

70015 Mathematics for Machine Learning: Exercises

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1 Notation

1.1 Sets

Throughout this course, we will be using some standard mathematical notation which may be unfamiliar to some. It's ultimately not that special or even crucial to the overall argument, but it is compact (which is practical), and it helps somewhat with practising with expressing things mathematically. Wikipedia has good definitions on these things too.

- Notation referring to sets of numbers, e.g. the natural numbers $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, integers $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, or real numbers \mathbb{R} .
- Vectors are sets containing n of some type of object, like reals. We denote the set of all such sets using a superscript notation. For example, all n -dimensional vectors becomes \mathbb{R}^n .
- With $x \in \mathcal{S}$ we denote that x is an element of the set \mathcal{S} . This allows us to specify that a variable comes from a particular set (or, has a particular type), e.g. $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$.
- We sometimes use “set builder” notation. We did this informally above when defining \mathbb{N} ! Usually this works by specifying elements with some property, e.g. $\mathbf{S} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, which means “all the elements $2n$ such that n is a natural number”. This creates the set of all even positive whole numbers.
- We denote the union of two sets (the set with all elements that are in either set or both) as $A \cup B$. With set-builder notation this is $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}$, where \vee means “or”.

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- We denote the intersection of two sets (the set of all elements that are in both sets) as $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$.
- For intervals of real numbers, we use brackets, $[\cdot, \cdot]$, to denote the elements in the set which are "greater than or equal to" and "less than or equal to" an element, respectively. We use parentheses, (\cdot, \cdot) to denote a strict lower bound or upper bound on the set, respectively. E.g. $[1, 5]$ is equivalent to $1 \leq x \leq 5, x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- We use the symbol \neg to denote the complement of a set. Given a set containing all elements under consideration Ω , $\neg A$ contains all elements of Ω that are not in A , i.e. $\neg A = \{x \in \Omega \mid x \notin A\}$. We can also denote this as $\neg A = \Omega \setminus A$.

1.2 Probabilities

In this course we will use the notation for probabilities that is common in machine learning. The main advantage is that this notation is shorter, although it does leave certain things implicit. We include this to reduce confusion.

Consider a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ with sample space Ω (all possible outcomes of a random procedure), event space \mathcal{E} (the set of all sets of outcomes that we assign a probability to), and probability function $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ (a function that assigns a probability to an event), with a random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$.

- With $\mathbb{P}(E)$ we denote the probability of an event $E \in \mathcal{E}$, where E is a set of outcomes.
- Following the usual convention, we use the same notation when considering random variables, e.g. $\mathbb{P}(X < 2)$ is short for $\mathbb{P}(\{s \in \Omega : X(s) < 2\})$ (see §6.1 in 50008 *Probability & Statistics*).
- We usually work directly with random variables, and specify all properties using a probability mass function (pmf) or probability density function (pdf). For a specific outcome of the random variable α , we write:

$$\mathbb{P}(X = \alpha) = p_X(\alpha) \quad \text{for a pmf } p_X(\cdot), \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in [a, b]) = \int_a^b p_X(\alpha) d\alpha \quad \text{for a pdf } p_X(\cdot) \text{ with } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = \int_A p_X(\alpha) d\alpha \quad \text{for a pdf } p_X(\cdot) \text{ with } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^D. \quad (3)$$

- Sometimes we may write vectors in boldface, i.e. $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$. We won't always though, so keep track of how we define variables!
- We generally denote outcomes of random variables without referring explicitly to the random variable itself. For example, when we refer to an outcome \mathbf{x} , we implicitly know there is a random variable that can take this value. We usually denote this as the capital, for example here X .
- Sometimes we abuse notation, and drop the random variable when denoting distributions when the argument of the function identifies it, e.g. $p(\mathbf{x}) = p_X(\mathbf{x})$.
- If we want to be explicit about the random variable that we are evaluating the density/mass of, I will write e.g. $p_{X,Y}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})p_Y(\mathbf{y})$.
- Expectations can be denoted in two ways:

$$\mathbb{E}_X[f(X)] \quad \text{to emphasise that } X \text{ is random, if it is clear what its distribution is,} \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})}[f(\mathbf{x})] \quad \text{to emphasise that we will be integrating over the distribution } p(\mathbf{x}). \quad (5)$$

In both cases this corresponds to the integral $\int p(\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}$.

- Often, densities and pmfs can be discussed in exactly the same way, if we think of the density of a discrete RV as a sum of delta functions. I.e. $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_o \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_o)p_o$, where $\{\mathbf{x}_o\}$ is the set of discrete possible outcomes that X can take, and p_o are their corresponding probabilities. This allows us to

write an expectation as an integral, regardless of whether the RV is continuous or discrete, because for discrete RVs we get:

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})}[f(\mathbf{x})] = \int p(\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} = \int \sum_o \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_o)p_o f(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} = \sum_o f(\mathbf{x}_o)p_o. \quad (6)$$

(A delta function has the property that $\int_A \delta(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}$ is 1 if $0 \in A$, and 0 otherwise. Linearity of integrals still holds. It can often be seen as the limit of a Gaussian distribution with zero variance.)

2 Formula Sheet

- Gaussian probability density function (pdf) with input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, denoted as $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ is

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right). \quad (7)$$

- For a joint Gaussian density

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}; \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{m}_x \\ \mathbf{m}_y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yy} \end{bmatrix}\right), \quad (8)$$

we have the conditional density

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{m}_x + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yy}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m}_y), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yy}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx}). \quad (9)$$

3 Warm-up Exercises

To start, here are some exercises which test knowledge which is assumed in the course.

3.1 Probability Theory

We assume that you are familiar with probability theory up to the Computing 2nd year 50008 *Probability & Statistics* course. Here are some questions to serve as a refresher. Students who are not familiar with this background should refer to the notes of 50008 *Probability & Statistics* or relevant chapters of [Deisenroth et al., 2020]. **We recommend you look at these questions when/before the course starts.** If you need a refresher, or if you do not know the notation, refer to the 50008 *Probability & Statistics* notes, or discuss with a TA.

Question 1 (Set Theory and Probability). Using the three axioms of probability show that

- Write down the sample space of a dice. In your notation, use the set A to denote the event of a 3 or 4 occurring. What is the complement of A , denoted $\neg A$?
 - For a problem about lengths, we have a sample space $\Omega = [0, 1]$. For $A = (0.3, 0.4]$, what is $\neg A$?
 - $\mathbb{P}(\neg A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A)$
 - $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$, where \emptyset is the empty set
 - $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$
 - $A \subseteq B \implies \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$
- Hint:* Consider the following definition. $B \setminus A = \{x \in B : x \notin A\}$
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$
 - (*) if $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^\infty \subseteq \Omega$ and $A_i \subseteq A_{i+1} \forall i$ then:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty A_i\right) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

Hint: Use axiom 3. *: The emphasis of this course isn't on these kinds of details, even though this should be doable with 1st-year calculus.

- i. For two mutually exclusive events A, B , what is $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B)$?

See Deisenroth et al. [2020, §6.1.2] for a general overview, and §4, §§5.1-5.4 of 50008 *Probability & Statistics* for more details.

Question 2 (Independent events). **Independent events don't come up as much as independent random variables, so it's ok to just follow this answer, rather than spending lots of time on it.** When tossing two coins (where we care about the order), we have a sample space $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$.

- a. What outcomes are contained in the event that corresponds to the the first coin being heads? We denote the event E_{1H} , and others similarly.
- b. If you assume that all outcomes have equal probability, show that E_{1H} and E_{2T} are independent.
- c. If you assume that E_{1H} and E_{2H} are independent and 0.5 each, show that all outcomes must have equal probability.

See §5.3.3 in 50008 *Probability & Statistics*.

Question 3 (Random Variables). Consider throwing two fair dice.

- a. What is the sample space for all outcomes that you can get from throwing two dice? We specify the probability of each outcome to be the same.
- b. Define two random variables A, B which map the outcome to the face value on each die respectively. Find the probability mass function for A from the probability on outcomes. The answer will work from the definition of a random variable, but you will probably intuitively get the right answer as well.
- c. Show that A and B are independent.
- d. Define the random variable $C = A + B$. Derive the probability mass function of C .

See §6 of 50008 *Probability & Statistics*.

Question 4 (Continuous Random Variables). Consider the random variable X with a probability density $p(x) = C \cdot x$ when $x \in [0, 1]$ and 0 elsewhere.

- a. Calculate C .
- b. Calculate $\mathbb{P}(0.3 \leq X \leq 0.75)$.
- c. Calculate $\mathbb{P}(X \in [0.3, 0.75] \cup [0.8, 0.9])$.
- d. Calculate $\mathbb{E}_X[X]$, $\mathbb{E}_X[X^2]$, $\mathbb{V}_X[X]$.

Check your answers by performing numerical integration, e.g. in Python.

See §6.3, §7 of 50008 *Probability & Statistics* or Deisenroth et al. [2020, §6.2.2].

Question 5 (Joint Discrete Random Variables). Consider two random variables A, C , where A is the outcome of one die, and C gives the sum of A and the sum of another die B .

- a. From intuition, write a table of $\mathbb{P}(C = c | A = a)$, which we use to denote the probability of C taking the value c , if we know that A has taken the value a .
- b. Write a table of $\mathbb{P}(C = c, A = a)$. To help you think it through, consider a tree of outcomes that can occur. This helps illustrate independence between outcomes, which helps you figure out when you can multiply probabilities.
- c. From the values in the table $\mathbb{P}(C = c, A = a)$ find $\mathbb{P}(2 \leq C \leq 4)$ and $\mathbb{P}(2 \leq C \leq 4, 2 \leq A \leq 4)$.

We will cover conditional probability more later, but for now just think it through.

Question 6 (Multivariate Integration). Consider two continuous random variables X, Y with joint density $p(x, y) = C \cdot (x^2 + xy)$.

- a. Find C .

- b. Find $\mathbb{P}(0.3 \leq X \leq 0.5)$.
- c. Find $\mathbb{P}(X < Y)$. Perform the integration twice in both orders, once integrating over x first, once by integrating over y first.
- d. **Bonus:** Convince yourself that you know how to do this for $p(x, y, z) = C \cdot (x^2 + xyz)$ as well.

Check your answers by performing numerical integration, e.g. in Python.

Question 7 (Statistics Terminology). Recall the following statistical terminology.

- a. What is a statistic?
- b. What is an estimator?
- c. What is a consistent estimator?
- d. What is a sample?

3.2 Linear Algebra

Question 8 (Dot product). Compute $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y}$ where $\mathbf{x} = (1, -2, 5, -1)^\top$ and $\mathbf{y} = (0, 4, -3, 7)^\top$.

Question 9 (Matrix product). Compute $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$ as well as the ℓ_2 norm of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} , where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 4 & 7 & 2 \\ 3 & -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 5 & 3 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = (-3, 2, 1, 3)^\top.$$

Question 10 (Basis). Which of the following set of vectors are basis for \mathbb{R}^2 ?

- 1. $\{(1, 1), (1, 0)\}$
- 2. $\{(2, 4), (3, -1)\}$
- 3. $\{(1, -1), (0, 2), (2, 1)\}$
- 4. $\{(2, -1), (-2, 1)\}$
- 5. $\{(0, 3)\}$

Question 11 (Span of vectors). Which of the following points are within the span of $\{(-1, 0, 2), (3, 1, 0)\}$?

- 1. $(0, 1, 1)$
- 2. $(1, 1, 4)$
- 3. $(2, 1, 1)$
- 4. $(-3, 4, 2)$
- 5. $(0, 0, 0)$

Question 12 (Rotation matrix in \mathbb{R}^2). What is the 2×2 matrix that rotates all the non-zero vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 by 45° counter-clockwise?

Question 13 (Linear equations). Given the following system of linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x + 2y &= 2 \\ 3x + 2y + 4z &= 5 \\ -2x + y - 2z &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

Answer the following questions:

- a. Writing this system in a matrix form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z)^\top$. What are A and \mathbf{b} ?
- b. Solve this system, or show that the solution does not exist.

c What is the rank of A ?

Question 14 (Eigen decomposition). Consider a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and assume it has an eigen decomposition of $A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$ where $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$. When A is symmetric we also have $Q^{-1} = Q^\top$. Answer the following questions:

- If A is symmetric, show that $\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} \geq 0$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$ if and only if $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, d$.
- Show that $\text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i$ where $\text{Tr}(A)$ is the trace of A .
- Show that $\det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^d \lambda_i$ where $\det(A)$ is the determinant of A .
- Why an entry λ_i in the diagonal matrix Λ is one of the solutions for the equation $A\mathbf{q} = \lambda\mathbf{q}$, $\mathbf{q} \neq \mathbf{0}$?

4 Lecture 1: Vectors & Probability

Question 15 (Vector notation). We define the probability density on the vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ with all elements $0 \leq x_k \leq 1$ as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{C}(x_1^2 + x_1x_2 + x_2^2 + 2x_2x_3). \quad (10)$$

Put this into notation that only uses \mathbf{x} as a single whole vector.

Question 16 (Vector independence). Consider the density on $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4$ with all elements $0 \leq x_k \leq 1$ as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}. \quad (11)$$

- Rewrite the density in terms of $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = [x_1, x_3, x_2, x_4]^\top$. Note that you can do this by a substitution $\mathbf{x} = P\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$, where P is a permutation matrix. You will see that you just need to swap the relevant rows and columns of the matrix. However, make sure that you understand the mathematical steps that really show this.
- Divide up \mathbf{x} into two sub vectors $\mathbf{y} = [x_2, x_4]^\top$ and $\mathbf{z} = [x_1, x_3]^\top$. Show that $\mathbf{y} \perp \mathbf{z}$, i.e. that they are independent.

Question 17 (Noise conditional independence). Consider the probability of the data in linear regression, for a fixed setting of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and given inputs $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ where $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mathbf{x}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (12)$$

Show that all y_n s are independent, for a fixed setting of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and given inputs \mathbf{X} .

Question 18 (Maximum likelihood revision). For a Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

- Derive the probability distribution for N iid draws.
- Derive the maximum likelihood estimator for the mean μ .

Question 19 (Maximum likelihood and minimum loss). Show that the solution to the Maximum Likelihood estimator for linear regression is the same as the minimum squared loss estimator.

5 Warm-up Exercises Answers

5.1 Warm-up Exercises

Question 1 – Set Theory and Probability

- We can choose any representation denoting the events, e.g. using abstract symbols $\Omega = \{\square, \square, \square, \square, \square, \square\}$. Alternatively, we can represent each of the outcomes as a number $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Following the latter notation, $A = \{3, 4\}$, and $A = \{1, 2, 5, 6\}$.

b. Length problem with sample space $\Omega = [0, 1]$.

$$\neg A = [0, 0.3] \cup (0.4, 1]$$

c. $P(\neg A) = 1 - P(A)$

Since $\neg A$ and A are mutually exclusive: $A \cup \neg A = \Omega$ and $A \cap \neg A = \emptyset$.

By combining axiom 2 and 3: $P(A) + P(\neg A) = P(A \cup \neg A) = P(\Omega) = 1$

Thus: $P(\neg A) = 1 - P(A)$

d. $P(\emptyset) = 0$, where \emptyset is the empty set

Given the sample space, Ω , its complementary is the empty set \emptyset .

We use property (c) and axiom 2: $P(\emptyset) = 1 - P(\Omega) = 1 - 1 = 0$.

e. $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$

We use property (c) and axiom 1.

Consider an event A , where $P(A) \geq 0$ and $P(\neg A) \geq 0$ by axiom 1.

Then, $P(\neg A) = 1 - P(A) \geq 0 \implies 1 \geq P(A)$.

By joining both inequalities, $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$.

f. $A \subseteq B \implies P(A) \leq P(B)$

Hint: Consider the following definition. $B \setminus A = \{x \in B : x \notin A\}$

Assume $A \subseteq B$ and construct B as the union of two disjoint sets: $B = B \setminus A \cup A$.

Then, $B \setminus A \cap A = \emptyset$ by definition of $B \setminus A$. By axiom 1, we have $P(B \setminus A) \geq 0$.

Use axiom 3: $P(B) = P(B \setminus A) + P(A) \geq P(A) \implies P(A) \leq P(B)$.

g. $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$.

Define the union $(A \cup B)$ in terms of two disjoint sets. $(A \cup B) = A \cup B \setminus A$, where $A \cap B \setminus A = \emptyset$.

Use axiom 3: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B \setminus A)$.

To compute $P(B \setminus A)$, we define B in terms of A , and the union of two disjoint sets: $B = (B \cap A) \cup (B \setminus A)$, where $(B \cap A) \cap (B \setminus A) = \emptyset$ by definition.

Use axiom 3 again: $P(B) = P(B \cap A) + P(B \setminus A) \implies P(B \setminus A) = P(B) - P(B \cap A)$.

Finally: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B \setminus A) = P(A) + P(B) - P(B \cap A)$.

h. (*) if $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \Omega$ and $A_{i-1} \subseteq A_i \quad \forall i > 0$ then:

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} P(A_i)$$

Hint: Use axiom 3.

Let us define the following: $A := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. We would like to write A in terms of disjoint sets to use axiom 3.

$$A_{i-1} \subseteq A_i \quad \forall i > 0 \implies A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \setminus A_{i-1} \quad (13)$$

where the expression holds if we have $A_0 = \emptyset$. We regard 13 as starting with A_1 and adding the new information from A_2, A_3, \dots (e.g $A_2 \setminus A_1, A_3 \setminus A_2, \dots$).

$$P(A) = P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \setminus A_{i-1}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i \setminus A_{i-1}) \quad (\text{by axiom 3}) \quad (14)$$

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i \setminus A_{i-1}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i \setminus A_{i-1}) \quad (\text{the infinite summation is a limit}) \quad (15)$$

From (f), we have $P(A_i) = P(A_i \setminus A_{i-1}) + P(A_{i-1}) \implies P(A_i \setminus A_{i-1}) = P(A_i) - P(A_{i-1})$. Then,

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - P(A_{i-1}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} P(A_i) \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) \quad (16)$$

where we used $P(A_0) = P(\emptyset) = 0$ from (d).

In summary:

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = P(A) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} P(A_i) \quad (17)$$

Question 7 – Statistics Terminology

- A statistic is a function that is computed from data. For example, take a data set $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ where we compute the empirical mean $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_n x_n$.
- An estimator is a function of data that tries to estimate an unknown quantity. Estimators are statistics. Some statistics are also estimators. For example, if we have some data set from that is sampled from some unknown density $p(x)$, then its mean is unknown, and \bar{X} is an estimator of it.
- A consistent estimator finds the correct value of the unknown quantity if the dataset grows to infinity. We will prove that \bar{X} is a consistent estimate of $\int p(x)xdx$ later on in the course.
- A sample from a random variable is an outcome of the random experiment it represents. For example, you can have a random variable representing the outcome of a coin toss. A sample from it would be heads or tails. We sampled a random variable independently many times, then the outcomes would occur with the frequency specified by the probability distribution of the random variable. Thinking about sampling outcomes from a random variable is often a helpful conceptual technique to think about randomness.

5.2 Linear Algebra

Question 8 $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} = 1 \times 0 + (-2) \times 4 + 5 \times (-3) + (-1) \times 7 = 0 + (-8) + (-15) + (-7) = -30$.

Question 9 $\mathbf{y} = (24, -14, -12)^\top$, $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{23}$, $\|\mathbf{y}\|_2 = \sqrt{916}$.

Note that by definition the ℓ_2 norm of a vector is $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}}$.

Question 10 1, 2, 3.

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_K\}$ with $\mathbf{b}_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$ can form a basis of \mathbb{R}^d iff $K \geq d$ and there exists a subset of d vectors within the set, such that they are orthogonal to each other.

Question 11 2, 5.

A point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is in $\text{span}(\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_K\})$ with $\mathbf{b}_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$ iff we can find $a_1, \dots, a_K \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbf{x} = \sum_{k=1}^K a_k \mathbf{b}_k$.

Question 12 The rotation matrix is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\pi}{4} & -\sin \frac{\pi}{4} \\ \sin \frac{\pi}{4} & \cos \frac{\pi}{4} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Question 13 a) The matrix A and vector \mathbf{b} are

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = (2, 5, 1)^\top.$$

b) The inverse of A is

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 & -1/3 & -2/3 \\ 1/6 & 1/6 & 1/3 \\ 7/12 & 5/12 & 1/3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore we have $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = (-1, 3/2, 43/12)^\top$.

c) $\text{rank}(A) = 3$: as A is invertible, it must have full rank.

Question 14 a) When A is symmetric, then $A = Q\Lambda Q^\top$, and $\mathbf{x}^\top A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^\top Q\Lambda Q^\top \mathbf{x} = (Q^\top \mathbf{x})^\top \Lambda (Q^\top \mathbf{x})$. As Q is an orthonormal matrix, we have $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow Q^\top \mathbf{x}$ a one-to-one mapping. Therefore we have

$$\mathbf{x}^\top A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}^\top \Lambda \mathbf{z} = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i z_i^2, \quad \mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_d)^\top = Q^\top \mathbf{x}.$$

Therefore $\mathbf{x}^\top A\mathbf{x} \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i z_i^2 \geq 0$. This is true for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$ if and only if $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, d$.

b) We use the permutation invariance property of matrix trace to show the result:

$$\text{Tr}(A) = \text{Tr}(Q\Lambda Q^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(Q^{-1}Q\Lambda) = \text{Tr}(\Lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i.$$

c) We use the product rule of matrix determinant to show the result:

$$\det(A) = \det(Q\Lambda Q^{-1}) = \det(Q)\det(\Lambda)\det(Q^{-1}) = \det(Q)\det(\Lambda)\det(Q)^{-1} = \det(\Lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^d \lambda_i.$$

d) Let us assume the statement is false, i.e., there exists a solution $\lambda^* \neq \lambda_i, \forall i = 1, \dots, d$ for the equation $A\mathbf{q} = \lambda^*\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{q} \neq 0$. Then we can rewrite the equation as

$$A\mathbf{q} = \lambda^*\mathbf{q} \Rightarrow (A - \lambda^*I)\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow Q(\Lambda - \lambda^*I)Q^{-1}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}.$$

By definition, the column vectors of Q forms a basis of \mathbb{R}^d . Notice that the diagonal entries of $\Lambda - \lambda^*I$ are non-zero as we assume $\lambda^* \neq \lambda_i$. This indicates a contradiction to the assumption of $\mathbf{q} \neq 0$:

$$Q(\Lambda - \lambda^*I)Q^{-1}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow Q^{-1}\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}.$$

References

Marc Peter Deisenroth, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong (2020). *Mathematics for machine learning*. Cambridge University Press.