### Exercises 3.15

# Exercise 3.15.1

Let  $p, p_i, q, q_i$  be density functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Show that the cross-entropy satisficies the following properties:

a. 
$$S(p_1 + p_2, q) = S(p_1, q) + S(p_2, q);$$

b. 
$$S(\alpha p, q) = \alpha S(p, q) = S(p, q^{\alpha});$$

c. 
$$S(p, q_1q_2) = S(p, q_1) + S(p, q_2)$$
.

### Exercise 3.15.2

Show that the cross entropy satisfies the following inequality

$$S(p,q) \ge 1 - \int p(x)q(x)dx$$

### Exercise 3.15.3

Let p a fixed density. Show that the symetric relative entropy

$$D_{KL}(p||q) + D_{KL}(q||p)$$

reaches its minimum for p = q, and the minimum is equal to zero.

#### Exercise 3.15.4

Consider two exponential densities,  $p_1 = \xi^1 e^{\xi^1 x}$  and  $p_2 = \xi^2 e^{\xi^2 x}$ ,  $x \ge 0$ .

a. Show that 
$$D_{KL}(p_1 || p_2) = \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} - \ln \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} - 1$$
.

- b. Verify  $D_{KL}(p_1||p_2) \neq D_{KL}(p_2||p_1)$ .
- c. Show that the triangle inequality doesn't hold for three arbitrary densities.

### Exercise 3.15.5

Let X be a discrete random variable. Show the inequality

$$H(X) \geq 0$$
.

### Exercise 3.15.6

Prove that if p and q are the densities of two discrete random variables, then  $D_{KL}(p||q) \leq S(p,q)$ 

### Exercise 3.15.7

We asume the target variable Z is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable. What is mean squared error function in this case?

### Exercise 3.15.8

Asume that a neural network has an input-output function  $f_{w,b}$  linear in w and b. Show that the cost function (3.3.1) reaches its minimum for a unique pair  $(w^*, b^*)$ , which can be computed explicitly.

# Exercise 3.15.9

Show that the Shannon entropy can be retrived from the Reyni entropy as

$$H(p) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1} H_{\alpha}(x).$$

# **Exercise 3.15.10**

Let  $\phi_{\sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}e^{-\frac{t^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ . Consider the convolution operation  $(f*g)(x) := \int f(t)g(x-t)dt$ .

- a. Show that  $\phi_{\sigma} * \phi_{\sigma} = \phi_{\sigma\sqrt{2}}$ ;
- b. Find  $\phi_{\sigma} * \phi_{\sigma'}$  in the case  $\sigma \neq \sigma'$ .

# **Exercise 3.15.11**

Consider two probability densities, p(x) and q(x). The Cauchy-Schwartz divergence is defined by

$$D_{CS}(p,q) := -\ln\left(\frac{\int p(x)q(x)dx}{\sqrt{\int p(x)^2 dx}}\sqrt{\int q(x)^2 dx}\right)$$

Show the following:

- a.  $D_{CS}(p,q) = 0$  if and only if p = q;
- b.  $D_{CS}(p,q) \ge 0$ ;
- c.  $D_{CS}(p,q) = D_{CS}(q,p);$
- d.  $D_{CS}(p,q) = -\ln \int pq dx \frac{1}{2}H_2(p) \frac{1}{2}H_2(q)$ , where  $H_2(\cdot)$  denotes the quadratic Reyni entropy.

### Exercise 3.15.12

- a. Show that for any function  $f \in L^1[0,1]$  we have the inequality  $\|\tanh(f)\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1$ .
- b. Show that for any function  $f \in L^2[0,1]$  we have the inequality  $\|\tanh(f)\|_2 \leq \|f\|_2$ .

# **Exercise 3.15.13**

Consider two distributions on the sample space  $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2\}$  given by

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}, \ q = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

Consider the function  $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by  $\phi(x_1) = (0,1)$   $\phi(x_2) = (1,0)$ . Find the maximum mean discrepancy between p and q.

### SOLUTIONS

### 3.15.1 (a)

The claim follows from the linearity of the integral operator. In symbols we have:

$$S(p_1 + p_2, q) = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} (p_1(x) + p_2(x)) \ln q(x) dx = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} p_1(x) \ln q(x) dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}} p_2(x) \ln q(x) dx$$
  
=  $S(p_1, q) + S(p_2, q)$ .

### 3.15.1 (b)

From the linearity of the integral operator, and the property  $c \ln(x) = \ln(x^c)$  we have:

$$S(\alpha p, q) = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} \alpha p(x) \ln q(x) dx = -\alpha \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) \ln q(x) dx = \alpha S(p, q)$$
$$= -\int_{\mathbb{R}} \alpha p(x) \ln q(x) dx = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) \ln q(x)^{\alpha} dx = S(p, q^{\alpha}).$$

### 3.15.1 (c)

Using the addition identity for the logarithm, we get:

$$S(p, q_1 q_2) = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) \ln q_1(x) q_2(x) dx = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) \ln q_1(x) dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) \ln q_2(x) dx$$
  
=  $S(p, q_1) + S(p, q_2)$ .

#### 3.15.2

By the inequality  $\ln(x) \leq x - 1$ ,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , and the definition of cross-entropy follows:

$$\begin{split} S(p,q) &= -\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) \mathrm{ln} q(x) dx \geq -\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) (q(x)-1) dx \\ &\geq -\int_{\mathbb{R}} -p(x) dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) q(x) dx = 1 - \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) q(x) dx. \end{split}$$

### 3.15.3

From proposition 3.5.1 follows that  $D_{KL}(p||q) \ge 0$ ,  $D_{KL}(q||p) \ge 0$ , then  $D_{KL}(p||q) + D_{KL}(q||p) \ge 0$ . Clearly the value 0 is a minimum. Let's now prove that this minimum is attained when p = q. It is well known from the cross-entropy definition S(p,p) = H(p) and S(q,q) = H(q) then:

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = D_{KL}(p||p) = S(p,p) - H(p) = 0$$
 and  $D_{KL}(q||p) = D_{KL}(q||q) = S(q,q) - H(q) = 0$ , which in turn imply  $D_{KL}(p||q) + D_{KL}(q||p) = 0$ .

### 3.15.4 (a)

By direct calculation we find:

$$\begin{split} D_{KL}(p_1 \| p_2) &= S(p_1, p_2) - H(p_1) = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} \ln(\xi^2 e^{-\xi^2 x}) dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} \ln(\xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x}) \\ &= -\int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} \ln(\xi^2) dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} \xi^2 x dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} \ln(\xi^1) dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} \xi^1 x dx \\ &= -(\ln(\xi^2) - \ln(\xi^1)) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 e^{-\xi^1 x} dx + (\xi^2 - \xi^1) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \xi^1 x e^{-\xi^1 x} dx \\ &= -(\ln(\xi^2) - \ln(\xi^1)) \mathbb{E}_{X \sim exp(\xi^1)} \left[ 1 \right] + (\xi^2 - \xi^1) \mathbb{E}_{X \sim exp(\xi^1)} \left[ X \right] = -\ln \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} + (\xi^2 - \xi^1) \frac{1}{\xi^1} \\ &= -\ln \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} + \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} - 1 \end{split}$$

# 3.15.4 (b)

Suppose the equality  $D_{KL}(p||p) = D_{KL}(q||p)$  holds and  $\xi^1 \neq \xi^2$ , then from exercise 3.14.4.a it follows:  $-\ln\frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} + \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} - 1 = -\ln\frac{\xi^1}{\xi^2} + \frac{\xi^1}{\xi^2} - 1 \implies \frac{\xi^2}{\xi^1} = \frac{\xi^1}{\xi^2}$ . The later implies  $\frac{\xi^1}{\xi^2} = 1$  or equivalently  $\xi^1 = \xi^2$ , which is a contradiction.

### 3.15.4 (c)

Let  $p_1 = exp(2)$ ,  $p_2 = exp(3)$ ,  $p_3 = exp(4)$ . Suppose the triangle inequality holds for these three arbitary exponential distributions. This is:

 $D_{KL}(p_1||p_3) \le D_{KL}(p_1||p_2) + D_{KL}(p_2||p_3)$ . By exercise 3.15.4.b we would have:

$$D_{KL}(p_1||p_3) = \frac{4}{2} - \ln\frac{4}{2} - 1 \le D_{KL}(p_1||p_2) + D_{KL}(p_2||p_3) = \frac{3}{2} - \ln\frac{3}{2} - 1 + \frac{4}{3} - \ln\frac{4}{3} - 1$$
$$2 \le \frac{3}{2} + \frac{4}{3} - 1 = \frac{17}{6} - 1 = \frac{11}{6} = \frac{12}{6} - \frac{1}{6} = 2 - \frac{1}{6} \text{ (contradiction!)}$$

### 3.15.5 (a)

Given that p(x) is a distribution, it follows that p(X) as a r.v satisfies the inequality  $0 \le p(X) \le 1$ . This means  $p(x) \le 1, \forall x \in \sup(X)$ . Taking natural logs on both sides of the inequality  $p(x) \le 1$  and multiplying by -1, we obtain:  $\ln p(x) \ge 0$ ; Multiplying by p(x) and summing over the support of X, we get:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[-\ln p(X)\right] = H(X) = \sum_{x \in \sup(X)} -p(x) \, \ln(p(x)) \ge 0.$$

#### 3.15.6

This is an inmediate consequence of exercise 3.15.5. Indeed, we have:

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = S(p,q) - H(p) \le S(p,q) - 0 \le S(p,q).$$

#### 3.15.7

If the target variable Z happens to be  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable, then Y is independent of the sigma algebra  $\mathcal{E}$ . From this follows that  $C(\omega,b)=\mathrm{d}(Z,Y)^2=\mathbb{E}\left[(Z-\mathbb{E}\left[Z|\mathcal{E}\right])^2\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[(Z-Z)^2\right]=0$ .

### 3.15.8

In this case  $f_{\omega,b}(\mathbf{x}) = \omega \cdot \mathbf{x} + b$ , definied on a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Therefore, the cost function is given by:  $C(\omega,b) := \sum_{0 \le i \le n} (\omega \cdot \mathbf{x}^i + b - \phi(\mathbf{x}^i))^2$ . Obviously we have  $0 \le C(\omega,b)$ . This means the function attains such

minimum inside the compact set; Let  $\mathbf{x}^i$  the n-dimensional observations, i.e  $\mathbf{x}^i = (x_1^i, \dots, x_n^i)$ . Then, the normal equations for the  $\omega_k$  (the components of the vector  $\omega$ ),  $\forall k \in [n]$  and the bias parameter b are:

$$\begin{cases}
\sum_{0 \le j \le n} \omega_j \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_j^i x_k^i + b \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_k^i = \sum_{0 \le i \le n} \phi(\mathbf{x}^i) x_k^i, \forall k \in [n] \\
\sum_{0 \le j \le n} \omega_j \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_j^i + nb = \sum_{0 \le i \le n} \phi(\mathbf{x}^i)
\end{cases}$$
(1)

This system of equations has the following matricial expression:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_1^i x_1^i & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_2^i x_1^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_m^i x_1^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_1^i \\ \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_1^i x_2^i & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_2^i x_2^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_m^i x_2^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_2^i \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_1^i x_k^i & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_2^i x_k^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_m^i x_k^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_k^i \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_1^i & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_2^i & \cdots & \sum_{0 \le i \le n} x_m^i & \cdots & n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \vdots \\ \omega_m \\ \vdots \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{0 \le i \le n} \phi(\mathbf{x}^i) x_1^i \\ \sum_{0 \le i \le n} \phi(\mathbf{x}^i) x_2^i \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{0 \le i \le n} \phi(\mathbf{x}^i) x_m^i \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{0 \le i \le n} \phi(\mathbf{x}^i) \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that the entries of the matrix in equation 2, are exactly the partial derivatives  $\partial^2_{\omega_k\omega_k}C(\omega,b)$ ,  $\partial^2_{bb}C(\omega,b)$ ,  $\partial^2_{\omega_k\omega_j}C(\omega,b)$ ,  $\partial^2_{\omega_kb}C(\omega,b)$  i.e such matrix is the hessian-matrix  $\mathcal{H}_{C(\omega,b)}$ ; Let  $\{v_m\}_{m\in[n+1]}$  be a collection of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  defined as follows:  $\forall m, 0 \leq m \leq n, v_m := (x_m^1, \dots, x_m^n)$ . For m = n+1 we define:  $v_{n+1} := 1 = (1, \dots, 1)$ , and a vector  $\varphi := (\varphi(\mathbf{x}^1), \dots, \varphi(\mathbf{x}^n))$ . The system of equations can be writen as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{1} \cdot v_{1} & v_{1} \cdot v_{2} & \cdots & v_{1} \cdot v_{m} & \cdots & v_{1} \cdot v_{n+1} \\ v_{1} \cdot v_{2} & v_{2} \cdot v_{2} & \cdots & v_{2} \cdot v_{m} & \cdots & v_{2} \cdot v_{n+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ v_{m} \cdot v_{1} & v_{m} \cdot v_{2} & \cdots & v_{m} \cdot v_{m} & \cdots & v_{m} \cdot v_{n+1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ v_{n+1} \cdot v_{1} & v_{n+1} \cdot v_{2} & \cdots & v_{n+1} \cdot v_{m} & \cdots & v_{n+1} \cdot v_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{1} \\ \omega_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \omega_{m} \\ \vdots \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi \cdot v_{1} \\ \varphi \cdot v_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \varphi \cdot v_{m} \\ \vdots \\ \varphi \cdot v_{n+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(3)$$

This is  $\mathcal{H}_{C(\omega,b)} = G(v_1, \dots v_{n+1})$  i.e the matrix in system 3 is a Gramm matrix, which by the postively semidefiniteness property of the Gramm matrices implies this matrix is postively defined. Then, the solution  $(\omega^*, b^*)$  to such system is unique and this solution gives indeed a minimum for  $C(\omega, b)$ . Furthermore, the values of the pair  $(\omega^*, b^*)$  are explicitly computable because the system is linear.

#### 3.15.9

Note that the Reyni entropy can be expressed as follows:  $H_{\alpha}(p(X)) = \frac{\ln \mathbb{E}[(p(X))^{\alpha-1}]}{1-\alpha} = \frac{\ln \int_{\sup(X)} (p(x))^{\alpha-1} dP}{\alpha-1}$ . In the last expression  $\frac{dP}{dx} = p(x)$ ; This representation is a consequence of the Radon-Nikodym's Theorem. Now, let's analyse the following function definied as a parametric integral. Let  $I(\alpha)$  definied as:

$$I(\alpha) = \int_{\sup(X)} (p(x))^{\alpha - 1} dP$$

### • CASE 0 < p(x) < 1:

Let  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset\mathbb{R}$  a monotonically decreasing sequence of reals tending to 1. With this we can construct an increasing sequence of P-integrable functions of the form  $\{(p(x))^{\alpha_n-1}\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ . Then, by construction the point limit will be the function f(x)=1 which is P-integrable. Applying the Lebegue's monotone convergence theorem:

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} I(\alpha_k) = \lim_{k\to\infty} \int_{\sup(X)} (p(x))^{\alpha_k-1} dP = \int_{\sup(X)} \lim_{k\to\infty} (p(x))^{\alpha_k-1} dP = I(\lim_{k\to\infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha\to 1^+} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{x\to\infty} I(\alpha_k)) = I(\lim_{k\to\infty} I(\alpha_k)) = I(\lim_{k$$

1. This proves  $I(\alpha)$  is right-continuous

Taking  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset\mathbb{R}$  a monotonically increasing sequence of reals tending to 1, let's construct the sequence of decreasing P-integrable functions of the form  $\{(p(x))^{\alpha_n-1}\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ . Once again the point limit function is f(x)=1. Applying the monotone convergence

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} I(\alpha_k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{\sup(X)} (p(x))^{\alpha_k - 1} dP = \int_{\sup(X)} \lim_{k \to \infty} (p(x))^{\alpha_k - 1} dP = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1^-} I(\alpha) = I(\lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k) = I(\lim_{$$

1. This proves  $I(\alpha)$  is left-continuous

### • CASE p(x) > 1:

The same is true in this case. It is worth to note that if the sequence  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is choosen to be decreasing then the sequence of functions is decreasing, the contrary situation also holds.

Because the function  $f(\alpha, x) = (p(x))^{\alpha-1}$  is derivable, and its derivative is continuous (this can be proved by the monotone convergence theorem), the above can be then used to compute the limit  $\lim_{\alpha \to 1} H_{\alpha}(p(X))$ . By a simple application  $\alpha \to 1$  we find an indetermination of the type 0/0; Using L'Hôpital's rule we get:

By a simple application 
$$\alpha \to 1$$
 we find an indetermination of the type  $0/0$ ; Using L'Hôpital's rule we get: 
$$\lim_{\alpha \to 1} \mathcal{H}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{p}(X)) = \lim_{\alpha \to 1} \frac{1}{-1} \frac{1}{\int_{\sup(X)} (p(x))^{\alpha - 1} dP} \int_{\sup(X)} (p(x))^{\alpha - 1} \ln(p(x)) dP = \int_{\sup(X)} -\ln(p(x)) dP = \mathcal{H}(p).$$

# 3.15.10 (a)

This is a consequence of exercise 3.15.9.b. By taking  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma$  we get that  $\varphi_{\sigma_1}(x) \star \varphi_{\sigma_2}(x) = \varphi_{\sigma'}(x)$ , with  $\sigma' = \sqrt{2\sigma^2}$ 

### 3.15.10 (b)

We have 
$$\varphi_{\sigma}(x) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

### 3.15.11 (a)

• CASE p = q:

Making the substitution in the formula for the Cauchy-Schwartz-divergence, we find:

$$D_{CS}(p,p) = -\ln(\frac{\int p(x)p(x)dx}{\sqrt{\int p(x)^2 dx}\sqrt{\int p(x)^2 dx}}) = -\ln(1) = 0.$$

• CASE  $D_{CS}(p,q) = 0$ :

If  $D_{CS}(p,q) = 0$ , then applying exponentials to both sides we obtain:

$$\frac{\int p(x)q(x)dx}{\sqrt{\int p(x)^2 dx}} = 1 \implies \|\int p(x)q(x)dx\| = \sqrt{\int p(x)^2 dx} \sqrt{\int q(x)^2 dx}.$$
 This is the case of

equality in the Cauchy–Bunyakovsky–Schwarz inequality. Then:  $q = \lambda p, \lambda \neq 0$ ; Let's now prove  $\lambda = 1$ .

Plugging this we get:

$$\frac{\lambda \int p(x)p(x)dx}{\lambda^2 \sqrt{\int p(x)^2 dx}} = 1 = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda^2} \implies \lambda = 1.$$