# **Exercise 01 of Machine Learning [IN 2064]**

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## Problem 1

In order for the matrix product to exist, the number of columns in the former matrix must equal the number of rows in the latter matrix, here the function f can be described as:

$$f(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{Z}) = (\boldsymbol{x}^T)^{1\times M}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{y}^{N\times 1} + \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}^{M\times 1} - (\boldsymbol{y}^T)^{1\times N}\boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{Z}^{P\times Q}\boldsymbol{D} - (\boldsymbol{y}^T)^{1\times N}\boldsymbol{E}^T\boldsymbol{y}^{N\times 1} + \boldsymbol{F}$$

Then using the aforementioned rules, we can get

$$m{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}, m{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times M}, m{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times P}, m{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{Q \times 1}, m{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}, m{F} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1}$$

# **Problem 2**

Now that the function  $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_i x_j M_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ , so we can simply rewrite the function as  $f(x) = x^T M x$  just on the condition that the number of columns in the former matrix must equal the number of rows in the latter matrix in matrix product.

# **Problem 3**

- a) When  $R(\mathbf{A}) = R(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = M$ , then we can safely say that the solution is unique for each choice of b. Here R represents "Rank of the Matrix".
- b) Notice that the matrix has a zero eigenvalue, which means the R(A < 5), so we can not safely draw a conclusion that this matrix is diagonalizable, so the Equation (1) can not always find a unique solution  $\boldsymbol{x}$  for any choice of  $\boldsymbol{b}$ .

## **Problem 4**

Here we can use the property that the determinant of A is equal to the product of its eigenvalues  $|A| = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$ . Now that the matrix A is invertible, which means that  $|A| \neq 0$ , so we can say that one of the eigenvalues of matrix A is zero since A is invertible.

# **Problem 5**

According to reference [?], since a symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  has orthogonal eigenvectors and is thus orthogonal, we can therefore represent A as  $A = U \Lambda U^T$ , then we can show that

$$oldsymbol{x}^T oldsymbol{A} oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{x}^T oldsymbol{U} oldsymbol{U}^T oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{y}^T oldsymbol{\Lambda} oldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i^2$$

where  $y = U^T x$ . Because  $y_i^2$  is always positive, the sign of this expression depends entirely on the  $\lambda_i's$ . So if all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i's \geq 0$ , then it is positive semidefinite.

Conversely, if a matrix is positive semidefinite, then we assume that this matrix A has a negative eigenvalue  $\lambda < 0$  and its corresponding eigenvector x, so we can get

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

then we multiply the two sides of the equetion by the transpose of the eigenvector  $x^T$ , which means

$$\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}^T \lambda \boldsymbol{x} = \lambda \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{x} = \lambda \boldsymbol{x}^2 < 0$$

this result is contrary to the condition that the matrix is positive semidefiniten, so the assumption that the matrix has a negative eigenvalue doesn't make sense. So in the end we can draw a conclusion that a positive semidefinite matrix has no negative eigenvalues.

## Problem 6

Choose an arbitrary vextor  $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  for the matrix  $oldsymbol{B}$ , the scalar value can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x})^T (\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x}) = (\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x})^2 \ge 0$$

So the matrix B is positive semi-definite for any choice of A.

# **Problem 7**

a)

1. Using the second partial derivatives of function f, that is

$$d_x^2 f(x) = d_x (ax + b) = a$$

So when a>0, then f(x) becomes a strictly convex quadratic function, which has at most one global minimum.

- 2. When a = b = 0, then f(x) is a constant function, so each point of x is the solution of the minimum value of f(x).
- 3. When a < 0, then f(x) becomes a strictly concave function; or when  $a = 0, b \neq 0$ , whose minimum value lies on infinity. In both situation, there is no solution for the optimization.
- b) Now we try to equal the first partial derivatives of function f to zero, that is

$$d_x f(x) = ax + b = 0$$

So the point  $x = -\frac{b}{a}$  minimizes the objective function.

#### **Problem 8**

a) Now that the matrix is symmetric and positive simidefinite, so the Hessian  $\nabla_x^2 g(x)$  of the objective function is shown as below:

$$abla_x^2 g(oldsymbol{x}) = 
abla_x^2 [(rac{1}{2}) oldsymbol{x}^T oldsymbol{A} oldsymbol{x} + oldsymbol{b} oldsymbol{x}^T + c] = oldsymbol{A}$$

Similar to **Problem7**, when A > 0, which means that the matrix is positive definite, then the optimization problem becomes a strictly convex function (See definition in reference [?])

- b) If A is positive definite, then we can find a unique solution for the optimization at the point where the gradient of the function is zero; if A is positive semidefinite, then we might find the solution at infinity. However, when A has a negative eigenvalue, which means that the matrix is indefinite, the function g(x) may even become a concave function, so we may not find the solution for the optimization.
- c) Now that A is positive definite(PD), so we just try to equal the gradient of the function to zero to figure out the result, that is:

$$\nabla_x g(\boldsymbol{x}) = \nabla_x [(\frac{1}{2}) \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b} \boldsymbol{x}^T + c] = \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b} = 0$$

So we can get to the point that when the matrix A is positive definite (PD), then this optimization problem g(x) will have a unique solution at the point  $x = -A^{-1}b$ .

# **Problem 9**

According to

$$p(A|B,C) = \frac{p(A,B,C)}{p(B,C)} = \frac{\frac{p(A,B,C)}{p(C)}}{\frac{p(B,C)}{p(C)}} = \frac{p(A,B|C)}{p(B|C)} = p(A|C)$$

that is

$$p(A, B|C) = p(A|C)p(B|C)$$

so we can say that two events A and B are conditionally independent given an event C with P(C)>0. However, according to reference [?], conditional independence cannot lead to the concept of independence. Here is an example. Assuming that a box contains two coins: a regular coin and one irregular coin with (P(H)=1). Now choose a coin at random and toss it twice. Define the following events.

- A = First coin toss results in an H.
- B = Second coin toss results in an H.
- C = The regular coin has been chosen.

From this example we can get that  $p(A|B,C) = p(A|C) = \frac{1}{2}$ , then we can calculate that

$$p(A,B) = p(A,B|C) + p(A,B|\overline{C}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{8}$$

whereas

$$p(A) = p(A|C) + p(A|\overline{C}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{4}$$
$$p(B) = p(B|C) + p(B|\overline{C}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{4}$$

On this condition  $p(A, B) \neq p(A)p(B)$ , so this statement is wrong.

## **Problem 10**

When p(A|B,C) = p(A|C), we can get the information that A and B are conditionally independent when given C. But generally speaking, conditional independence neither implies (nor is it implied by) independence, which is the information in p(A|B) = p(A). Consider rolling a die and let

$$A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{2, 4, 5\}, C = \{1, 4\}$$

so we can get

$$p(A) = \frac{1}{3}, p(B) = \frac{1}{2}, p(A, B) = \frac{1}{6} = p(A)p(B)$$

which means A and B are independent. But we can also figure that

$$p(A|B,C) = \frac{p(\{1,2\})}{p(\{4\})} = 0, p(A|C)\frac{p(\{1,2\})}{p(\{1,4\})} = \frac{1}{2}$$

so the statement is false.

# **Problem 11**

This problem is based on the concept of probability density function, more details can be found in reference [?]. According to the concept, we can directly write down the corresponding formular as below:

(1)

$$p(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(a, b, c) db dc$$

$$p(c|a,b) = \frac{p(a,b,c)}{p(a,b)} = \frac{p(a,b,c)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(a,b,c) dc}$$

(3) 
$$p(b|c) = \frac{p(b,c)}{p(c)} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(a,b,c) da}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(a,b,c) da db}$$

# **Problem 12**

The probability that a person has a positive test result is

$$\frac{1}{1000} \times 0.95 + \frac{999}{1000} \times 0.05 = \frac{5090}{100000}$$

So when man obtains a positive result, his/her probability of having the disease is

$$\frac{\frac{1}{1000} \times 0.95}{\frac{1}{1000} \times 0.95 + \frac{999}{1000} \times 0.05} = \frac{19}{1018} = 0.0187$$

# **Problem 13**

Since the mean value of a Gaussian distribution is  $\mu$ , using the property that  $Var[X] = E[X^2] + E[X]^2$ , we can easily figure out that  $E[f(x)] = a\mu + b(\mu^2 + \sigma^2) + c$ 

## **Problem 14**

Assume  $x \sim \mathcal{N}(m, \sum)$ , according to reference ? , we have the following conclusion:

$$E[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{A}E[\mathbf{x}] \tag{1}$$

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{x}^T) = \sum +\boldsymbol{m}\boldsymbol{m}^T \tag{2}$$

$$Var[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{A}Var[\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{A}^{T} \tag{3}$$

$$E[\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}] = Tr(\mathbf{A} \sum) + \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{m}$$
 (4)

• Using the Equation 1, we can get that

$$E[g(\boldsymbol{x})] = E[\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}] = \boldsymbol{A}E[\boldsymbol{x}] = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}$$

• Since  $g(x) = Ax \sim \mathcal{N}(A\mu, A \sum A^T)$ , so according to the Equation 2, we can get

$$E[g(\boldsymbol{x})g(\boldsymbol{x})^T] = E[\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{A}^T] = \boldsymbol{A}E[\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{x}^T]\boldsymbol{A}^T = \boldsymbol{A}(\sum + \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}^T)\boldsymbol{A}^T$$

• Since  $g(x) = Ax \sim \mathcal{N}(A\mu, A \sum A^T)$ , the changing the Equation 4 by replacing A by an Identity matrix I, we can get the result as below:

$$E[g(\boldsymbol{x})^T g(\boldsymbol{x})] = E[g(\boldsymbol{x})^T \boldsymbol{I} g(\boldsymbol{x})] = Tr(\boldsymbol{A} \sum \boldsymbol{A}^T) + \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

• Here we use the Equation 3, we can simply get the result that:

$$Cov[g(\boldsymbol{x})] = Cov[\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}] = \boldsymbol{A}Cov[\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}]\boldsymbol{A}^T = \boldsymbol{A}Var(\boldsymbol{x})\boldsymbol{A}^T = \boldsymbol{A}\sum \boldsymbol{A}^T$$

## References