COMP 540 HW 01

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0. Background Refresher

0.0 Samplers

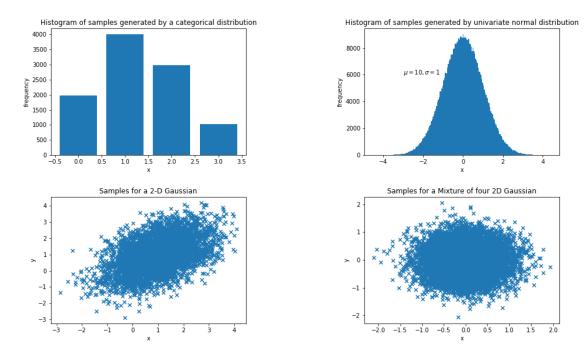


Figure 1: Visualization of four distributions

Figure 1 visualize four distributions. Specifically, for a mixture distribution of four 2D Gaussians, the probability that a sample from this distribution lies within the unit circle centered at (0.1, 0.2) is p = 0.83736.

0.1 Prove two independent Poisson random variables are also Poisson variable.

Proof:

Given two independent random variables $X_1 \sim P(\lambda_1)$ and $X \sim P(\lambda_2)$. i.e.,

$$P(X_1 = m) = e^{-\lambda_1} \frac{\lambda_1^m}{m!}, \ m = 1, 2, \dots$$
 (1)

and

$$P(X_2 = n) = e^{-\lambda_2} \frac{\lambda_2^n}{n!}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
 (2)

Denote sum of them are

$$X = X_1 + X_2 \tag{3}$$

then the probability distribution of X is:

$$P(X = k) = \sum_{m+n=k} P(X_1 = m, X_2 = n)$$

$$X_{1,X_2 indep.R.V.} = \sum_{m+n=k} P(X_1 = m)P(X_2 = n)$$

$$= \sum_{m+n=k} e^{-\lambda_1} \frac{\lambda_1^m}{m!} e^{-\lambda_2} \frac{\lambda_2^n}{n!}$$

$$= \frac{1}{k!} e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)} \sum_{m+n=k} \frac{k!}{m!n!} \lambda_1^m \lambda_2^n$$

$$= \frac{1}{k!} e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^k$$
(4)

that is, $X = X_1 + X_2 \sim P(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$. Q.E.D.

0.2 Proof question 2

$$p(x_{1},x_{0}) = p(x_{1}|x_{0})p(x_{0})$$

$$= \alpha e^{-\frac{(x_{1}-x_{0})^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}}\alpha_{0}e^{-\frac{(x_{0}-\mu_{0})^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}}$$
(5)

The probability distribution of X_1 is,

$$p(x_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x_1, x_0) dx_0$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha e^{-\frac{(x_1 - x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \alpha_0 e^{-\frac{(x_0 - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} dx_0$$

$$= D \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-A[x_0 - B]^2 + C} dx_0$$
(6)

where A, B, C, D

$$D = \alpha \alpha_0 e^{-\frac{\mu_0^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} e^{-\frac{x_1^2}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{7}$$

$$A = \frac{\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}{2\sigma_0^2 \sigma^2},\tag{8}$$

$$B = \frac{x_1 \sigma_0^2 + \mu_0 \sigma^2}{\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2},\tag{9}$$

$$C = \frac{(x_1 \sigma_0^2 + \mu_0 \sigma^2)^2}{2\sigma_0^2 \sigma^2 (\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2)}.$$
 (10)

Making the substitution $t = \sqrt{2A}(x_0 - B)$ gives

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-A[x_0 - B]^2 + C} dx_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2} + C} d\frac{t}{\sqrt{2A}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2A}} e^{-C} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{A}} e^{-C} \tag{11}$$

where in the second step we used $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt = \sqrt{2\pi}$. Substituting the above equation to the Eq. (6) yields

$$p(x_1) = D\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{A}}e^{-C}$$

$$= \alpha\alpha_0 e^{-\frac{\mu_0^2}{2\sigma_0^2}}e^{-\frac{x_1^2}{2\sigma^2}}\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{A}}e^{-C}$$
(12)

0.3 question 4 eigenvalues

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 13 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\boldsymbol{AX} &=& \lambda \boldsymbol{X} \\
(\boldsymbol{A} - \lambda \boldsymbol{I}) \boldsymbol{X} &=& 0 \\
\begin{bmatrix}
13 - \lambda & 5 \\
2 & 4 - \lambda
\end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X} &=& 0
\end{array}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3, \, \boldsymbol{X}_1 = \left(\begin{array}{c} -1/2 \\ 1 \end{array} \right)$$
 $\lambda_2 = 14, \, \boldsymbol{X}_2 = \left(\begin{array}{c} 5 \\ 1 \end{array} \right)$

0.4 question 5, matrix multiplication

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ we have } (A+B)^2 \neq A^2 + 2AB + B^2$$
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, A, B \neq 0 \text{ and we have } AB = 0$$

0.5 question 6

$$A^{T}A = (I - 2uu^{T})^{T}(I - 2uu^{T})$$

$$= (I - 2uu^{T})(I - 2uu^{T})$$

$$= I - 2uu^{T} - 2uu^{T} + 4u(u^{T}u)u^{T}$$

$$= I$$
(13)

0.6 convex function

0.7 entropy of categorical distribution

The entropy of a categorical distribution on K values is

$$H(p) = -\sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i \log(p_i),$$
 (14)

with constraint that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i = 1. (15)$$

Using Lagrange Multiplier, one can combine the above two equations into:

$$L(p,\lambda) = -\sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i \log(p_i) + \lambda (\sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i - 1).$$
 (16)

Taking derivative of all unknown variables gives:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial p_i} = -(\log p_i + 1) + \lambda = 0, \ i = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\tag{17}$$

Substituting p_i with λ yields

$$p_i = \frac{1}{K}, \ i = 1, 2, ..., K. \tag{18}$$

Q.E.D.

1. Locally weighted linear regression.

1.1 Expression of $J(\theta)$

Define X, W in the following way:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} ---- (x^{(1)})^T - --- \\ ---- (x^{(2)})^T - --- \\ \vdots \\ ---- (x^{(m)})^T - --- \end{bmatrix} \iff \mathbf{X}_{i,j} = (x^{(i)})_j$$
(19)

$$\boldsymbol{W} = \begin{bmatrix} w^{(1)} & & & \\ & w^{(2)} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & w^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \iff \boldsymbol{W}_{i,j} = \delta_{i,j} w^{(i)}$$
 (20)

Substituting X, W into $(X\theta - y)^T W(X\theta - y)$ yields

$$(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y})^T \boldsymbol{W} (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{i,j} \left[(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y})^T \right]_{1,i} \boldsymbol{W}_{i,j} (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y})_{j,1}$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} \delta_{i,j} w^{(i)} \left[(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y})^T \right]_{1,i} (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y})_{j,1}$$

$$= \sum_{i} w^{(i)} \left[(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{y})_{i,1} \right]^2$$

$$= \sum_{i} w^{(i)} \left[\left(x^{(i)} \right)^T \boldsymbol{\theta} - y^{(i)} \right]^2$$

$$= \sum_{i} w^{(i)} \left[\boldsymbol{\theta} x^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \right]^2 .$$

So $J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{X}\theta - \boldsymbol{y})^T \boldsymbol{W} (\boldsymbol{X}\theta - \boldsymbol{y})$. Q.E.D.

1.2 Closed formed solution of θ

$$\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left[(\boldsymbol{X} \theta - \boldsymbol{y})^T \boldsymbol{W} (\boldsymbol{X} \theta - \boldsymbol{y}) \right]
= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} tr \left[\boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{X} \theta - \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{X} \theta + \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{y} \right]
= \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{X} \theta$$

where in the third line we used the following two equations¹:

$$\frac{\partial tr(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{B})}{\partial \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{B}^T \tag{21}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial tr(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}$$
 (22)

Therefore the closed form solution for θ is

$$\theta = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}. \tag{23}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial tr(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}} \end{bmatrix}_{i,j} = \frac{\partial A_{l,m}^T B_{m,n} A_{n,l}}{\partial A_{i,j}} = \frac{\partial A_{m,l} B_{m,n} A_{n,l}}{\partial A_{i,j}} \\
= \delta_{m,i} \delta_{l,j} B_{m,n} A_{n,l} + A_{m,l} B_{m,n} \delta_{n,i} \delta_{l,j} \\
= B_{i,n} A_{n,j} + A_{m,j} B_{m,i} \\
= (\mathbf{B} \mathbf{A})_{i,j} + (\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A})_{i,j},$$

hence leading to $\frac{\partial tr(\boldsymbol{A}^T\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{A})}{\partial \boldsymbol{A}} = \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{A} + \boldsymbol{B}^T\boldsymbol{A}$

¹Take the second equation for example:

1.3 Batch gradient descent for locally weighted linear regression

The derivative of J_{θ} is:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} w^{(i)} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}. \tag{24}$$

Therefore we have the following algorithm:

Algorithm 1: Batch gradient descent algorithm for locally weighted linear regression

Result: The estimated parameters θ for locally weighted linear regression

1 while θ does not converge do

for every j do

5 end

2. Properties of linear regression estimator.

2.1 Prove $E[\theta] = \theta^*$

Proof:

The following facts:

1.
$$y^{(i)} = \theta^{*T} x^{(i)} + \epsilon^{(i)}$$
,

2.
$$\epsilon^{(i)}, i = 1, 2, ..., m$$
 are *i.i.d.* of $N(0, \sigma^2)$,

indicate that:

given fixed arbitrary $x^{(i)}$ and fixed unknown parameter θ^* , $y^{(i)}$, $1 \le i \le m$ are i.i.d. of $N(\theta^{*T}x^{(i)}, \sigma^2)$

$$p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, \theta^*) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(y^{(i)} - \theta^{*T}x^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2}}.$$
 (25)

The least-square estimate of θ^* is θ given by

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

$$\stackrel{denote:(X^T X)^{-1} X^T \equiv A}{=} Ay$$
(26)

$$\stackrel{denote:(X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T} \equiv A}{=} Ay \tag{27}$$

The expectation of θ is

$$E[\theta] = E[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}] \tag{28}$$

$$= E \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j} A_{1,j} y^{(j)} \\ \sum_{j} A_{2,j} y^{(j)} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j} A_{d+1,j} y^{(j)} \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (29)

Since expectations has the following property (regardless of the independence of Z_k):

$$E[Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_l] = \sum_k Z_k, \tag{30}$$

we have

$$E[\theta] = E\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j} A_{1,j} y^{(j)} \\ \sum_{j} A_{2,j} y^{(j)} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j} A_{d+1,j} y^{(j)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j} A_{1,j} E[y^{(j)}] \\ \sum_{j} A_{2,j} E[y^{(j)}] \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j} A_{d+1,j} E[y^{(j)}] \end{bmatrix}$$
(31)

$$= A \begin{bmatrix} E[y^{(1)}] \\ E[y^{(2)}] \\ \vdots \\ E[y^{(m)}] \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} \theta^{*T}x^{(1)} \\ \theta^{*T}x^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ \theta^{*T}x^{(m)} \end{bmatrix}$$
(32)

$$= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\theta^* = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\theta^*$$
 (33)

$$= \theta^* \tag{34}$$

where in the second step the following equation is used: $E[y^{(i)}] = \theta^{*T} x^{(i)}$ (trivial to obtain as $y^{(i)}$ observe normal distribution). Therefore $E[\theta] = \theta^*$, implying that the estimation θ is unbiased. Q.E.D

2.2 Prove $Var(\theta) = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \sigma^2$

Denote $\boldsymbol{A} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T$, therefore $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{y}$.

$$Var(\theta) = Var(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})$$

$$= Var(\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j} A_{1,j} y^{(j)} \\ \sum_{j} A_{2,j} y^{(j)} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j} A_{m,j} y^{(j)} \end{bmatrix}) = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j} A_{1,j} Var(y^{(j)}) \\ \sum_{j} A_{2,j} Var(y^{(j)}) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j} A_{m,j} Var(y^{(j)}) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} Var(y^{(1)}) \\ Var(y^{(2)}) \\ \vdots \\ Var(y^{(m)}) \end{bmatrix}, (36)$$

where in the second line we made used of the property of variance:

$$Var(\sum_{k} Z_{k}) = \sum_{k} Var(Z_{k}), Z_{k} \text{ is independent from each other.}$$
 (37)

Substituting $Var(y^{(i)}) = \sigma^2$ i = 1, 2, ..., m, we have $Var(\theta) = \mathbf{A}\sigma^2 = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\sigma^2$. Q.E.D.

3. Implementing linear regression and regularized linear regression

3.1.A1

No plot for this question.

3.1.A2

Figure 2 plots the linear fit using parameter obtained through training.

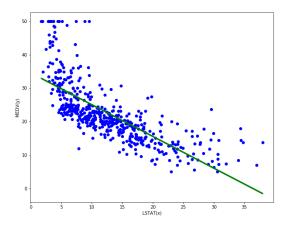


Figure 2: Fitting a linear model to the data

Problem 3.1.A3: Predicting on unseen data

For average home in Boston suburbs, we predict a median home value of 225328.063241 (USD)

3.1.B1: Feature Normalization

No plot for this question.

3.1.B2: Loss function and gradient descent

Figure 3 shows the loss function against the number of iterations.

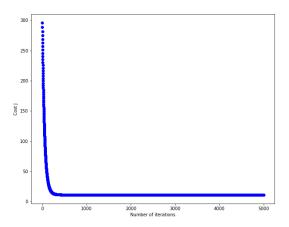


Figure 3: Fitting a linear model to the data

3.1.B3 Making predictions on unseen data

For average home in Boston suburbs, we predict a median home value of 225328.063241

3.1.B4: Normal equations

For average home in Boston suburbs, we predict a median home value of 225328.063241, which is the same as we obtained in subsec. 3.1.B3.

Problem 3.1.B5: Exploring convergence of gradient descent

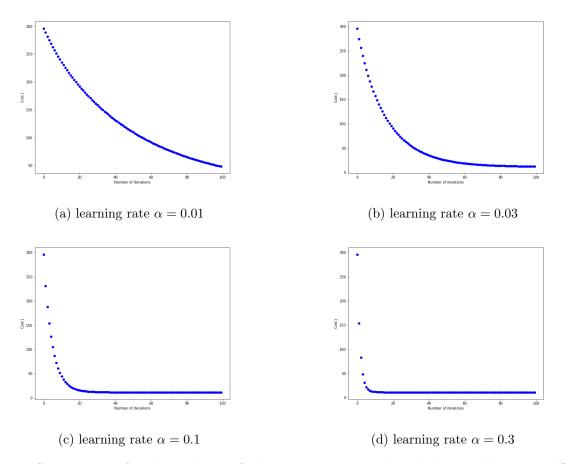


Figure 4: Convergence of gradient descent for linear regression with multiple variables using different learning rate.

 $\alpha=0.1,0.3$ and $N_{iteration}=80$ are good trade off between accuracy and efficiency. By observing Fig. 4d , one can easily find that small α (i.e. $\alpha=0.01,0.03$) leads to very slow convergence rate. $\alpha=0.1,0.3$ on the other hands, converges swiftly.

3.2.A1: Regularized linear regression cost function

No figures for this question.

3.2.A2: Gradient of the regularized linear regression cost function

Figure 5 shows the fitted curve of the linear model.

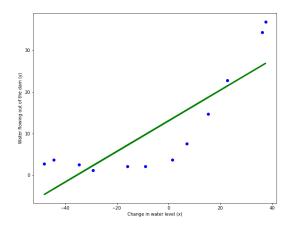


Figure 5: The fitted curve of the linear model.

3.2.A3: Learning curves

Figure 6 shows the learning curve of the linear model.

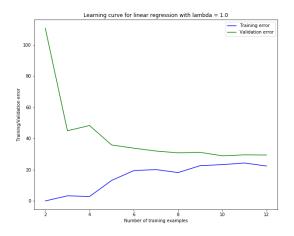


Figure 6: Learning curve of the linear model.

3.2.A4: Adjusting the regularization parameter

Figure 7 plots the polynomial fit and learning curves for each value of λ , from which we draw the following conclusions:

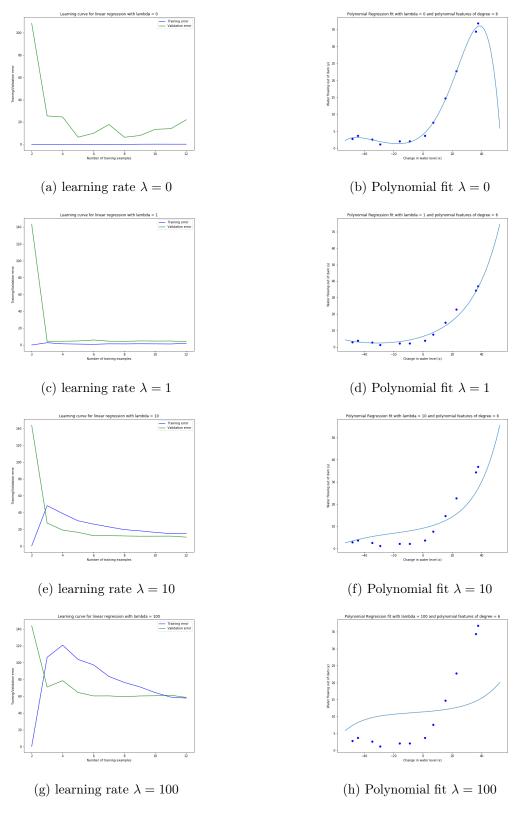


Figure 7: Convergence of gradient descent for linear regression with multiple variables using different learning rate.

If λ is too small, the effect of penalty term can be neglected so that the regulation will not be implemented effectively – the training model is still troubled by high-variation/over-fitting issue (as can be seen in Fig....). When λ is too large, the loss function is in fact dominated by the penalty term, which is a slightly similar to the biased issue that we have too strong assumptions on the model. Therefore, the training model turns to be under-fit. Only when λ takes appropriate value that the regulation can works effectively.

3.2.A5 Selecting λ using a validation set

Figure 8 shows the variation in training/validation error with respect of regulation parameter λ . For the current model, $\lambda = 1$ is approximately a good choice for the training. We list several reasons to justify our choice:

- The difference between training/validation error is too large when λ is small, implying an over-fitting problem this is true because the penalty term characterized by λ is too small to regulate the effect of excessive features.
- The difference between training/validation error becomes relatively small, but the absolute training/validation error becomes too large when λ gets larger than 1. This indicates that the penalty term dominates the loss function and we actually are making a strong assumption of the target function (of similar form as that of penalty term), i.e., too much bias / not enough variation.
- $\lambda = 1$ makes a good balance to avoid either overfitting or underfitting, i.e. the validation/training error is small (prediction performance); the difference between validation/training error is small (implying the prediction model is reliable).

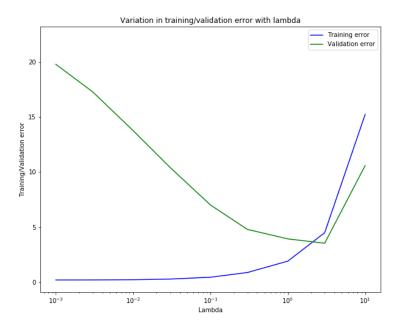


Figure 8: Variation in training/validation error with λ

3.2.A6 Computing test set error

Error when choosing best lamdba 1.0 is 30987.4826556 (USD).

3.2.A7 Plotting learning curves with randomly selected examples

Figure 9 plot the averaged learning curve for $\lambda = 1$.

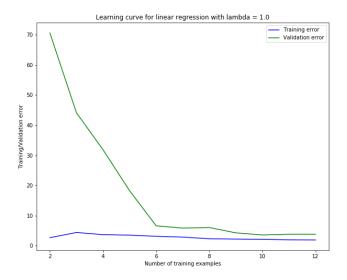


Figure 9: Averaged learning curve for $\lambda = 1$

Extra credit

Please see **bostonexp.pdf** and **bostonexp.ipynb** for our solution.