# Lab 5: Regression & Neural Networks

519021910702 游克垚

# 1 Exercise 1: Linear Regression

#### 1.1 Implemention

My implemention is as follows:

```
import numpy as np
1
2
   if __name__ == "__main__":
3
       X = np.load('Data1 X.npy')
4
       Y = np.load('Data1_Y.npy')
5
6
7
       X = np.matrix(X)
       Y = np.matrix(Y)
8
9
       Y_hat = X * (X.T * X).I * X.T * Y
10
```

#### 1.2 Result

The result of  $\hat{Y}^T$  is as follows:

```
1
   [ 90.19765634
                    47.67686144
                                 91.65938765 120.74673813 115.32784698
2
      99.5235342
                   101.6811349
                                 73.64256436 118.02996154 101.22977512
3
      53.90993768
                    80.72800342 100.06768951
                                               84.87342942 108.10549645
4
      84.28833524
                    87.50086209
                                 87.23821599
                                               82.31093561 104.35109097
5
      69.9964474
                    97.5290999 113.73176903 83.13355445 125.47193094
                    87.03894768
                                 94.06534565
                                              72.53264476 105.78014471
6
      91.16712382
 7
     109.47621827
                    93.9088358 110.22388501
                                              83.04389589 105.0040709
8
      64.34001661
                    58.32922243
                                 90.39147089 113.32483653
                                                            62.51171231
9
      86.12664693
                    78.76219229
                                 58.93439827
                                               42.12567826 126.62571301
10
     106.33033386
                    46.80686218
                                 64.43015537
                                               60.12018271
                                                            58.64341279
     103.05922202 108.34444014
                                 59.46080212 136.30383353
                                                            86.79373439
11
      81.59990756
                    91.86133364 100.73337199
                                               86.9771913
12
                                                            70.95011886
13
      75.72726683
                    97.88306054
                                 34.9951482
                                             100.82833137 109.88897963
14
                   89.46905032 136.37900461
                                               65.90720482
                                                            82.27029322
      92.81345368
                    46.88349888
                                 69.84761845
                                               95.91483137
15
     111.67846566
                                                            62.0903558
      74.21588583
                   79.1009826
                                 71.19647357 127.98576243
                                                            59.55125149
16
```

```
    17
    94.22580938
    82.5433742
    74.60546716
    87.18355727
    99.21624982

    18
    91.55587898
    114.7186236
    107.22598751
    89.13747846
    112.2219674

    19
    91.2314803
    104.22842129
    102.5151316
    109.87026128
    117.48132199

    20
    78.98080158
    50.16010039
    85.87762567
    85.88482494
    106.62073286]]
```

Under the geometric interpretation of linear regression, our goal is to find a point  $\hat{Y}$  in the X plane which is the nearest to the point Y. So vector  $Y - \hat{Y}$  must be perpendicular to the X plane. So

$$X^{T}(Y - \hat{Y}) = 0$$
  
$$X^{T}(Y - X\hat{\theta}) = 0$$
  
$$\hat{\theta} = (X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}Y$$

So 
$$\hat{Y} = X\hat{\theta} = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^TY$$
.

# 2 Exercise 2: Logistic Regression

### 2.1 Implemention

My implemention is as follows:

```
import numpy as np
   import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
   from utils import plot_decision_boundary
4
   def CELoss_binary(X, y, theta):
5
6
        z = X @ theta
 7
       y_{hat} = 1 / (1 + np.exp(-z))
        return - (y.T @ np.log(y_hat + 0.000001) + (1-y).T @ np.log(1-y_hat + 0.000001)) /
 8
           X.shape[0]
9
   def precision(y_true, y_predict):
10
11
        return np.sum(y_true == y_predict) / y_true.shape[0]
12
   def predict(X, theta, threshold):
13
14
        z = X @ theta
       y_hat = 1 / (1+np.exp(-z))
15
       y_predict = np.zeros(y_hat.shape)
16
       y_predict[y_hat > threshold] = 1
17
        return y predict
18
19
20
   def gradient(X, y, theta):
21
        z = X @ theta
       y_hat = 1 / (1 + np.exp(-z))
22
        return X.T @ (y_hat-y) / X.shape[0]
23
24
25 if __name__ == "__main__":
```

```
26
                      X_all, y_all = np.load('Data2_X.npy'), np.load('Data2_Y.npy')
27
28
                      b = np.ones((X_all.shape[0], 1))
29
                      X_all = np.c_[X_all, b]
30
31
                      for k in range(3):
32
                                 theta = np.ones((X_all.shape[1],))
33
34
                                 lr = 0.01
35
                                 iteration num = 1000
36
                                 threshold = 0.2 + k * 0.3
37
38
                                 loss = []
39
                                 prec = []
40
41
                                 for i in range(iteration_num):
42
                                             # change algorithm
                                             index = np.random.choice(np.arange(X_all.shape[0]), size=100, replace=False
43
                                                        )
                                             X = X_all[index]
44
45
                                             y = y_all[index]
46
                                             theta -= lr * gradient(X, y, theta)
47
                                             y_predict = predict(X_all, theta, threshold)
48
49
50
                                             loss.append(CELoss binary(X all, y all, theta))
                                             prec.append(precision(y_all, y_predict))
51
52
53
                                 # plt.plot([i for i in range(iteration_num)], loss, label=str(threshold))
                                 # plt.plot([i for i in range(iteration_num)], prec, label=str(threshold))
54
55
                                 plot_decision_boundary(X_all, y_all, lambda x : predict(np.c_[x, np.ones((x. lambda x = lambda x 
56
                                             shape[0], 1))], theta, threshold))
                                 plt.show()
57
58
59
                      # plt.legend()
60
61
                      # plt.xlabel('iteration times')
                      # plt.ylabel('precision')
62
63
                      # plt.ylabel('binary cross entropy loss')
64
65
                      # plt.show()
```

When counting CELoss\_binary, I add a small number to  $\hat{y}$  to avoid np.log(0).

### 2.2 Binary cross entropy loss

The graphs of binary cross entropy loss against the number of iterations using stochastic gradient descent, mini-batch gradient descent and (batch) gradient descent respectively under 3 different learning rates are as follows:

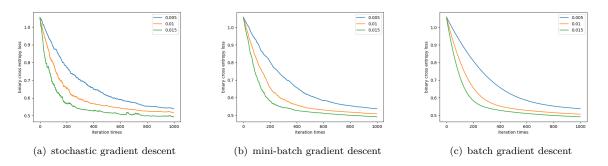


Fig 2-1 binary cross entropy loss under 3 different learning rates

If the learning rate is larger, the binary cross entropy loss descends quicker. And the binary cross entropy loss fluctuates most when using stochastic gradient descent, less when using mini-batch gradient descent and least when using batch gradient descent. The stochastic gradient descent is also the fastest, followed by mini-batch gradient descent, and the batch gradient descent is the slowest.

The graphs of binary cross entropy loss against the number of iterations using stochastic gradient descent, mini-batch gradient descent and (batch) gradient descent respectively under 3 different values of the threshold are as follows:

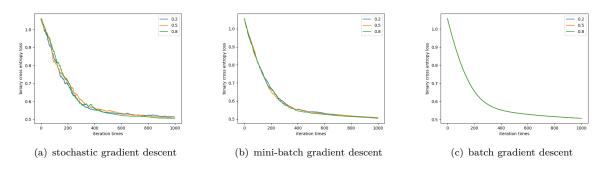


Fig 2-2 binary cross entropy loss under 3 different values of the threshold

The value of threshold doesn't effect binary cross entropy loss much because it only works when predicting. The effects of types of gradients are the same.

#### 2.3 Precision

The graphs of precision against the number of iterations using stochastic gradient descent, minibatch gradient descent and (batch) gradient descent respectively under 3 different learning rates are as follows:

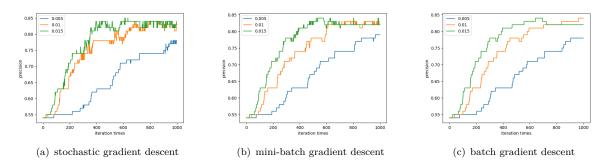


Fig 2-3 precision under 3 different learning rates

Similar to the graphs above, the learning rate influences the speed of learning. But when the learning rate is too large, it is difficult to converge and the precision is low. The effects of types of gradients are the same.

The graphs of precision under 3 different values of the threshold are as follows:

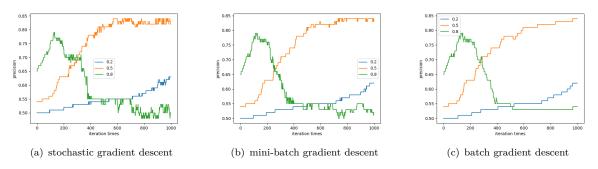


Fig 2-4 precision under 3 different values of the threshold

The value of the threshold is important to precision because it decides the decision boundary. The effects of types of gradients are the same.

#### 2.4 Decision boundary

The graphs of decision boundary of predictions with different values of threshold are as follows:

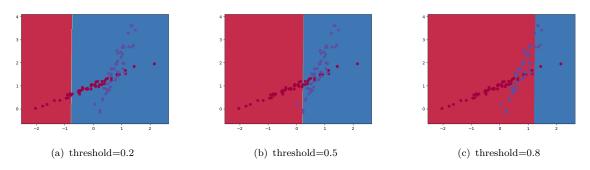


Fig 2-5 decision boundary of predictions with different values of threshold

We can find that if the value of threshold is smaller, the decision boundary moves more in the

negative direction of the x-axis. But with the number of iteration increasing, they will gradually approach to each other.

# 3 Exercise 3: L1/L2 Regularization

#### 3.1 Ridge regression

My implemention is as follows:

```
def ridge regression(x, y, lamda):
2
       # Normalize data.
       x = (x - x.mean(axis=-1, keepdims=True)) / x.std(axis=-1, keepdims=True)
       from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge
4
       ridge = Ridge(alpha=lamda)
5
       ridge.fit(x, y)
6
       y_pred = ridge.predict(x) # predicted labels of size (n_samples, )
7
       intercept = ridge.intercept_ # b of size ()
8
9
       coef = ridge.coef_ # theta of size (n_dims, )
       return y_pred, intercept, coef
10
```

The result of ridge regression is as follows:

```
1 0.03876948356628418 1.042289124220179 0.0
2 0.0012583732604980469 1.1052304919020004 0.0
3 0.0005276203155517578 1.5737740179631936 0.0
4 0.0006253719329833984 1.6765680529544285 0.0
5 0.000644683837890625 1.732565285766469 0.0
6 0.0005466938018798828 7.331330534314156 0.0
```

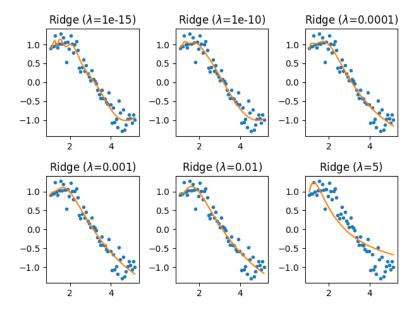


Fig 3-6 result of ridge regression

#### 3.2 Lasso regression

My implemention is as follows:

```
def lasso_regression(x, y, lamda):
 1
 2
        # Normalize data.
       x = (x - x.mean(axis=-1, keepdims=True)) / x.std(axis=-1, keepdims=True)
3
4
       from sklearn.linear_model import Lasso
5
6
       lasso = Lasso(alpha=lamda, max_iter=1000000)
7
8
       lasso.fit(x, y)
9
       y_pred = lasso.predict(x) # predicted labels of size (n_samples, )
10
        intercept = lasso.intercept_ # b of size ()
11
12
       coef = lasso.coef_ # theta of size (n_dims, )
13
14
       return y_pred, intercept, coef
```

The result of lasso regression is as follows:

```
1 1.448115348815918 1.333009473823675 0.0

2 0.4232501983642578 1.5347481924504889 68.75

3 0.003134012222290039 1.7176378773851337 75.0

4 0.0009174346923828125 1.8505307867417076 81.25

5 0.0005638599395751953 3.134818651748969 87.5

6 0.000553131103515625 40.4165451776714 100.0
```

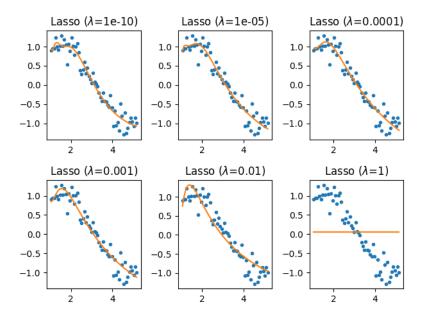


Fig 3-7 result of lasso regression

#### 3.3 Discussion

We can find ridge regression spends less time while lasso regression spends more time. So ridge regression is less computationally expensive. And lasso regression tends to create a sparser output. Generalization refers a model adjusting itself based on the training data. Regularization refers a model reducing coefficients in learning and preventing overfitting. So regularization is a method to increase generalization.

## 4 Exercise 4: Two-layer Perceptron Network

### 4.1 Implemention

My implemention is as follows:

```
class Relu(Layer):
 1
2
        def __init__(self, name):
 3
            super(Relu, self).__init__(name)
 4
        def forward(self, input):
 5
            self. saved for backward(input)
 6
            input[input <= 0] = 0</pre>
 7
8
9
            return input
10
        def backward(self, grad_output):
11
12
            grad_output[self._saved_tensor <= 0] = 0</pre>
13
            return grad_output
14
15
16
    class Linear(Layer):
        def __init__(self, name, in_num, out_num, init_std):
17
            super(Linear, self).__init__(name, trainable=True)
18
19
            self.in_num = in_num
20
21
            self.out_num = out_num
            self.W = np.random.randn(in_num, out_num) * init_std
22
            self.b = np.zeros(out_num)
23
24
25
            self.grad_W = np.zeros((in_num, out_num))
26
            self.grad_b = np.zeros(out_num)
27
28
            self.diff_W = np.zeros((in_num, out_num))
29
            self.diff_b = np.zeros(out_num)
30
31
        def forward(self, input):
            self._saved_for_backward(input)
32
33
```

```
return input.dot(self.W) + self.b
34
35
36
        def backward(self, grad_output):
37
            self.grad_W = self._saved_tensor.T @ grad_output
38
            self.grad_b = grad_output.sum(axis=0)
39
40
            return grad_output @ self.W.T
41
42
       def update(self, config):
43
            mm = config['momentum']
44
            lr = config['learning_rate']
45
46
            self.W -= lr * self.grad W
47
            self.b -= lr * self.grad_b
48
49
   class Network(object):
50
        def __init__(self):
            self.layer_list = []
51
52
            self.params = []
53
            self.num_layers = 0
54
       def add(self, layer):
55
56
            self.layer_list.append(layer)
57
            self.num_layers += 1
58
59
       def forward(self, input):
            output = input
60
61
            for i in range(self.num_layers):
62
                output = self.layer_list[i].forward(output)
63
64
            return output
65
66
       def backward(self, grad_output):
            grad = grad_output
67
            for i in range(self.num layers-1, -1, -1):
68
69
                grad = self.layer_list[i].backward(grad)
70
            return grad
71
72
73
       def update(self, config):
            for i in range(self.num_layers):
74
75
                if self.layer_list[i].trainable:
76
                    self.layer_list[i].update(config)
77
       def predict(self, input):
78
79
            y pred = self.forward(input).argmax(axis=-1)
80
81
            return y_pred
```

```
82
    class EuclideanLoss:
83
84
        def __init__(self, name):
            self.name = name
85
86
        def forward(self, input, target):
87
            return ((target - input) ** 2).mean(axis=0).sum() / 2.
88
89
        def backward(self, input, target):
90
91
            return (input - target)
```

### 4.2 Result

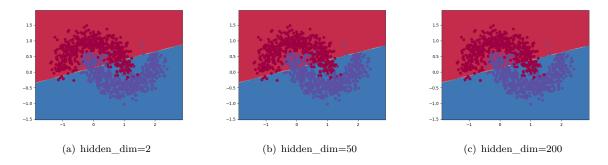


Fig 4-8 result of two-layer perceptron network

The result of two-layer perceptron network having different numbers of hidden neurons is the same. But if the number of hidden neurons is smaller, it is more likely to produce a failure as below.

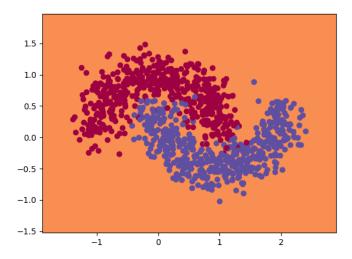


Fig 4-9 a failure of training