
b_vect = np.dot(np.dot(np.linalg.inv(np.dot(X.T,X)),X.T),y)
    return b vect
```



For any given x vector of data points or just a point and given coefficients of polynomials (b_vect) we can return a prediction list with the function below.

```
# Make predictions by given points
predict_points = lambda x,b_vect: np.sum([beta*(x**i) for i,beta in enumerate(b_vect)])
```

With this function we calculate the coefficients for the degree 1 (just a line). You can see the visualization of the line.



B)

For the given x = -3 and x = 5 data points

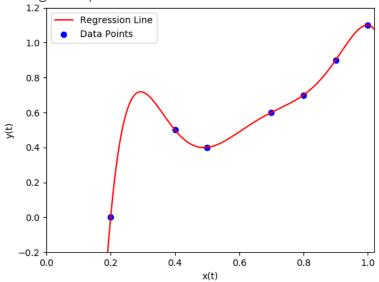
Prediction for x = -3 is: -3.723

Prediction for x = 5 is: 5.771



C)

For the polynomial degree 4 you can see the fitted line below.



For leave one out variance comparison, we exclude a data point each time and we calculate the beta parameters with given degree. Then for the point we make an estimation and we calculate the squared error by this estimation. Then for each point we create an error then we calculate the variance of these errors for model given by the degree. We can interpret from this solutions that higher degree of polynomial shows higher variance since it fits to training data not the test data. But also this show us that it will predict bad with new data since it fits on the training data. Therefore the expresiness power of the higher degree polynomial model is higher than degree of 1. Low variance show us that model predictions doesn't change much, it cannot represent complex data points

```
Leave one out variance for polynomial degree 1 (linear) :0.0004352433692823325
Leave one out variance for polynomial degree 4 :0.9810366263815621
```

```
def leave_one_out(x,y,degree):
    errors = []
    for ind,x_i in enumerate(x):
        true_y = y[ind]
        remaining_x = np.delete(x,ind)
        remaining_y = np.delete(y,ind)
        # Train the model with data except the leaved
        b_vect = polynomial_regression(remaining_x,remaining_y,degree)
        errors.append((true_y - predict_points(x_i,b_vect))**2)
return np.var(errors)
```

Report Name **Student Name**

: Homework1 : Alperen Kantarcı



QUESTION 3:

Given that

We are looking for P(A=1 | B=1) = ? P(B=1) = P(B=1 | A=1) P(A=1) + P(B=1 | A=0) P(A=0) From low of total probability we calculate P(B=1)

$$P(A=1|B=1) = \frac{P(B=1|A=1) P(A=1)}{P(B=1|A=1) P(A=1) + P(B=1|A=0) P(A=0)} = \frac{0.95 \cdot 0.01}{0.95 \cdot 0.01 + 0.05 \cdot 0.99} = \frac{0.095}{0.059} = \frac{0.161}{0.059}$$

QUESTION 4:

Q4 -) For the novel input, model should assign the class which gives mexicum estimated utility. for three class we will calculate the utility for early possibility (predicting time and false) then the highest class will be assigned to input x.

EU(x; 1x) = \(\bullet U_{ik} P(S_k | x) \) where i is number of the chies and k is prediction.

By using utility metrix and given probabilities "

$$EU(c=31x)=0.7*-3+0.2*0+0.1*10=-1.1$$

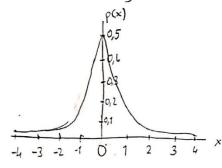
EU (c=21x) = 0,7*0 +0,2*4 +0,1*-2 =0,6 us the highest expected utility. Therefore more reasonable and best choice is to assigning cal to novel X.



QUESTION 5:

Q5-) a-)
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2} \exp(-|x|)$$
 where leptocen distribution is $f(x|y,b) = \frac{1}{2b} \exp(-\frac{|x-y|}{b})$

We can easily see that mean H= O and b= 1 for this distribution.



Probability of being x > 2 is equal to
the area under the line where x>2 in the plat.
To find the area we can take integral of the function

$$Q(x>2) = \int_{2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} e^{x} \rho(-1xI) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{2}^{\infty} e^{x} \rho(-x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot -e^{-x} \cdot -e^{-x}$$

b-)
$$p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^{x} (1-p)^{n-x}$$

$$E[x] = V = \sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i p_i$$
, if we plug to bisenial

$$E[x] = V = \sum_{i=0}^{n} i \binom{n}{i} p^{i} \cdot (1-p)^{i}$$

$$= np \sum_{i=0}^{n} i \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1)! \cdot !} p^{(i-1)} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(i-1)}$$

$$= np \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1)! \cdot !} p^{(i-1)} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(i-1)}$$

$$= np \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1)-(i-1)!} p^{(i-1)} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(i-1)}$$

$$= np \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1)!} p^{(i-1)} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(i-1)}$$

$$= np \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(n-1)!}{k!} p^{k} (1-p)^{k}$$

$$= np (p + (1-p))^{k}$$

$$= np = E[y]$$

E[x2]=? Let
$$X=X_1+x_2-...+x_n$$
 where all rendom variables are independent and coming from Bernoulli distribution. Var $(x_i)=p(1-p)$

$$Vor(X) = Vor(X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n) = Vor(X_1) + Vor(X_2) - + Vor(X_2)$$

= $n(Vor(X_1)) = n(1-p)$

$$V_{cr}(x) = E[x^2] = \frac{np(1-p)}{np(1-p)}$$