

XCS229i Problem Set 1 (Solutions)

Due Sunday, April 25 at 11:59pm PT.

Guidelines

1. If you have a question about this homework, we encourage you to post your question on our Slack channel, at <http://xcs229i-scpd.slack.com/>
2. Familiarize yourself with the collaboration and honor code policy before starting work.
3. For the coding problems, you must use the packages specified in the provided environment description. Since the autograder uses this environment, we will not be able to grade any submissions which import unexpected libraries.

Submission Instructions

Written Submission: Some questions in this assignment require a written response. For these questions, you should submit a PDF with your solutions online in the online student portal. As long as the PDF is legible and organized, the course staff has no preference between a handwritten and a typeset L^AT_EX submission. If you wish to typeset your submission and are new to L^AT_EX, you can get started with the following:

- Type responses only in `submission.tex`.
- Submit the compiled PDF, **not** `submission.tex`.
- Use the commented instructions within the `Makefile` and `README.md` to get started.

Coding Submission: Some questions in this assignment require a coding response. For these questions, you should submit only the `src/submission.py` file in the online student portal. For further details, see Writing Code and Running the Autograder below.

Honor code

We strongly encourage students to form study groups. Students may discuss and work on homework problems in groups. However, each student must write down the solutions independently, and without referring to written notes from the joint session. In other words, each student must understand the solution well enough in order to reconstruct it by him/herself. In addition, each student should write on the problem set the set of people with whom s/he collaborated. Further, because we occasionally reuse problem set questions from previous years, we expect students not to copy, refer to, or look at the solutions in preparing their answers. It is an honor code violation to intentionally refer to a previous year's solutions. More information regarding the Stanford honor code can be found at <https://communitystandards.stanford.edu/policies-and-guidance/honor-code>.

Writing Code and Running the Autograder

All your code should be entered into `src/submission.py`. When editing `src/submission.py`, please only make changes between the lines containing `### START_CODE_HERE ###` and `### END_CODE_HERE ###`. Do not make changes to files other than `src/submission.py`.

The unit tests in `src/grader.py` (the autograder) will be used to verify a correct submission. Run the autograder locally using the following terminal command within the `src/` subdirectory:

```
$ python grader.py
```

There are two types of unit tests used by the autograder:

- **basic:** These tests are provided to make sure that your inputs and outputs are on the right track, and that the hidden evaluation tests will be able to execute.

- **hidden:** These unit tests are the evaluated elements of the assignment, and run your code with more complex inputs and corner cases. Just because your code passed the basic local tests does not necessarily mean that they will pass all of the hidden tests. These evaluative hidden tests will be run when you submit your code to the Gradescope autograder via the online student portal, and will provide feedback on how many points you have earned.

For debugging purposes, you can run a single unit test locally. For example, you can run the test case `3a-0-basic` using the following terminal command within the `src/` subdirectory:

```
$ python grader.py 3a-0-basic
```

Before beginning this course, please walk through the [Anaconda Setup for XCS Courses](#) to familiarize yourself with the coding environment. Use the env defined in `src/environment.yml` to run your code. This is the same environment used by the online autograder.

Test Cases

The autograder is a thin wrapper over the python `unittest` framework. It can be run either locally (on your computer) or remotely (on SCPD servers). The following description demonstrates what test results will look like for both local and remote execution. For the sake of example, we will consider two generic tests: `1a-0-basic` and `1a-1-hidden`.

Local Execution - Hidden Tests

All hidden tests rely on files that are not provided to students. Therefore, the tests can only be run remotely. When a hidden test like `1a-1-hidden` is executed locally, it will produce the following result:

```
----- START 1a-1-hidden: Test multiple instances of the same word in a sentence.
----- END 1a-1-hidden [took 0:00:00.011989 (max allowed 1 seconds), ???/3 points] (hidden test ungraded)
```

Local Execution - Basic Tests

When a basic test like `1a-0-basic` passes locally, the autograder will indicate success:

```
----- START 1a-0-basic: Basic test case.
----- END 1a-0-basic [took 0:00:00.000062 (max allowed 1 seconds), 2/2 points]
```

When a basic test like `1a-0-basic` fails locally, the error is printed to the terminal, along with a stack trace indicating where the error occurred:

```
----- START 1a-0-basic: Basic test case.
<class 'AssertionError'>
{'a': 2, 'b': 1} != None ← This error caused the test to fail.
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/Software/anaconda3/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 59, in testPartExecutor
yield
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/Software/anaconda3/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 605, in run
testMethod()
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/SCPD/XCS221/A1/src/graderUtil.py", line 54, in wrapper
result = func(*args, **kwargs)
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/SCPD/XCS221/A1/src/graderUtil.py", line 83, in wrapper
result = func(*args, **kwargs)
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/SCPD/XCS221/A1/src/grader.py", line 23, in test_0
submission.extractWordFeatures("a b a") ← In this case, start your debugging
in line 23 of grader.py.
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/Software/anaconda3/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 829, in assertEqual
assertion_func(first, second, msg=msg)
File "/Users/grinch/Local_Documents/Software/anaconda3/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 822, in _baseAssertEqual
raise self.failureException(msg)
----- END 1a-0-basic [took 0:00:00.003809 (max allowed 1 seconds), 0/2 points]
```

Remote Execution

Basic and hidden tests are treated the same by the remote autograder. Here are screenshots of failed basic and hidden tests. Notice that the same information (error and stack trace) is provided as the in local autograder, now for both basic and hidden tests.

1a-0-basic) Basic test case. (0.0/2.0)

```
<class 'AssertionError': {'a': 2, 'b': 1} != None
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 59, in testPartExecutor
    yield
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 605, in run
    testMethod()
File "/autograder/source/graderUtil.py", line 54, in wrapper
    result = func(*args, **kwargs)
File "/autograder/source/graderUtil.py", line 83, in wrapper
    result = func(*args, **kwargs)
File "/autograder/source/grader.py", line 23, in test_0
    submission.extractWordFeatures("a b a"))
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 829, in assertEqual
    assertion_func(first, second, msg=msg)
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 822, in _baseAssertEqual
    raise self.failureException(msg)
```

Just like in the local autograder, this error caused the test to fail.

Just like in the local autograder, start your debugging in line 23 of grader.py.

1a-1-hidden) Test multiple instances of the same word in a sentence. (0.0/3.0)

```
<class 'AssertionError': {'a': 23, 'ab': 22, 'aa': 24, 'c': 16, 'b': 15} != None
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 59, in testPartExecutor
    yield
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 605, in run
    testMethod()
File "/autograder/source/graderUtil.py", line 54, in wrapper
    result = func(*args, **kwargs)
File "/autograder/source/graderUtil.py", line 83, in wrapper
    result = func(*args, **kwargs)
File "/autograder/source/grader.py", line 31, in test_1
    self.compare_with_solution_or_wait(submission, 'extractWordFeatures', lambda f: f(sentence))
File "/autograder/source/graderUtil.py", line 183, in compare_with_solution_or_wait
    self.assertEqual(ans1, ans2)
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 829, in assertEqual
    assertion_func(first, second, msg=msg)
File "/autograder/source/miniconda/envs/XCS221/lib/python3.6/unittest/case.py", line 822, in _baseAssertEqual
    raise self.failureException(msg)
```

This error caused the test to fail.

Start your debugging in line 31 of grader.py.

Finally, here is what it looks like when basic and hidden tests pass in the remote autograder.

1a-0-basic) Basic test case. (2.0/2.0)

1a-1-hidden) Test multiple instances of the same word in a sentence. (3.0/3.0)

1. Convexity of Generalized Linear Models

In this question we will explore and show some nice properties of Generalized Linear Models, specifically those related to its use of Exponential Family distributions to model the output.

Most commonly, GLMs are trained by using the negative log-likelihood (NLL) as the loss function. This is mathematically equivalent to Maximum Likelihood Estimation (*i.e.*, maximizing the log-likelihood is equivalent to minimizing the negative log-likelihood). In this problem, our goal is to show that the NLL loss of a GLM is a *convex* function w.r.t the model parameters. As a reminder, this is convenient because a convex function is one for which any local minimum is also a global minimum, and there is extensive research on how to optimize various types of convex functions efficiently with various algorithms such as gradient descent or stochastic gradient descent.

To recap, an exponential family distribution is one whose probability density can be represented

$$p(y; \eta) = b(y) \exp(\eta^T T(y) - a(\eta)),$$

where η is the *natural parameter* of the distribution. Moreover, in a Generalized Linear Model, η is modeled as $\theta^T x$, where $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are the input features of the example, and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are learnable parameters. In order to show that the NLL loss is convex for GLMs, we break down the process into sub-parts, and approach them one at a time. Our approach is to show that the second derivative (*i.e.*, Hessian) of the loss w.r.t the model parameters is Positive Semi-Definite (PSD) at all values of the model parameters. We will also show some nice properties of Exponential Family distributions as intermediate steps.

For the sake of convenience we restrict ourselves to the case where η is a scalar. Assume $p(Y|X; \theta) \sim \text{ExponentialFamily}(\eta)$, where $\eta \in \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar, and $T(y) = y$. This makes the exponential family representation take the form

$$p(y; \eta) = b(y) \exp(\eta y - a(\eta)).$$

- (a) **[6 points (Written)]** Derive an expression for the mean of the distribution. Show that $\mathbb{E}[Y; \eta] = \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta)$ (note that $\mathbb{E}[Y; \eta] = \mathbb{E}[Y|X; \theta]$ since $\eta = \theta^T x$). In other words, show that the mean of an exponential family distribution is the first derivative of the log-partition function with respect to the natural parameter.

Hint: Start with observing that $\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \int p(y; \eta) dy = \int \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} p(y; \eta) dy$.

- (b) **[6 points (Written)]** Next, derive an expression for the variance of the distribution. In particular, show that $\text{Var}(Y; \eta) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \eta^2} a(\eta)$ (again, note that $\text{Var}(Y; \eta) = \text{Var}(Y|X; \theta)$). In other words, show that the variance of an exponential family distribution is the second derivative of the log-partition function w.r.t. the natural parameter.

Hint: Building upon the result in the previous sub-problem can simplify the derivation.

- (c) **[6 points (Written)]** Finally, write out the loss function $\ell(\theta)$, the NLL of the distribution, as a function of θ . Then, calculate the Hessian of the loss w.r.t θ , and show that it is always PSD. This concludes the proof that NLL loss of GLM is convex.

Hint 1: Use the chain rule of calculus along with the results of the previous parts to simplify your derivations.

Hint 2: Recall that variance of any probability distribution is non-negative.

Remark: The main takeaways from this problem are:

- Any GLM model is convex in its model parameters.
- The exponential family of probability distributions are mathematically nice. Whereas calculating mean and variance of distributions in general involves integrals (hard), surprisingly we can calculate them using derivatives (easy) for exponential family.

2. Linear regression: linear in what?

In the first two lectures, you have seen how to fit a linear function of the data for the regression problem. In this question, we will see how linear regression can be used to fit non-linear functions of the data using feature maps. We will also explore some of its limitations, for which future lectures will discuss fixes.

(a) [5 points (Written)] Learning degree-3 polynomials of the input

Suppose we have a dataset $\{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$ where $x^{(i)}, y^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}$. We would like to fit a third degree polynomial $h_\theta(x) = \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_1 x^1 + \theta_0$ to the dataset. The key observation here is that the function $h_\theta(x)$ is still linear in the unknown parameter θ , even though it's not linear in the input x . This allows us to convert the problem into a linear regression problem as follows.

Let $\phi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ be a function that transforms the original input x to a 4-dimensional vector defined as

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ x^3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4 \quad (1)$$

Let $\hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4$ be a shorthand for $\phi(x)$, and let $\hat{x}^{(i)} \triangleq \phi(x^{(i)})$ be the transformed input in the training dataset. We construct a new dataset $\{(\phi(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n = \{(\hat{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$ by replacing the original inputs $x^{(i)}$'s by $\hat{x}^{(i)}$'s. We see that fitting $h_\theta(x) = \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_1 x^1 + \theta_0$ to the old dataset is equivalent to fitting a linear function $h_\theta(\hat{x}) = \theta_3 \hat{x}_3 + \theta_2 \hat{x}_2 + \theta_1 \hat{x}_1 + \theta_0$ to the new dataset because

$$h_\theta(x) = \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_1 x^1 + \theta_0 = \theta_3 \phi(x)_3 + \theta_2 \phi(x)_2 + \theta_1 \phi(x)_1 + \theta_0 = \theta^T \hat{x} \quad (2)$$

In other words, we can use linear regression on the new dataset to find parameters $\theta_0, \dots, \theta_3$.

Please write down 1) the objective function $J(\theta)$ of the linear regression problem on the new dataset $\{(\hat{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$ and 2) the update rule of the batch gradient descent algorithm for linear regression on the dataset $\{(\hat{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$.

Terminology: In machine learning, ϕ is often called the feature map which maps the original input x to a new set of variables. To distinguish between these two sets of variables, we will call x the input **attributes**, and call $\phi(x)$ the **features**. (Unfortunately, different authors use different terms to describe these two things. In this course, we will do our best to follow the above convention consistently.)

(b) [3 points (Coding)] Degree-3 polynomial regression

For this sub-question question, we will use the datasets provided in the following file:

`src/train.csv`

This file contains two columns: x and y . In the terminology described in the introduction, x is the attribute (in this case one dimensional) and y is the output label.

Using the formulation of the previous sub-question, implement linear regression with **normal equations** using the feature map of degree-3 polynomials. Using the `LinearModel` provided in `src/submission.py`, this means you will be implementing the functions `fit()`, `predict()`, and `create_poly()`.

To verify a correct implementation, autograder test case 2b-2-basic will create a plot in `src/large-poly3.png`. This plot should look similar to the following:

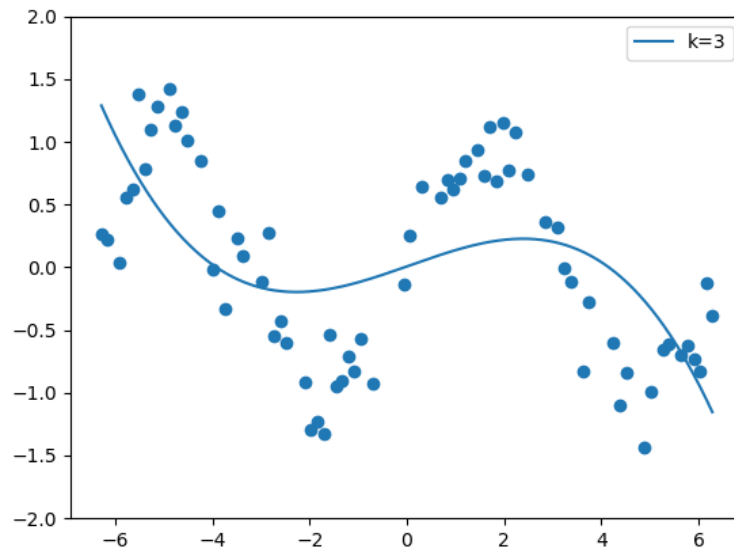


Figure 1: Polynomial regression with degree 3

Remark: Suppose \hat{X} is the design matrix of the transformed dataset. You may sometimes encounter a non-invertible matrix $\hat{X}^T \hat{X}$. For a numerically stable code implementation, always use `np.linalg.solve` to obtain the parameters directly, rather than explicitly calculating the inverse and then multiplying it with $\hat{X}^T y$.

(c) [5 points (Coding)] **Degree- k polynomial regression**

Now we extend the idea above to degree- k polynomials by considering $\phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$ to be

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ \vdots \\ x^k \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1} \quad (3)$$

Ensure your code from the previous sub-question works with a general k . We will use $k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20$ as test cases. To verify a correct implementation, autograder test case `2c-7-basic` will create a plot in `src/large-poly.png`. This plot should look similar to the following:

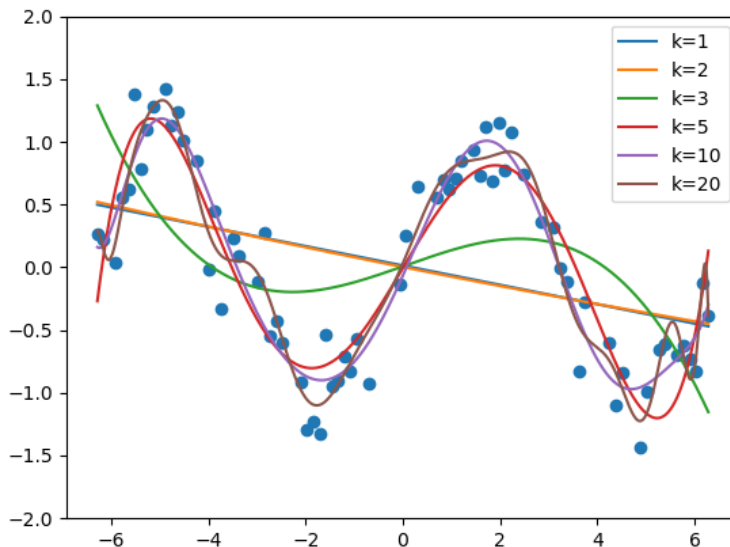


Figure 2: Polynomial regression with kernel sizes 1,2,3,5,10 and 20

(d) [1 point (Written)]

Regarding question 2.c, briefly comment on your observations of the fit for each K value.

(e) [5 points (Coding)] Other feature maps

You may have observed that it requires a relatively high degree k to fit the given training data, and this is because the dataset cannot be explained (i.e., approximated) very well by low-degree polynomials. By visualizing the data, you may have realized that y can be approximated well by a sine wave. In fact, we generated the data by sampling from $y = \sin(x) + \xi$, where ξ is noise with Gaussian distribution. Please update the feature map ϕ to include a sine transformation as follows:

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(x) \\ 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ \vdots \\ x^k \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{k+2} \quad (4)$$

Complete the function `create_sin()` in `src/submission.py` to implement the updated feature map. Again, ensure your code works with a general k . We will use $k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20$ as test cases. To verify a correct implementation, autograder test case `2e-7-basic` will create a plot in `src/large-sine.png`. This plot should look similar to the following:

Your plot should look similar to the following:

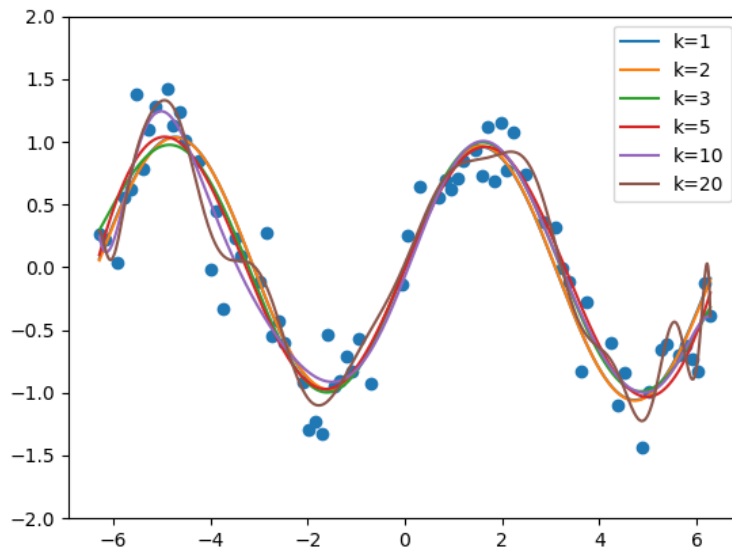


Figure 3: Polynomial regression with other features with kernel sizes 1,2,3,5,10 and 20

(f) [1 point (Written)]

Compare the fitted models for 2.e with those from 2.c, and briefly comment about noticeable differences in the fit with this feature map.

(g) [0 points (Coding)] **Overfitting with expressive models and small data**

You will not be required to code, write, or submit anything for this sub-question. For this and the remaining sub-questions, we will consider a small dataset (a random subset of the dataset you have been using so far) with much fewer examples, provided in the following file:

`src/small.csv`

We will be exploring what happens when the number of features start becoming bigger than the number of examples in the training set. Run your algorithm on this small dataset using the following feature map

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ \vdots \\ x^k \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1} \quad (5)$$

with $k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20$ using the autograder test case `2g-0-basic`, which will create plots in `src/smalle-poly.png` and `src/small-sine.png`.

Remark: The phenomenon you observe where the models start to fit the training dataset very well, but suddenly “goes wild” is due to what is called *overfitting*. The intuition to have for now is that, when the amount of data you have is small relative to the expressive capacity of the family of possible models (that is, the hypothesis class, which, in this case, is the family of all degree k polynomials), it results in overfitting.

Loosely speaking, the set of hypothesis function is “very flexible” and can be easily forced to pass through all your data points especially in unnatural ways. In other words, the model explains the noises in the training dataset, which shouldn’t be explained in the first place. This hurts the predictive power of the model on test examples. We will describe overfitting in more detail in future lectures when we cover learning theory and bias-variance tradeoffs.

Your plots should look similar to the following:

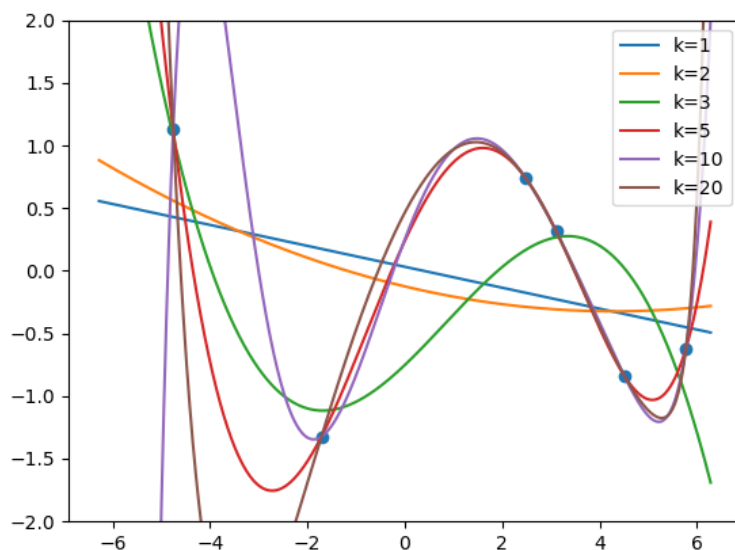


Figure 4: Polynomial regression with kernel sizes 1,2,3,5,10 and 20 on small dataset

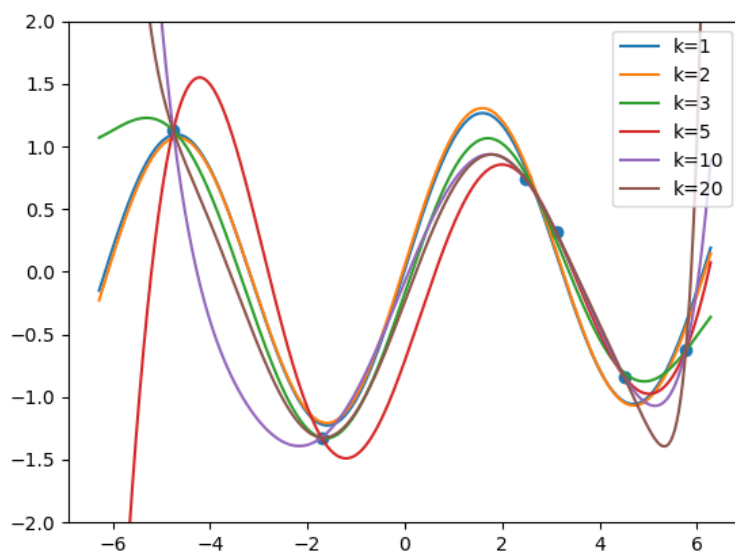


Figure 5: Regression with other polynomial and sinusoidal features with kernel sizes 1,2,3,5,10 and 20 on small dataset

(h) [2 points (Written)]

Regarding question 2.g, observe and comment on how the fitting of the training dataset changes as k increases.

This handout includes space for every question that requires a written response. Please feel free to use it to handwrite your solutions (legibly, please). If you choose to typeset your solutions, the `README.md` for this assignment includes instructions to regenerate this handout with your typeset L^AT_EX solutions.

1.a

The expectation of an exponential family distribution is first derivative of the log-partition function $a(\eta)$ w.r.t the natural parameters η .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} p(y; \eta) &= p(y; \eta) \left(y - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \right) \\
 \Rightarrow \int \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} p(y; \eta) dy &= \int p(y; \eta) \left(y - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \right) dy \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \int p(y; \eta) dy &= \int y p(y; \eta) dy - \int p(y; \eta) \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) dy \\
 &\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} 1 = \mathbb{E}[Y; \eta] - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \int p(y; \eta) dy \\
 &\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[Y; \eta] = \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta)
 \end{aligned}$$

1.b

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \eta^2} a(\eta) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \mathbb{E}[Y|X; \theta] \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \int yp(y; \eta) dy \\ &= \int yp(y; \eta) \left(y - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \right) dy \\ &= \int y^2 p(y; \eta) dy - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \int yp(y; \eta) dy \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y^2; \eta] - \mathbb{E}[Y; \eta]^2 \\ &= \text{Var}(Y; \eta).\end{aligned}$$

1.c

$$\begin{aligned}
\ell(\theta) &= -\log [p(y; \eta)] \\
&= -\log [b(y) \exp(\eta y - a(\eta))] \\
&= a(\eta) - \eta y + C \\
&= a(\theta^T x) - \theta^T x y + C
\end{aligned}$$

Gradient of the loss w.r.t. θ is

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \nabla_{\theta} \eta - yx \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) x - yx
\end{aligned}$$

Hessian of the loss w.r.t. θ is

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla_{\theta}^2 \ell(\theta) &= \nabla_{\theta} (\nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta)) \\
&= \nabla_{\theta} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) x - yx \right) \\
&= x \nabla_{\theta} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \right) \\
&= x \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} a(\eta) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \eta \\
&= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \eta^2} a(\eta) x x^T \\
&= \text{Var}(Y; \eta) x x^T
\end{aligned}$$

Observe that xx^T is always PSD because for any vector $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$ we have $z^T (xx^T) z = (z^T x)(x^T z) = (z^T x)^2 \geq 0$. Also, for any value of θ , $\text{Var}(Y; \eta)$ is always positive. Therefore the Hessian $\nabla_{\theta}^2 \ell(\theta) = \text{Var}(Y; \eta) x x^T$ of GLM's NLL loss is PSD, and hence convex. (Note that just saying elements of H is non-negative is not sufficient in showing it is a PSD)

2.a

$$\begin{aligned}
 J(\theta) &= \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta^T \hat{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating this objective, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) &= \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta^T \hat{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) (\hat{x}^{(i)}) \\
 &\propto \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta^T \hat{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) (\hat{x}^{(i)})
 \end{aligned}$$

Where λ is the learning rate. The gradient descent update rule is

$$\theta := \theta - \lambda \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$$

which reduces here to:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta &:= \\
 &:= \theta - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta^T \hat{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) (\hat{x}^{(i)})
 \end{aligned}$$

2.d

Generally higher degree polynomials tend to fit the data better, though very high degree polynomials can be numerically unstable.

2.f

In the presence of the $\sin(x)$ feature, the models seem to fit the data better / more robustly. However the numerical instability that comes with high degree polynomials remain.

2.h

We see that when the dataset is small, higher degree polynomials tend to pass through all the points, but qualitatively seem like a poor fit. Numerical instability with high degree polynomials remain a problem even with small data, with or without $\sin(x)$.