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(i.a)  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & -0.6 \end{bmatrix}$

~~eigenvector~~ eigenvalue:  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\therefore (0.6 - \lambda)(-0.6 - \lambda) - 0.8^2 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$$

when  $\lambda_1 = 1$ ,

$$A v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & -0.6 \end{bmatrix} v_1 = v_1 \Rightarrow v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

when  $\lambda_2 = -1$

$$A v_2 = \lambda_2 v_2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & -0.6 \end{bmatrix} v_2 = -v_2 \Rightarrow v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(ii) ~~Assume~~ Assume  $v_i$  and  $\lambda_i$  is the eigenvector and the eigenvalue of the matrix  $A$ .

~~(iii)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$~~

~~$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  are orthogonal.~~

$$\therefore A v_i = \lambda_i v_i$$

$$v_i^T A^T = v_i^T \lambda_i$$

$$\therefore A^T A v_i = \lambda_i^2 v_i^T v_i$$

$$\therefore v_i^T v_i = \lambda_i^2 v_i^T v_i$$

$$\therefore \lambda_i^2 = 1$$

$$\lambda_i = \|v_i\|$$

(iv)  $A v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 \quad v_2^T A^T = \lambda_2 v_2^T$

$$\therefore v_2^T A^T A v_1 = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 v_2^T v_1$$

$$v_2^T v_1 = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 v_2^T v_1$$

for the former to be consist for all time,

$v_2^T v_1 = 0$ . i.e.,  $v_2, v_1$  are orthogonal to each other.

(v) the vector may rotate ~~and~~ according to the matrix  $A$ .  
counter clockwise.



(b) (i) The left singular vectors of  $A$  is the same as the eigenvectors of  $AA^T$ , and the right singular vector of  $A$  is the same as the eigenvectors of  $A^T A$ .

(ii) the singular values of  $A$  <sup>are</sup> the square root of eigenvalues of  $AA^T$  and  $A^T A$ .

(c) (i) F.

(ii) B.T

(iii) T

(iv) F

(v) F

2. (a) (i)  $P(H50|T)$

$$= \frac{P(H50)P(T|H50)}{P(T)}$$

$$P(T) = P(H50)P(T|H50) + P(H60)P(T|H60).$$

$$P(H50) = P(H60) = \frac{1}{2}, P(T|H50) = 0.5, P(T|H60) = 0.4$$

$$\therefore P(H50|T) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times 0.5}{\frac{1}{2} \times 0.5 + \frac{1}{2} \times 0.4} = \frac{5}{9}$$

(ii)  $P(H50|T, H, H, H, H)$

$$= \frac{P(H50)P(T, H, H, H, H|H50)}{P(T, H, H, H, H)} = \frac{0.5^4}{0.5^4 + 0.4 \times 0.6^3} = 0.42$$

(iii)  $P(H50|9H1T) = \frac{P(H50)P(9H1T|H50)}{P(9H1T)}$

$$P(9H1T) = \frac{1}{3} \times 0.5^9 \times 0.5 + \frac{1}{3} \times 0.5^9 \times 0.45 + \frac{1}{3} \times 0.6^9 \times 0.4$$

$$\therefore P(H50|9H1T) = \frac{0.5^{10}}{0.5^9 \times 0.5 + 0.5^9 \times 0.45 + 0.6^9 \times 0.4} = 0.138$$

$$P(H55|9H1T) = \frac{0.5^9 \times 0.45}{0.5^9 \times 0.5 + 0.5^9 \times 0.45 + 0.6^9 \times 0.4} = 0.293$$



$$P(HIT | HIT) = \frac{0.6^9 \times 0.4}{0.5^{10} + 0.55^9 \times 0.45 + 0.6^9 \times 0.4} = 0.569$$

4

$$\begin{aligned} (b) \quad P(\text{pregnant} | \text{positive}) &= \frac{P(\text{positive} | \text{pregnant}) P(\text{pregnant})}{P(\text{positive})} \\ &= \frac{0.99 \times 0.01}{0.99 \times 0.01 + 0.99 \times 0.1} = \frac{1}{11} \end{aligned}$$

The result makes sense because most of the female population (99%) is not pregnant, so even if the test shows positive, the non-pregnancy still takes ~~the~~ ~~larger~~ a larger aspect.

$$(c) \quad E[AX+b] = A \cdot E[X] + b.$$

$$(d) \quad \text{cov}(AX+b) = A \text{cov}(X) A^T$$

$$3. (a) \quad \nabla_x x^T A y = A y.$$

$$(b) \quad \nabla_y x^T A y = A^T x$$

$$(c) \quad \nabla_A x^T A y = x y^T$$

$$(d) \quad \nabla_x f = \cancel{Ax+b} \cdot (A+A^T)x + b$$

$$(e) \quad \nabla_A f = B^T$$

$$4. \quad \min_W \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \|y^{(i)} - W x^{(i)}\|^2$$

$$= \min_W \frac{1}{2} \|Y - W X\| \quad \text{where } Y = [y^{(1)} \ y^{(2)} \ \dots \ y^{(n)}]$$

$$X = [x^{(1)} \ x^{(2)} \ \dots \ x^{(n)}]$$

$\therefore$  ~~the~~ according to pseudo inverse  
 $W = (X X^T)^{-1} X^T Y$

# Linear regression workbook

This workbook will walk you through a linear regression example. It will provide familiarity with Jupyter Notebook and Python. Please print (to pdf) a completed version of this workbook for submission with HW #1.

ECE 239AS, Winter Quarter 2019, Prof. J.C. Kao, TAs M. Kleinman and A. Wickstrom and K. Liang and W. Chuang

In [1]:

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

#allows matlab plots to be generated in line
%matplotlib inline
```

## Data generation

For any example, we first have to generate some appropriate data to use. The following cell generates data according to the model:  $y = x - 2x^2 + x^3 + \epsilon$

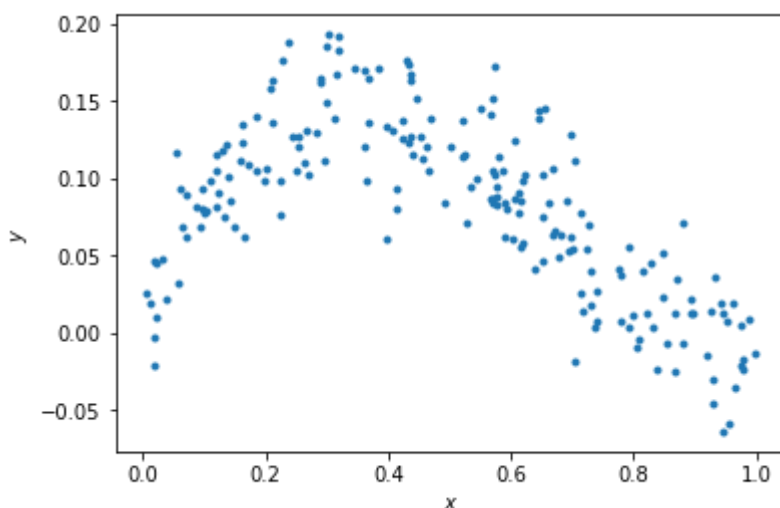
In [2]:

```
np.random.seed(0) # Sets the random seed.
num_train = 200   # Number of training data points

# Generate the training data
x = np.random.uniform(low=0, high=1, size=(num_train,))
y = x - 2*x**2 + x**3 + np.random.normal(loc=0, scale=0.03, size=(num_train,))
f = plt.figure()
ax = f.gca()
ax.plot(x, y, '.')
ax.set_xlabel('$x$')
ax.set_ylabel('$y$')
```

Out[2]:

Text(0,0.5,'\$y\$')



## QUESTIONS:

Write your answers in the markdown cell below this one:

- (1) What is the generating distribution of  $x$ ?
- (2) What is the distribution of the additive noise  $\epsilon$ ?

## ANSWERS:

- (1) The distribution of  $x$  is uniform distribution.
- (2) The distribution of noise is normal distribution.

## Fitting data to the model (5 points)

Here, we'll do linear regression to fit the parameters of a model  $y = ax + b$ .

In [3]:

```
# xhat = (x, 1)
xhat = np.vstack((x, np.ones_like(x)))
xhat = xhat.transpose()
y = y.transpose()
# ===== #
# START YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #
# GOAL: create a variable theta; theta is a numpy array whose elements are [a, b]

theta = np.matmul(np.matmul(np.linalg.inv(np.matmul(xhat.transpose(), xhat)), xhat.transpose()), y)
# ===== #
# END YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #
```

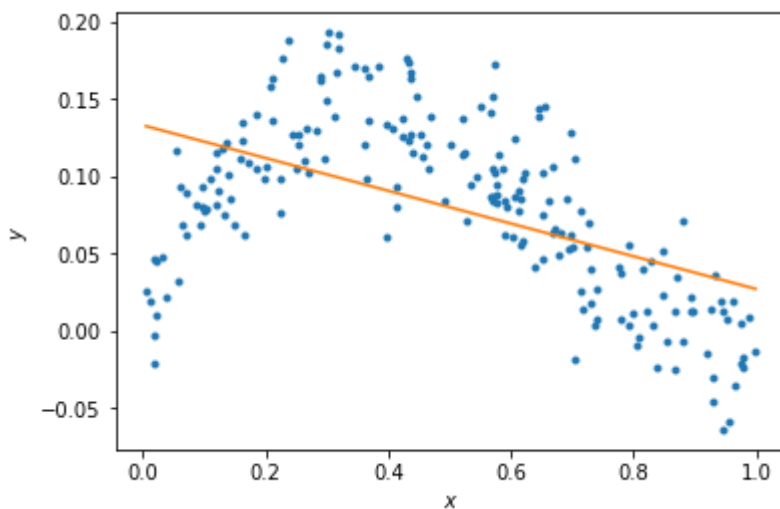
In [4]:

```
# Plot the data and your model fit.
f = plt.figure()
ax = f.gca()
ax.plot(x, y, '.')
ax.set_xlabel('$x$')
ax.set_ylabel('$y$')

# Plot the regression line
xs = np.linspace(min(x), max(x), 50)
xs = np.vstack((xs, np.ones_like(xs)))
plt.plot(xs[0,:], theta.dot(xs))
```

Out[4]:

[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x2234766a390>]



## QUESTIONS

- (1) Does the linear model under- or overfit the data?
- (2) How to change the model to improve the fitting?

## ANSWERS

- (1) The linear model under-fit the data.
- (2) Use a polynomial model with higher orders.

## Fitting data to the model (10 points)

Here, we'll now do regression to polynomial models of orders 1 to 5. Note, the order 1 model is the linear model you prior fit.

In [5]:

```

N = 5
xhats = []
thetas = []

# ===== #
# START YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #

# GOAL: create a variable thetas.
# thetas is a list, where theta[i] are the model parameters for the polynomial fit of order i+1.
# i.e., thetas[0] is equivalent to theta above.
# i.e., thetas[1] should be a length 3 np.array with the coefficients of the x^2, x, and 1 respectively.
# ... etc.

for i in range(N):
    if i == 0:
        xhat = np.vstack((x,np.ones_like(x)))
        xhats.append(xhat)
    else:
        xhat = np.vstack((np.power(x,i+1),xhats[-1]))
        xhats.append(xhat)
    xhat = xhat.transpose()
    theta = np.matmul(np.matmul(np.linalg.inv(np.matmul(xhat.transpose(),xhat)),xhat.transpose()),y)
    thetas.append(theta)

# ===== #
# END YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #

```

In [6]:

thetas

Out[6]:

```

[array([-0.10599633,  0.13315817]),
 array([-0.48023061,  0.36743967,  0.05521084]),
 array([ 0.8843808 , -1.82077417,  0.91178032,  0.00979068]),
 array([ 0.14080037,  0.60466289, -1.64250929,  0.87250485,  0.01175321]),
 array([ 0.52432592, -1.164568 ,  1.76052438, -2.07430275,  0.93373916,
        0.009716  ])]

```

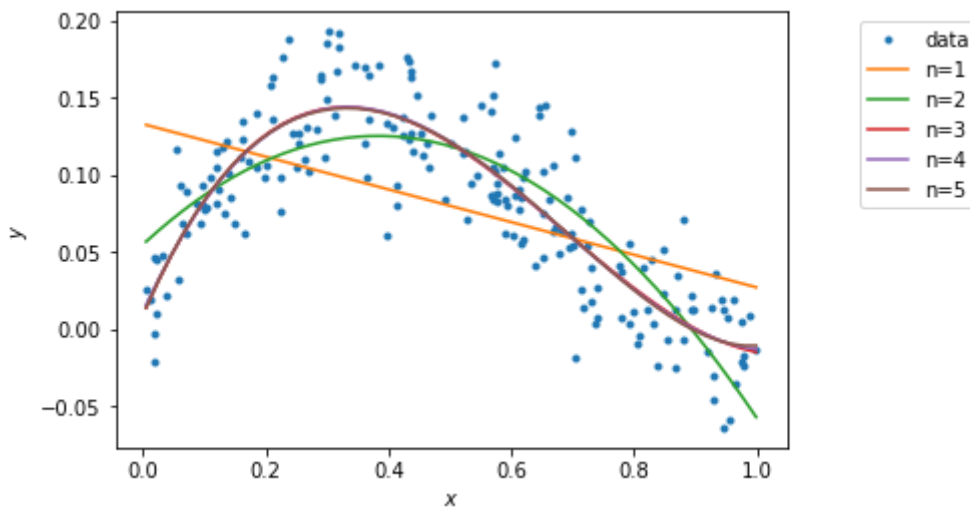
In [7]:

```
# Plot the data
f = plt.figure()
ax = f.gca()
ax.plot(x, y, '.')
ax.set_xlabel('$x$')
ax.set_ylabel('$y$')

# Plot the regression lines
plot_xs = []
for i in np.arange(N):
    if i == 0:
        plot_x = np.vstack((np.linspace(min(x), max(x), 50), np.ones(50)))
    else:
        plot_x = np.vstack((plot_x[-2]**(i+1), plot_x))
    plot_xs.append(plot_x)

for i in np.arange(N):
    ax.plot(plot_xs[i][-2:], thetas[i].dot(plot_xs[i]))

labels = ['data']
[labels.append('n={}'.format(i+1)) for i in np.arange(N)]
bbox_to_anchor=(1.3, 1)
lgd = ax.legend(labels, bbox_to_anchor=bbox_to_anchor)
```



## Calculating the training error (10 points)

Here, we'll now calculate the training error of polynomial models of orders 1 to 5.



In [8]:

```
training_errors = []

# ===== #
# START YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #

# GOAL: create a variable training_errors, a list of 5 elements,
# where training_errors[i] are the training loss for the polynomial fit of order i+1.

for xhat, theta in zip(xhats, thetas):
    error = np.linalg.norm(y - np.matmul(theta, xhat), ord=2)**2
    training_errors.append(error)

# ===== #
# END YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #

print ('Training errors are: \n', training_errors)
```

Training errors are:

```
[0.4759922176725402, 0.2184984441853706, 0.16339207602210748, 0.163307074
70593958, 0.1632295839105059]
```

## QUESTIONS

- (1) What polynomial has the best training error?
- (2) Why is this expected?

## ANSWERS

- (1) Polynomial with order 5 has the best training error.
- (2) A higher order of polynomial is expected to fit the training data better than lower order.

## Generating new samples and testing error (5 points)

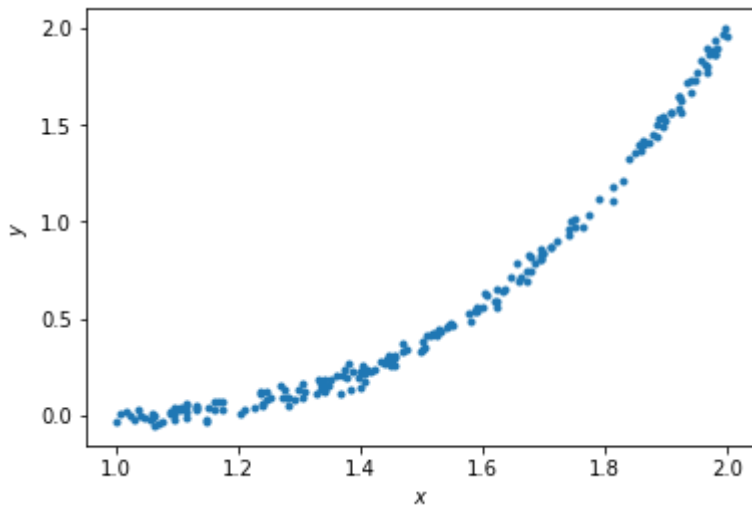
Here, we'll now generate new samples and calculate testing error of polynomial models of orders 1 to 5.

In [9]:

```
x = np.random.uniform(low=1, high=2, size=(num_train,))
y = x - 2*x**2 + x**3 + np.random.normal(loc=0, scale=0.03, size=(num_train,))
f = plt.figure()
ax = f.gca()
ax.plot(x, y, '.')
ax.set_xlabel('$x$')
ax.set_ylabel('$y$')
```

Out[9]:

Text(0,0.5,'\$y\$')



In [10]:

```
xhats = []
for i in np.arange(N):
    if i == 0:
        xhat = np.vstack((x, np.ones_like(x)))
        plot_x = np.vstack((np.linspace(min(x), max(x), 50), np.ones(50)))
    else:
        xhat = np.vstack((x**(i+1), xhat))
        plot_x = np.vstack((plot_x[-2]**(i+1), plot_x))

    xhats.append(xhat)
```

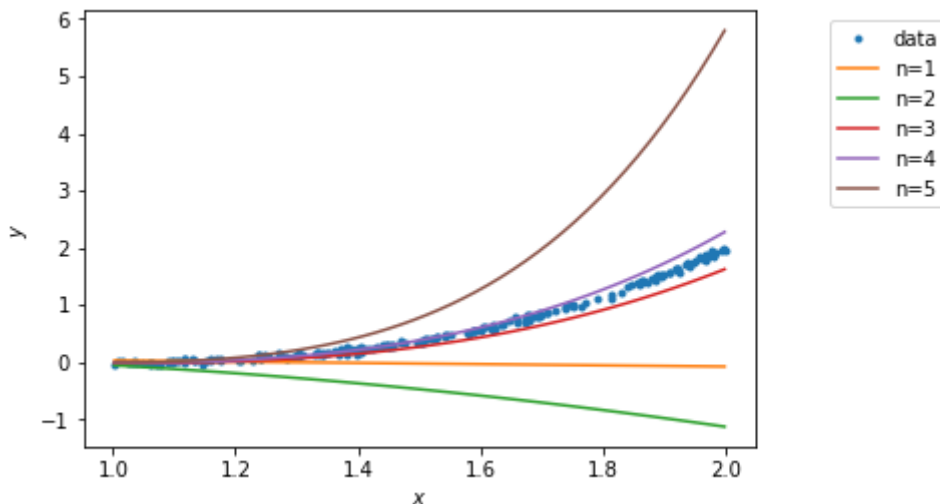
In [11]:

```
# Plot the data
f = plt.figure()
ax = f.gca()
ax.plot(x, y, '.')
ax.set_xlabel('$x$')
ax.set_ylabel('$y$')

# Plot the regression lines
plot_xs = []
for i in np.arange(N):
    if i == 0:
        plot_x = np.vstack((np.linspace(min(x), max(x), 50), np.ones(50)))
    else:
        plot_x = np.vstack((plot_x[-2]**(i+1), plot_x))
    plot_xs.append(plot_x)

for i in np.arange(N):
    ax.plot(plot_xs[i][-2:], thetas[i].dot(plot_xs[i]))

labels = ['data']
[labels.append('n={}'.format(i+1)) for i in np.arange(N)]
bbox_to_anchor=(1.3, 1)
lgd = ax.legend(labels, bbox_to_anchor=bbox_to_anchor)
```





In [12]:

```
testing_errors = []

# ===== #
# START YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #

# GOAL: create a variable testing_errors, a list of 5 elements,
# where testing_errors[i] are the testing loss for the polynomial fit of order i+1.
for xhat, theta in zip(xhats, thetas):
    error = np.linalg.norm(y - np.matmul(theta, xhat), ord=2)**2
    testing_errors.append(error)

# ===== #
# END YOUR CODE HERE #
# ===== #

print ('Testing errors are: \n', testing_errors)
```

Testing errors are:

```
[161.72330369101172, 426.38384890115896, 6.251394216547027, 2.37415303785
4201, 429.8204363359659]
```

## QUESTIONS

- (1) What polynomial has the best testing error?
- (2) Why polynomial models of orders 5 does not generalize well?

## ANSWERS

- (1) Polynomial with order 4 has the best testing error.
- (2) Because a high order polynomial may overfit the data. It will have low training error but a high testing error.