

Short_HW1

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1 Short HW1 - Preparing for the course

1.0.1 Useful python libraries, Probability, and Linear algebra

1.1 Instructions

1.1.1 General

- **First, don't panic!**
 - This assignment seems longer than it actually is.
 - In the first part, you are mostly required to run *existing* code and complete short python commands here and there.
 - In the two other parts you need to answer overall 4 analytic questions.
 - **Note:** The other 4 *short* assignments will be shorter and will *not* require programming.
- **Individually or in pairs?** Individually only.
- **Where to ask?** In the [Piazza forum](#).
- **How to submit?** In the webcourse.
- **What to submit?** A pdf file with the completed jupyter notebook (including the code, plots and other outputs) and the answers to the probability/algebra questions (Hebrew or English are both fine).
Or two separate pdf files in a zip file. All submitted files should contain **your ID number** in their names.
- **When to submit?** Tuesday 04.04.2023 at 23:59.

1.1.2 Specific

- First part: get familiar with popular python libraries useful for machine learning and data science. We will use these libraries heavily throughout the major programming assignments.
 - You should read the instructions and run the code blocks sequentially.
In 10 places you are required to complete missing python commands or answer short questions (look for the **TODO** comments, or notations like **(T3)** etc.). Try to understand the flow of this document and the code you run.
 - Start by loading the provided jupyter notebook file (*Short_HW1.ipynb*) to [Google Colab](#), which is a very convenient online tool for running python scripts combined with text, visual plots, and more.
 - Alternatively, you can [install jupyter](#) locally on your computer and run the provided notebook there.

- Second and third parts: questions on probability and linear algebra to refresh your memory and prepare for the rest of this course.

The questions are mostly analytic but also require completing and running simple code blocks in the jupyter notebook.

- Forgot your linear algebra? Try watching [Essence of LA](#) or reading [The Matrix Cookbook](#).
- Forgot your probability? Try reading [Probability Theory Review for Machine Learning](#).
 - * Correction: In 3.2 it says that $X \perp Y \implies \text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)$ but it should say $X \perp Y \implies \text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$.

1.1.3 Important: How to submit the notebook's output?

You should only submit PDF file(s). In the print dialog of your browser, you can choose to **Save as PDF**. However, notice that some of the outputs may be cropped (become invisible), which can harm your grade.

To prevent this from happening, tune the “scale” of the printed file, to fit in the *entire* output. For instance, in Chrome you should lower the value in **More settings->Scale->Custom** to contain the entire output (50%~ often work well).

2 Good luck!

3 What is pandas?

Python library for Data manipulation and Analysis - Provide expressive data structures designed to make working with “relational” or “labeled” data both easy and intuitive. - Aims to be the fundamental high-level building block for doing practical, real world data analysis in Python. - Built on top of NumPy and is intended to integrate well within a scientific computing. - Inspired by R and Excel.

Pandas is well suited for many different kinds of data: - **Tabular data** with heterogeneously-typed columns, as in an SQL table or Excel spreadsheet - Ordered and unordered (not necessarily fixed-frequency) **time series data**. - **Arbitrary matrix data** (homogeneously typed or heterogeneous) with row and column labels - Any other form of observational / statistical data sets (can be unlabeled)

Two primary data structures - **Series** (1-dimensional) – Similar to a column in Excel’s spreadsheet - **Data Frame** (2-dimensional) – Similar to R’s data frame

A few of the things that Pandas does well - Easy handling of **missing data** (represented as NaN) - Automatic and explicit **data alignment** - Read and Analyze **CSV** , Excel Sheets Easily - Operations - Filtering, Group By, Merging, Slicing and Dicing, Pivoting and Reshaping - Plotting graphs

Pandas is very useful for interactive data exploration at the data preparation stage of a project

The official guide to Pandas can be found [here](#)

3.1 Pandas Objects

```
[5]: import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
```

Series is like a column in a spreadsheet.

```
[6]: s = pd.Series([1,3.2,np.nan,'string'])
s
```

```
[6]: 0      1
1     3.2
2     NaN
3  string
dtype: object
```

DataFrame is like a spreadsheet – a dictionary of Series objects

```
[7]: data = [['ABC', -3.5, 0.01], ['ABC', -2.3, 0.12], ['DEF', 1.8, 0.03],
['DEF', 3.7, 0.01], ['GHI', 0.04, 0.43], ['GHI', -0.1, 0.67]]

df = pd.DataFrame(data, columns=['gene', 'log2FC', 'pval'])

df
```

```
[7]:   gene  log2FC  pval
0  ABC    -3.50  0.01
1  ABC    -2.30  0.12
2  DEF     1.80  0.03
3  DEF     3.70  0.01
4  GHI     0.04  0.43
5  GHI    -0.10  0.67
```

3.2 Input and Output

How do you get data into and out of Pandas as spreadsheets? - Pandas can work with XLS or XLSX files. - Can also work with CSV (comma separated values) file - CSV stores plain text in a tabular form - CSV files may have a header - You can use a variety of different field delimiters (rather than a ‘comma’). Check which delimiter your file is using before import!

Import to Pandas

```
> df = pd.read_csv('data.csv', sep='\t', header=0)
```

For Excel files, it’s the same thing but with `read_excel`

Export to text file

```
> df.to_csv('data.csv', sep='\t', header=True, index=False)
```

The values of header and index depend on if you want to print the column and/or row names

4 Case Study – Analyzing Titanic Passengers Data

```
[8]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
      %matplotlib inline
      import numpy as np
      import pandas as pd
      import os

      #set your working_dir
      working_dir = os.path.join(os.getcwd(), 'titanic')

      url_base = 'https://github.com/Currie32/Titanic-Kaggle-Competition/raw/master/
      ↪{}.csv'
      train_url = url_base.format('train')
      test_url = url_base.format('test')

      # For .read_csv, always use header=0 when you know row 0 is the header row
      train = pd.read_csv(train_url, header=0)
      test = pd.read_csv(test_url, header=0)
      # You can also load a csv file from a local file rather than a URL
```

(T1) Use `pandas.DataFrame.head` to display the top 6 rows of the train table

```
[9]: # TODO: print the top 6 rows of the table
      pd.DataFrame.head(train,6)
```

```
[9]: PassengerId  Survived  Pclass  \
0             1         0         3
1             2         1         1
2             3         1         3
3             4         1         1
4             5         0         3
5             6         0         3
```

```

                                Name      Sex  Age  SibSp  \
0                        Braund, Mr. Owen Harris    male  22.0      1
1  Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Th... female  38.0      1
2                        Heikkinen, Miss. Laina    female  26.0      0
3  Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)    female  35.0      1
4                        Allen, Mr. William Henry    male  35.0      0
5                        Moran, Mr. James          male   NaN      0
```

```

      Parch      Ticket    Fare Cabin Embarked
0         0   A/5 21171    7.2500   NaN        S
1         0    PC 17599   71.2833   C85        C
2         0  STON/O2. 3101282   7.9250   NaN        S
```

3	0	113803	53.1000	C123	S
4	0	373450	8.0500	NaN	S
5	0	330877	8.4583	NaN	Q

VARIABLE DESCRIPTIONS: **Survived** - 0 = No; 1 = Yes

Age - Passenger's age

Pclass - Passenger Class (1 = 1st; 2 = 2nd; 3 = 3rd)

SibSp - Number of Siblings/Spouses Aboard

Parch - Number of Parents/Children Aboard

Ticket - Ticket Number

Fare - Passenger Fare

Cabin - Cabin ID

Embarked - Port of Embarkation (C = Cherbourg; Q = Queenstown; S = Southampton)

```
[10]: train.columns
```

```
[10]: Index(['PassengerId', 'Survived', 'Pclass', 'Name', 'Sex', 'Age', 'SibSp',
          'Parch', 'Ticket', 'Fare', 'Cabin', 'Embarked'],
          dtype='object')
```

4.1 Understanding the data (Summarizations)

```
[11]: train.info()
```

```
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 891 entries, 0 to 890
Data columns (total 12 columns):
#   Column          Non-Null Count  Dtype
---  -
0   PassengerId     891 non-null    int64
1   Survived        891 non-null    int64
2   Pclass          891 non-null    int64
3   Name            891 non-null    object
4   Sex             891 non-null    object
5   Age             714 non-null    float64
6   SibSp           891 non-null    int64
7   Parch           891 non-null    int64
8   Ticket          891 non-null    object
9   Fare            891 non-null    float64
10  Cabin           204 non-null    object
11  Embarked        889 non-null    object
dtypes: float64(2), int64(5), object(5)
memory usage: 83.7+ KB
```

```
[12]: train.shape
```

[12]: (891, 12)

```
[13]: # Count values of 'Survived'
train.Survived.value_counts()
```

```
[13]: 0    549
      1    342
      Name: Survived, dtype: int64
```

```
[14]: # Calculate the mean fare price
train.Fare.mean()
```

[14]: 32.2042079685746

```
[15]: # General statistics of the dataframe
train.describe()
```

```
[15]:
```

	PassengerId	Survived	Pclass	Age	SibSp	\
count	891.000000	891.000000	891.000000	714.000000	891.000000	
mean	446.000000	0.383838	2.308642	29.699118	0.523008	
std	257.353842	0.486592	0.836071	14.526497	1.102743	
min	1.000000	0.000000	1.000000	0.420000	0.000000	
25%	223.500000	0.000000	2.000000	20.125000	0.000000	
50%	446.000000	0.000000	3.000000	28.000000	0.000000	
75%	668.500000	1.000000	3.000000	38.000000	1.000000	
max	891.000000	1.000000	3.000000	80.000000	8.000000	

	Parch	Fare
count	891.000000	891.000000
mean	0.381594	32.204208
std	0.806057	49.693429
min	0.000000	0.000000
25%	0.000000	7.910400
50%	0.000000	14.454200
75%	0.000000	31.000000
max	6.000000	512.329200

4.1.1 Selection examples

Selecting columns

```
[16]: # Selection is very similar to standard Python selection
df1 = train[["Name", "Sex", "Age", "Survived"]]
df1.head()
```

```
[16]:
```

	Name	Sex	Age	Survived
0	Braund, Mr. Owen Harris	male	22.0	0
1	Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Th...	female	38.0	1

2		Heikkinen, Miss. Laina	female	26.0	1
3		Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)	female	35.0	1
4		Allen, Mr. William Henry	male	35.0	0

Selecting rows

```
[17]: df1[10:15]
```

```
[17]:
```

	Name	Sex	Age	Survived
10	Sandstrom, Miss. Marguerite Rut	female	4.0	1
11	Bonnell, Miss. Elizabeth	female	58.0	1
12	Saundercock, Mr. William Henry	male	20.0	0
13	Andersson, Mr. Anders Johan	male	39.0	0
14	Vestrom, Miss. Hulda Amanda Adolfina	female	14.0	0

4.1.2 Filtering Examples

Filtering with one condition

```
[18]: # Filtering allows you to create masks given some conditions
df1.Sex == 'female'
```

```
[18]: 0      False
      1      True
      2      True
      3      True
      4      False
      ...
      886    False
      887     True
      888     True
      889    False
      890    False
      Name: Sex, Length: 891, dtype: bool
```

```
[19]: onlyFemale = df1[df1.Sex == 'female']
      onlyFemale.head()
```

```
[19]:
```

	Name	Sex	Age	Survived
1	Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Th...	female	38.0	1
2	Heikkinen, Miss. Laina	female	26.0	1
3	Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)	female	35.0	1
8	Johnson, Mrs. Oscar W (Elisabeth Vilhelmina Berg)	female	27.0	1
9	Nasser, Mrs. Nicholas (Adele Achem)	female	14.0	1

Filtering with multiple conditions (T2) Alter the following command so `adultFemales` will contain only females whose age is 18 and above.

You need to filter using a **single** mask with multiple conditions (google it!), i.e., without creating any temporary dataframes.

Additionally, update the `survivalRate` variable to show the correct rate.

```
[20]: # TODO: update the mask
adultFemales = df1[(df1.Sex == 'female') & (df1.Age > 18)]

# TODO: Update the survival rate
survivalRate = adultFemales.Survived.mean()
print("The survival rate of adult females was: {:.2f}%".format(survivalRate * 100))
```

The survival rate of adult females was: 78.24%

4.2 Aggregating

Pandas allows you to aggregate and display different views of your data.

```
[21]: df2 = train.groupby(['Pclass', 'Sex']).Fare.agg(np.mean)
df2
```

```
[21]: Pclass  Sex
1      female    106.125798
      male      67.226127
2      female    21.970121
      male     19.741782
3      female    16.118810
      male     12.661633
Name: Fare, dtype: float64
```

```
[22]: pd.pivot_table(train, index=['Pclass'], values=['Survived'], aggfunc='count')
```

```
[22]:      Survived
Pclass
1          216
2          184
3          491
```

The following table shows the survival rates for each combination of passenger class and sex.
(T3) Add a column showing the mean **age** for such a combination.

```
[23]: # TODO: Also show the mean age per group
pd.pivot_table(train, index=['Pclass', 'Sex'], values=['Age', 'Survived'],
               aggfunc='mean')
```

```
[23]:      Age  Survived
Pclass Sex
1      female  34.611765  0.968085
```


	male	41.281386	0.368852
2	female	28.722973	0.921053
	male	30.740707	0.157407
3	female	21.750000	0.500000
	male	26.507589	0.135447

(T4) Use [this](#) question on stackoverflow, to find the mean survival rate for ages 0-10, 10-20, etc.).

Hint: the first row should roughly look like this: > Age Survived Age
(0, 10] 4.268281 0.593750

```
[24]: # TODO: find the mean survival rate per age group
ageGroups = np.arange(0, 81, 10)
survivalPerAgeGroup = pd.pivot_table(train, index=pd.cut(train.Age, ageGroups),
    ↪values=['Age', 'Survived'], aggfunc='mean')
survivalPerAgeGroup
```

```
[24]:
```

	Age	Survived
Age		
(0, 10]	4.268281	0.593750
(10, 20]	17.317391	0.382609
(20, 30]	25.423913	0.365217
(30, 40]	35.051613	0.445161
(40, 50]	45.372093	0.383721
(50, 60]	54.892857	0.404762
(60, 70]	63.882353	0.235294
(70, 80]	73.300000	0.200000

```
[25]: type(train.groupby(pd.cut(train.Age, ageGroups)).Survived.mean())
```

```
[25]: pandas.core.series.Series
```

4.3 Filling missing data (data imputation)

Note that some passenger do not have age data.

```
[26]: print("{} out of {} passengers do not have a recorded age".format(df1[df1.Age.
    ↪isna()].shape[0], df1.shape[0]))
```

177 out of 891 passengers do not have a recorded age

```
[27]: df1[df1.Age.isna()].head()
```

```
[27]:
```

	Name	Sex	Age	Survived
5	Moran, Mr. James	male	NaN	0
17	Williams, Mr. Charles Eugene	male	NaN	1
19	Masselmani, Mrs. Fatima	female	NaN	1
26	Emir, Mr. Farred Chehab	male	NaN	0

```
28  O'Dwyer, Miss. Ellen "Nellie"  female  NaN          1
```

Let's see the statistics of the column **before** the imputation.

```
[28]: df1.Age.describe()
```

```
[28]: count      714.000000
      mean       29.699118
      std       14.526497
      min        0.420000
      25%       20.125000
      50%       28.000000
      75%       38.000000
      max       80.000000
      Name: Age, dtype: float64
```

Read about [pandas.Series.fillna](#).

(T5) Replace the missing ages `df1` with the general age *median*, and insert the result into variable `filledDf` (the original `df1` should be left unchanged).

```
[29]: # TODO : Fill the missing values
      filledDf = df1.copy()
      filledDf.Age = df1.Age.fillna(df1.Age.mean())
```

```
[30]: print("{} out of {} passengers do not have a recorded age".
      ↪format(filledDf[filledDf.Age.isna()].shape[0], filledDf.shape[0]))
```

0 out of 891 passengers do not have a recorded age

Let's see the statistics of the column **after** the imputation.

```
[31]: filledDf.Age.describe()
```

```
[31]: count      891.000000
      mean       29.699118
      std       13.002015
      min        0.420000
      25%       22.000000
      50%       29.699118
      75%       35.000000
      max       80.000000
      Name: Age, dtype: float64
```

(T6) Answer below: which statistics changed, and which did not? Why? (explain briefly, no need to be very formal.)

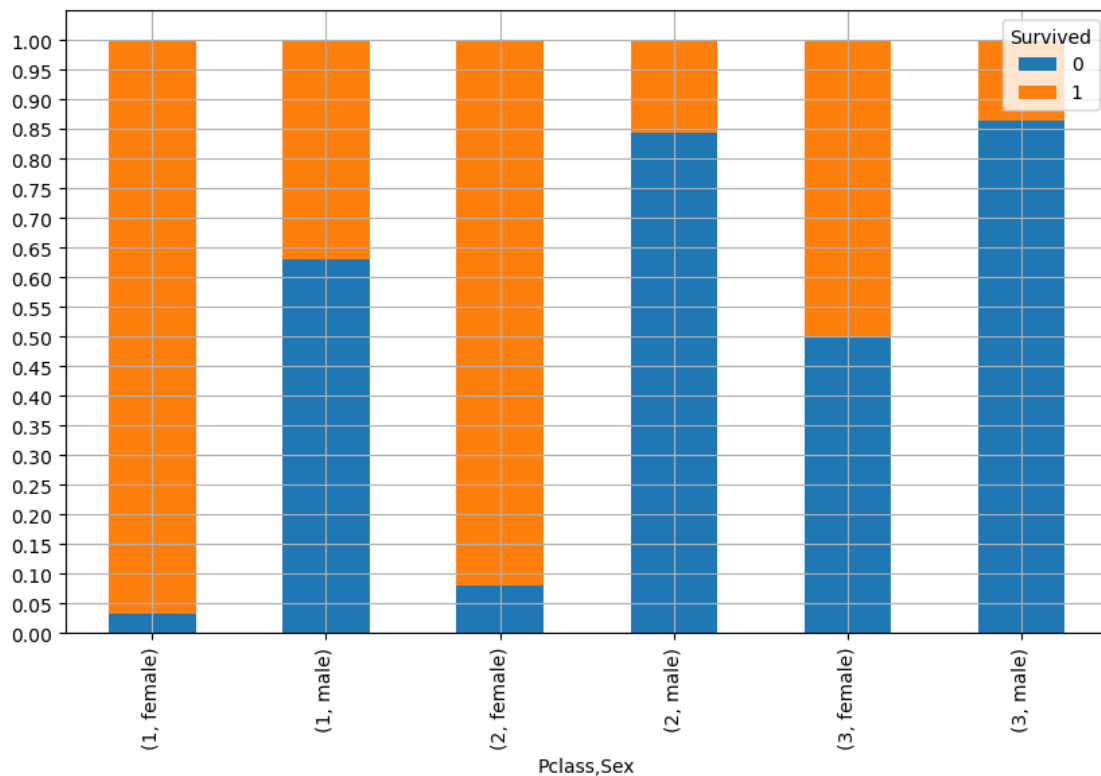
Answer: TODO 1. The “count” statistic changed since we filled the missing values with real values. 2. The “mean” statistic is unchanged because the values we added were exactly the “previous” mean, so the we didn’t change the overall mean. 3. The standard deviation decreased

since we added more “mass” around (spot on) the mean, and as we recall the STD is a measure of deviations from the mean. 4. “min”, “max” didn’t change since the mean (the only values that we changed) is somewhere inside [min, max]. 5. “Q1”, “Q2”, “Q3” changed in the following way: “Q1” increased - meaning that the mean is valued at above Q1. “Q2” increased - same thing. “Q3” decreased - meaning that the mean is somewhere in between Q2 and Q3.

4.4 Plotting

Basic plotting in pandas is pretty straightforward

```
[32]: new_plot = pd.crosstab([train.Pclass, train.Sex], train.Survived,
    ↪normalize="index")
new_plot.plot(kind='bar', stacked=True, grid=False, figsize=(10,6))
plt.yticks(np.linspace(0,1,21))
plt.grid()
```



(T7) Answer below: which group (class × sex) had the best survival rate? Which had the worst?

Answer: (1, female) had the best survival rate. (3, male) had the worst.

5 What is Matplotlib

A 2D plotting library which produces publication quality figures. - Can be used in python scripts, the python and IPython shell, web application servers, and more ... - Can be used to generate plots, histograms, power spectra, bar charts, errorcharts, scatterplots, etc. - For simple plotting, pyplot provides a MATLAB-like interface - For power users, a full control via OO interface or via a set of functions

There are several Matplotlib add-on toolkits - Projection and mapping toolkits [basemap](#) and [cartopy](#). - Interactive plots in web browsers using [Bokeh](#). - Higher level interface with updated visualizations [Seaborn](#).

Matplotlib is available at www.matplotlib.org

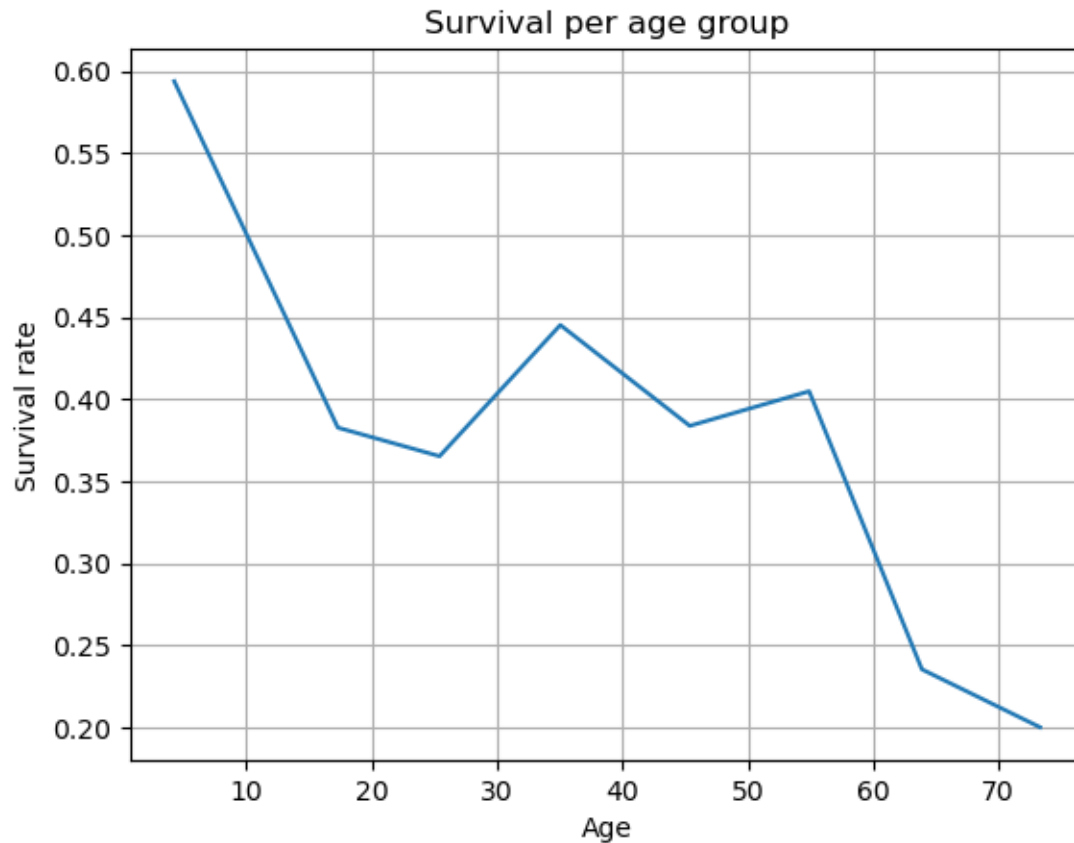
```
[33]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
```

5.1 Line Plots

The following code plots the survival rate per age group (computed above, before the imputation).

(T8) Use the [matplotlib documentation](#) to add a grid and suitable axis labels to the following plot.

```
[34]: plt.plot(survivalPerAgeGroup.Age, survivalPerAgeGroup.Survived)
_ = plt.title("Survival per age group")
# TODO : Update the plot as required.
plt.xlabel("Age")
plt.ylabel("Survival rate")
plt.grid()
plt.show()
```



```
[35]: survivalPerAgeGroup
```

```
[35]:
```

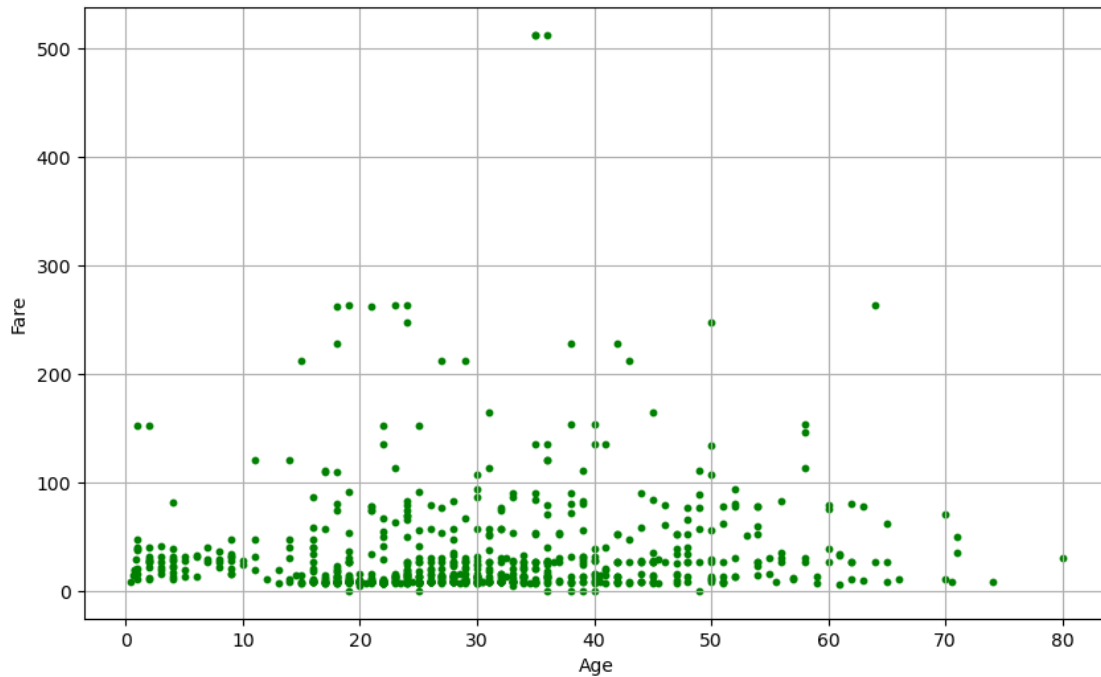
	Age	Survived
Age		
(0, 10]	4.268281	0.593750
(10, 20]	17.317391	0.382609
(20, 30]	25.423913	0.365217
(30, 40]	35.051613	0.445161
(40, 50]	45.372093	0.383721
(50, 60]	54.892857	0.404762
(60, 70]	63.882353	0.235294
(70, 80]	73.300000	0.200000

5.2 Scatter plots

(T9) Alter the `matplotlib.pyplot.scatter` command, so that the scattered dots will be **green**, and their size will be 10.

Also, add a grid and suitable axis labels.

```
[36]: # TODO : Update the plot as required.
plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
plt.scatter(train.Age, train.Fare, c='g', s=10)
plt.xlabel("Age")
plt.ylabel("Fare")
plt.grid()
plt.show()
```



(T10) Answer below: approximately how old are the two highest paying passengers?

Answer: around 34-36

6 Probability refresher

6.1 Q1 - Variance of empirical mean

Let X_1, \dots, X_m be i.i.d random variables with mean $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and variance $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$.

We would like to “guess”, or more formally, estimate, () the mean μ from the observations x_1, \dots, x_m .

We use the empirical mean $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i X_i$ as an estimator for the unknown mean μ . Notice that \bar{X} is itself a random variable.

Note: The instantiation of \bar{X} is usually denoted by $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i x_i$, but this is currently out of scope.

1. Express analytically the expectation of \bar{X} .

Answer: $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_i X_i\right] = \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_i X_i\right] \stackrel{\text{linearity of expectation}}{=} \frac{1}{m} \sum_i \mathbb{E}[X_i] \stackrel{i.i.d}{=} \frac{1}{m} m \mu = \mu$

2. Express analytically the variance of \bar{X} .

Answer: $\text{Var}[\bar{X}] = \text{Var}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_i X_i\right] \stackrel{\text{variance rules}}{=} \frac{1}{m^2} \text{Var}\left[\sum_i X_i\right] \stackrel{\text{independence}}{=} \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_i \text{Var}[X_i] \stackrel{\text{identically distributed}}{=} \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_i \sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{m}$

You will now verify the expression you wrote for the variance.

We assume $\forall i : X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

We compute the empirical mean's variances for sample sizes $m = 1, \dots, 35$.

For each sample size m , we sample m normal variables and compute their empirical mean. We repeat this step 50 times, and compute the variance of the empirical means (for each m).

3. Complete the code blocks below according to the instructions and verify that your analytic function of the empirical mean's variance against as a function of m suits the empirical findings.

```
[37]: all_sample_sizes = range(1, 36)
repeats_per_size = 50

allVariances = []

for m in all_sample_sizes:
    empiricalMeans = []

    for _ in range(repeats_per_size):
        # Random m examples and compute their empirical mean
        X = np.random.randn(m)
        empiricalMeans.append(np.mean(X))

    # TODO: Using numpy, compute the variance of the empirical means that are in
    # the `empiricalMeans` list (you can google the numpy function for variance)
    variance = np.var(empiricalMeans)

    allVariances.append(variance)
```

Complete the following computation of the analytic variance (according to the your answers above). You can try to use simple arithmetic operations between an `np.array` and a scalar, and see what happens! (for instance, `2 * np.array(all_sample_sizes)`.)

```
[38]: # TODO: compute the analytic variance
# (the current command wrongfully sets the variance of an empirical mean
# of a sample with m variables simply as 2*m)

# Normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1, so the variance of the
# empirical mean is 1/m for each m
analyticVariance = 1/np.array(all_sample_sizes)
```

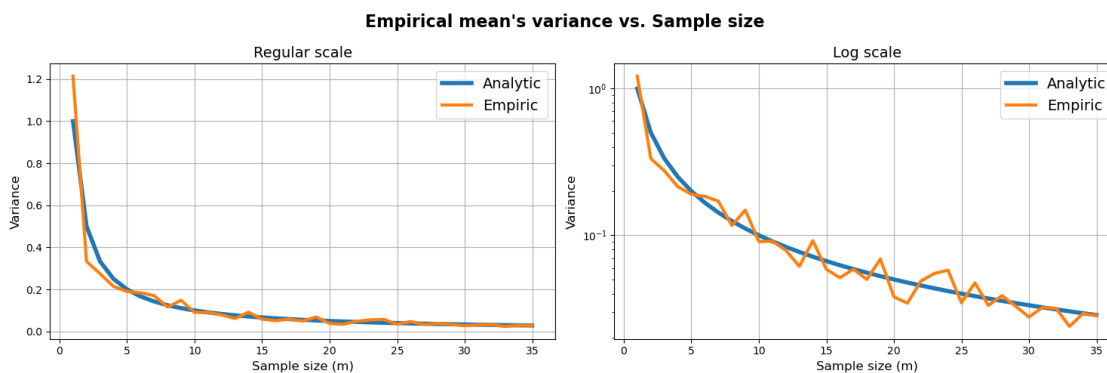
The following code plots the results from the above code. **Do not** edit it, only run it and make sure that the figures make sense.

```
[39]: fig, axes = plt.subplots(1,2, figsize=(15,5))
axes[0].plot(all_sample_sizes, analyticVariance, label="Analytic", linewidth=4)
axes[0].plot(all_sample_sizes, allVariances, label="Empiric", linewidth=3)
axes[0].grid()
axes[0].legend(fontsize=14)
axes[0].set_title("Regular scale", fontsize=14)
axes[0].set_xlabel("Sample size (m)", fontsize=12)
axes[0].set_ylabel("Variance", fontsize=12)

axes[1].semilogy(all_sample_sizes, analyticVariance, label="Analytic",
    ↪linewidth=4)
axes[1].semilogy(all_sample_sizes, allVariances, label="Empiric", linewidth=3)
axes[1].grid()
axes[1].legend(fontsize=14)
axes[1].set_title("Log scale", fontsize=14)
axes[1].set_xlabel("Sample size (m)", fontsize=12)
axes[1].set_ylabel("Variance", fontsize=12)

_ = plt.suptitle("Empirical mean's variance vs. Sample size",
    fontsize=16, fontweight="bold")

plt.tight_layout()
```



6.2 Reminder - Hoeffding's Inequality

Let $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m$ be i.i.d random variables with mean $\mathbb{E}[\theta_i] = \mu$.

Additionally, assume all variables are bound in $[a, b]$ such that $\Pr[a \leq \theta_i \leq b] = 1$.

Then, for any $\epsilon > 0$, the empirical mean $\bar{\theta}(m) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i \theta_i$ holds:

$$\Pr [|\bar{\theta}(m) - \mu| > \epsilon] \leq 2 \exp \left\{ -\frac{2m\epsilon^2}{(b-a)^2} \right\} .$$

6.3 Q2 - Identical coins and the Hoeffding bound

We toss $m \in \mathbb{N}$ identical coins, each coin 50 times.

All coins have the same *unknown* probability of showing “heads”, denoted by $p \in (0, 1)$.

Let θ_i be the (observed) number of times the i -th coin showed “heads”.

1. What is the distribution of each θ_i ?

Answer: θ_i is the number of successes of bernoulli random variable with parameter p , out of 50 tries. The $\text{Bin}(50, p)$

2. What is the mean $\mu = E[\theta_i]$?

Answer: $E[\theta_i] = 50p$.

3. We would like to use the empirical mean defined above as an estimator $\bar{\theta}(m)$ for μ .

Use Hoeffding’s inequality to compute the *smallest* sample size $m \in \mathbb{N}$ that can guarantee an error of $\epsilon = 1$ with confidence 0.99 (notice that we wish to estimate μ , not p).

That is, find the smallest m that holds $\Pr [|\bar{\theta}(m) - \mu| > 1] \leq 0.01$.

Answer:

using Hoeffding’s inequality we get :

$$\Pr [|\bar{\theta}(m) - \mu| > 1] \leq 2 \exp \left\{ -\frac{2m \cdot 1^2}{(50-0)^2} \right\} \underset{\text{set}}{\leq} 0.01$$

$$-\frac{2m}{2500} \leq \ln 0.005$$

$$m \geq -\frac{2500 \cdot \ln 0.005}{2} = 6622.9$$

Therefore, the minimal m is 6623

4. The following code simulates tossing $m = 10^4$ coins, each 50 times. For each coin, we use the empirical mean as the estimator and save it in the `all_estimators` array. The (unknown) probability of each coin is 0.65.

Complete the missing part so that for each coin, an array of 50 binary `observations` will be randomized according to the probability p .

```
[40]: m = 10**4
tosses = 50
p = 0.65
all_estimators = []

# Repeat for n coins
for coin in range(m):
    # TODO: Use Google to find a suitable numpy.random function that creates
    # a binary array of size (tosses,), where each element is 1
    # with probability p, and 0 with probability (1-p).

    # a bernoulli distribution is a binomial distribution with n=1. therefore we
    ↪ can use random.binomial
```

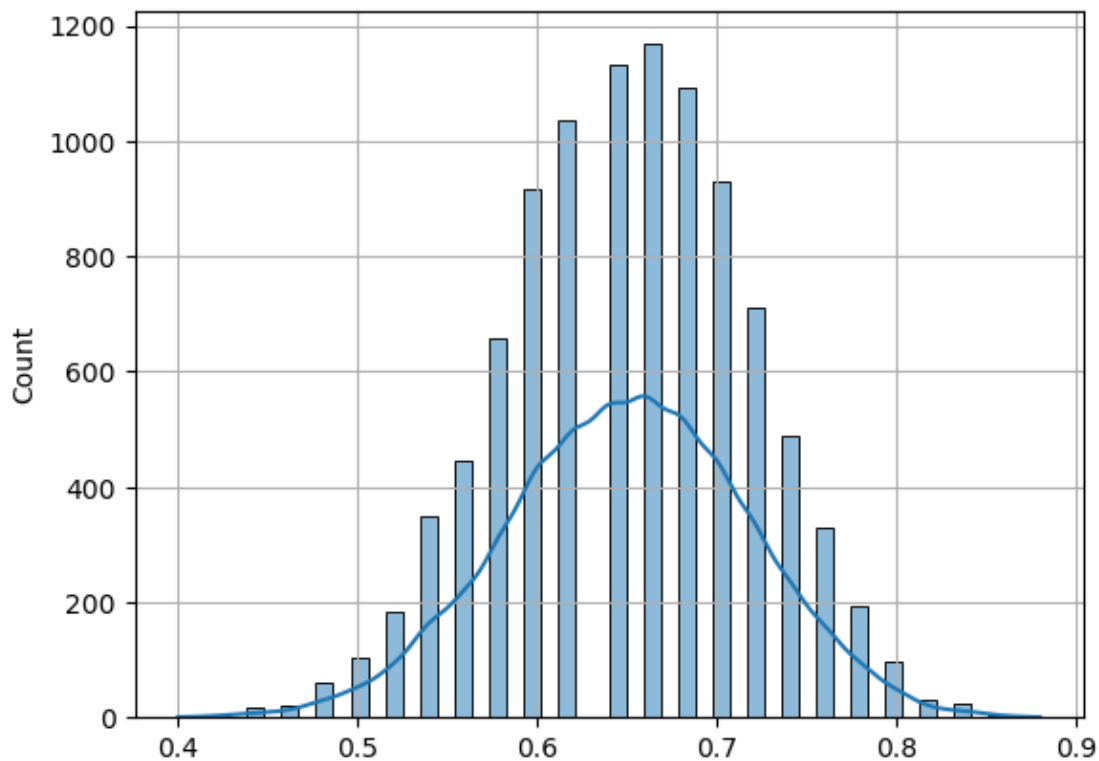
```
# to generate a bernoulli distribution for each index in the array
observations = np.random.binomial(1, p, tosses)

# Compute and save the empirical mean
estimator = np.mean(observations)
all_estimators.append(estimator)
```

5. The following code plots the histogram of the estimators (empirical means). Run it. What type of distribution is obtained (no need to specify the exact parameters of the distribution)? Explain **briefly** what theorem from probability explains this behavior (and why).

Answer: The distribution that is obtained is a Gaussian. The CLT (central limit theorem) explains this behavior. It does so because practically what we're doing is looking at a large sample size of i.i.d bernoulli distributed samples with parameter p , and averaging over the results. We know from CLT that as the number of samples approaches infinity, the estimator approaches a Gaussian with mean p (0.65), and that's what we see in the histogram.

```
[41]: import seaborn as sns
sns.histplot(all_estimators, bins=tosses, kde=True)
plt.grid()
```



6.4 Numerical linear algebra refresher

6.5 Reminder - Positive semi-definite matrices

A symmetric real matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called positive semi-definite (PSD) iff: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} : x^T A x \geq 0$. If the matrix holds the above inequality *strictly*, the matrix is called positive definite (PD).

6.6 Q3 - PSD matrices

1. Let $A \succ 0_{n \times n}$ be a symmetric PD matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

Recall that all eigenvalues of real symmetric matrices are real.

Prove that all the eigenvalues of A are strictly positive.

Answer:

We know from the spectral decomposition that any symmetric real values matrix is orthogonally diagonalizable.

Suppose a spectral decomposition of A , with $\{e_i, \lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$ being the eigenvectors and eigenvalues, respectively.

$\forall i \in [n] : e_i^T A e_i = \lambda_i e_i^T e_i = \lambda_i \|e_i\|_2^2$. From positivity of A we conclude that $\lambda_i > 0$

2. Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be two symmetric PSD matrices.

Prove or refute: the matrix $(2A - B)$ is also PSD.

Answer:

Wrong!

Let $A = I_n, B = 5 \cdot I_n$.

Show that $A, B \succ 0$:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}, x^T A x = x^T x = \|x\|_2^2 > 0$$

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}, x^T B x = x^T 5x = 5 \|x\|_2^2 > 0$$

But $2A - B = -3I_n$, and $(e_1^n)^T (-3I_n) e_1^n = -3 < 0 \Rightarrow 2A - B$ isn't PSD

6.7 Q4 - Gradients

Define $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $f(w) = w^T x + b$, for some vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and a scalar $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Recall: the gradient vector is defined as $\nabla_w f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_d} \right]^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$. 1. Prove that $\nabla_w f = x$.

$$w = (w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots \ w_d)^T, x = (x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_d)^T$$

$$\Rightarrow f(w) = w^T x + b = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \dots + w_d x_d + b$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_i} = x_i$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla_w f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_d} \right]^T = [x_1 \ \dots \ x_d]^T = x$$

Recall/read the definition of the [Hessian matrix](#) $\nabla_w^2 f \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. 2. Find the Hessian matrix $\nabla_w^2 f$ of the function f defined in this question. 3. Is the matrix you found positive semi-definite? Explain.

To calculate the Hessian matrix, we will calculate each index independently:

$$(\nabla_w^2 f)_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_j} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} x_j = 0$$

From that we conclude that the hessian matrix is 0. it is PSD, since for every vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $x^T \cdot 0 \cdot x = 0 \geq 0$

Now, define $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $\lambda > 0$ and $g(w) = \lambda \|w\|^2$.

4. Find the gradient vector $\nabla_w g$.
5. Find the Hessian matrix $\nabla_w^2 g$.
6. Is the matrix you found positive semi-definite? is it positive definite? Explain.

Answers:

Write $w = (w_1, \dots, w_d)^T$. so we get $g(w) = \lambda w^T w = \lambda(w_1, \dots, w_d)(w_1, \dots, w_d)^T = \lambda(w_1^2 + \dots + w_d^2)$
 $\Rightarrow \nabla_w g = [\frac{\partial g}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial g}{\partial w_d}] = [2\lambda w_1, \dots, 2\lambda w_d]$. We can easily see that for the second derivatives, the diagonal of the hessian is 2 and the rest are zeros. That's because every element not in the diagonal calculates the derivative of a "constant" (in respect to the respective variable).

We conclude that $\nabla_w^2 g = 2I_d$

It is PD because for every non-zero vector $x \in R^d$ we get $x^T \nabla_w^2 g x = 2x^T x = 2||x||_2^2 > 0$

We know that every PD matrix is PSD so it is also PSD.