

GroupAssignment3_Team10

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Question 1

(a)

See Figure 1

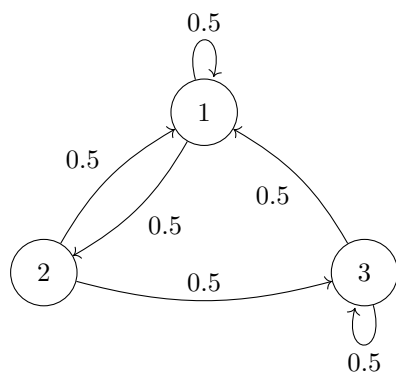


Figure 1: Markov chain for problem 1.

(b)

This Markov chain is aperiodic and irreducible, hence it has a unique and asymptotic stationary distribution. This distribution is found by solving the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} \Pi = \Pi \cdot P \\ \sum_{i=1}^3 \Pi_i = 1 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

The solution is $\pi = (0.5 \quad 0.25 \quad 0.25)$

(c)

The probability is the solution to the following equation: $P_{t=4} = P_{t=1} \cdot P^3$. Thus $P_{t=4} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.25 & 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$. The probability that the chain is in state 2 at time 4 is 0.25.

(d)

The mean hitting time from one state i to state k is given by the minimum non-negative solution to the following equations, where j is a transition state (<https://www.stat.auckland.ac.nz/~fewster/325/notes/ch8.pdf>):

$$\begin{cases} m_{i,k} = 0 & i = k \\ 1 + \sum_j p_{i,j} \cdot m_{j,k} & i \neq k \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

In our case, we have then:

$$\begin{cases} m_{1,3} = 1 + 0.5 \cdot m_{1,3} + 0.5 \cdot m_{2,3} + 0 \cdot m_{3,3} & = 1 + 0.5 \cdot m_{1,3} + 0.5 \cdot m_{2,3} \\ m_{2,3} = 1 + 0.5 \cdot m_{1,3} + 0.5 \cdot m_{3,3} & = 1 + 0.5 \cdot m_{1,3} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

The solution is $m_{1,3} = 6$.

(e)

1. The period of state 1 is 1 (self loop).
2. The period of state 2 is 2 [2, 1, 2]
3. The period of state 3 is 1 (self loop).

Question 2

(a) Empirical Version of Precision and Recall

The empirical version of precision and recall is as follows:

- **Precision:**

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid g(X) = 1) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}(Y = 1 \text{ and } g(X) = 1)]}{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}(g(X) = 1)]} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}$$

- **Recall:**

$$\mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1 \mid Y = 1) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}(Y = 1 \text{ and } g(X) = 1)]}{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}(Y = 1)]} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

Here:

- TP: True Positives (The model predicts positive, and it is indeed positive)
- FP: False Positives (The model predicts positive, but it is actually negative)
- FN: False Negatives (The model predicts negative, but it is actually positive)

(b) Expected Cost Formula

The cost depends on predictions and outcomes:

- If $g(X) = 1$ (model predicts deterioration):
 - Cost c when $Y = 0$ (False Positive)
 - Cost 0 when $Y = 1$ (True Positive)
- If $g(X) = 0$ (model predicts no deterioration):
 - Cost d when $Y = 1$ (False Negative)
 - Cost 0 when $Y = 0$ (True Negative)

The expected cost is:

$$\mathbb{E}[C] = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1, Y = 0) + d \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 0, Y = 1)$$

Using empirical probabilities, this becomes:

$$\mathbb{E}[C] = c \cdot \frac{\text{FP}}{n} + d \cdot \frac{\text{FN}}{n}$$

Rewriting in terms of precision and recall:

$$\mathbb{E}[C] = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Precision}) + d \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Recall})$$

where:

$$\mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1) = \frac{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}{n}, \quad \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = \frac{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}{n}$$

(c) Confidence Intervals:

Yes, confidence intervals can be produced for expected cost, precision and recall. Two common methods are listed below:

- **Normal Approximation Method:**

- **Precision:**

$$CI_{\text{Precision}} = \text{Precision} \pm Z \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\text{Precision} \cdot (1 - \text{Precision})}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}}$$

where $Z = 1.96$ for 95% confidence.

- **Recall:**

$$CI_{\text{Recall}} = \text{Recall} \pm Z \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\text{Recall} \cdot (1 - \text{Recall})}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}}$$

- **Cost:**

$$\mathbb{E}[C]_{\text{lower}} = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Precision}_{\text{upper}}) + d \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Recall}_{\text{upper}})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[C]_{\text{upper}} = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Precision}_{\text{lower}}) + d \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Recall}_{\text{lower}})$$

- Suitable for large sample sizes ($\text{TP} + \text{FP} > 30$, $\text{TP} + \text{FN} > 30$).
 - Assumes precision and recall are approximately normal.
 - Provides narrower intervals.

- **DKW Inequality Method:**

- **Precision:**

$$CI_{\text{Precision}} = \text{Precision} \pm \sqrt{\frac{\ln(2/\alpha)}{2 \cdot (\text{TP} + \text{FP})}}$$

where $\alpha = 0.05$ for 95% confidence

- **Recall:**

$$CI_{\text{Recall}} = \text{Recall} \pm \sqrt{\frac{\ln(2/\alpha)}{2 \cdot (\text{TP} + \text{FN})}}$$

- **Cost:** Use the DKW bounds for precision and recall:

$$\mathbb{E}[C]_{\text{lower}} = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Precision}_{\text{upper}}) + d \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Recall}_{\text{upper}})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[C]_{\text{upper}} = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(g(X) = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Precision}_{\text{lower}}) + d \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) \cdot (1 - \text{Recall}_{\text{lower}})$$

- Suitable for small sample sizes or unknown distributions.
 - Provides a robust, distribution-free bound.
 - Results in wider, more conservative intervals.

Question 3

We are given that $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_d)$ and $Y = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_d)$ are two Gaussian random vectors of zero mean and unit variance. They are orthogonal if $\mathbb{E}(X \cdot Y) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(X \cdot Y) &= \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^d X_i Y_i\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i Y_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i) \mathbb{E}(Y_i) \quad (\text{since } X_i \text{ and } Y_i \text{ are independent}) \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\mathbb{E}(X \cdot Y) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X \cdot Y] &= \mathbb{E}[(X \cdot Y)^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y])^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(X \cdot Y)^2] \quad (\text{since } \mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = 0) \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^d X_i Y_i\right)^2\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^d X_i^2 Y_i^2\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^d (X_i Y_i X_j Y_j)\right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 Y_i^2) + \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i Y_i X_j Y_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i^2) \mathbb{E}(Y_i^2) + \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i) \mathbb{E}(Y_i) \mathbb{E}(X_j) \mathbb{E}(Y_j) \quad (\text{since } X_i \text{ and } Y_i \text{ are independent}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d \text{Var}(X_i) \text{Var}(Y_i) \quad (\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i) = 0) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d 1 \quad (\text{Var}(X_i) = \text{Var}(Y_i) = 1) \\ &= d\end{aligned}$$

Now, to find an upper bound for $\mathbb{P}(X \cdot Y \geq \epsilon)$, we proceed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(X \cdot Y \geq \epsilon) &= \mathbb{P}(e^{t(X \cdot Y)} \geq e^{t\epsilon}) \quad \text{for some } t > 0 \\ &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(e^{t(X \cdot Y)})}{e^{t\epsilon}} \quad (\text{Markov's inequality}) \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{E}\left(e^{t \sum_{i=1}^d X_i Y_i}\right)}{e^{t\epsilon}}.\end{aligned}$$

(e) Using the moment generating function (MGF) of $X_i Y_i$, we find:

$$\mathbb{P}(X \cdot Y \geq \epsilon) \leq \inf_{t>0} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(e^{tX_i Y_i})}{e^{t\epsilon}},$$

where $\mathbb{E}(e^{tX_i Y_i}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}}$ for $|t| < 1$.

Question 4

(a)

A matrix is rank-one if it can be expressed as the outer product of two non-zero vectors. In our case, $u_i u_i^\top$ is clearly an outer product of u_i with itself. Since u_i is a unit vector ($\|u_i\| = 1$), $u_i u_i^\top$ is a rank-one matrix. For any vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$u_i u_i^\top \mathbf{x} = u_i (u_i^\top \mathbf{x}).$$

The null space (or kernel) of a matrix A , denoted $\text{Null}(A)$, consists of all vectors \mathbf{x} such that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Therefore:

$$\text{Null}(u_i u_i^\top) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid u_i^\top \mathbf{x} = 0\},$$

which is the set of all vectors orthogonal to u_i .

The range of a matrix A , denoted $\text{Range}(A)$, consists of all possible linear combinations of its columns. In the case of $u_i u_i^\top$, the range is always a scalar multiple of u_i . Therefore:

$$\text{Range}(u_i u_i^\top) = \text{span}\{u_i\}.$$

(b)

To verify that the matrix

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^r u_i u_i^\top$$

We know that each outer product $u_i u_i^\top$ is a rank-one matrix since it is the product of a non-zero vector u_i with itself. Given that the vectors u_1, \dots, u_r are linearly independent, these rank-one matrices contribute uniquely to the structure of U .

Specifically, for any vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$U\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^r u_i u_i^\top \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^r u_i (u_i^\top \mathbf{x}),$$

which is a linear combination of the vectors u_1, \dots, u_r . Since these vectors are linearly independent, the span has dimension r .

Therefore, the range of U is an r -dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , which means:

$$\text{rank}(U) = r.$$

(c)

Since each $u_i u_i^\top$ is symmetric, their sum U is also a symmetric matrix. Also, U is positive semidefinite (PSD) because for any vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\mathbf{x}^\top U \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^r (\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{x})^2 \geq 0.$$

For any real symmetric PSD matrix, the singular vectors exactly match with the eigenvectors, and the singular values are the nonnegative eigenvalues.

(e)1. **Are the Vectors u_1, \dots, u_r the Same as the Right Singular Vectors of U ?**

In general, the vectors $\{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$ are **not** the right singular vectors of U . Although each $u_i u_i^\top$ contributes to U , the eigenvectors (and hence the singular vectors) of U depend on the collective combination of these outer products. If the vectors u_1, \dots, u_r are not mutually orthogonal, the resulting matrix U has eigenvectors that are linear combinations of the u_i s rather than the u_i s themselves.

For example, if:

$$u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Both vectors are linearly independent but not orthogonal since $u_1^\top u_2 = 1 \neq 0$.

$$U = u_1 u_1^\top + u_2 u_2^\top = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solving $(U - \lambda I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ yields eigenvectors that are linear combinations of u_1 and u_2 , not identical to u_1 or u_2 . Therefore, u_1 and u_2 are not the right singular vectors of U in this case.

2. **If the Vectors u_1, \dots, u_r are All Orthogonal, What Are the Singular Values of U ?**

When the vectors $\{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$ are mutually orthogonal and each u_i has unit length (i.e., they form an orthonormal set), the matrix U simplifies significantly. Each outer product $u_i u_i^\top$ acts as an orthogonal projector onto the subspace spanned by u_i . Summing these projectors yields

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^r u_i u_i^\top,$$

which is the orthogonal projector onto the subspace spanned by all u_i .

In this scenario:

$$U u_i = \sum_{j=1}^r u_j u_j^\top u_i = u_i u_i^\top u_i = u_i \cdot 1 = u_i,$$

indicating that each u_i is an eigenvector of U with eigenvalue 1. Any vector orthogonal to all u_i s is in the null space of U , corresponding to eigenvalue 0. Consequently, U has:

$$\text{eigenvalues} = \underbrace{1, 1, \dots, 1}_{r \text{ times}}, \quad \underbrace{0, 0, \dots, 0}_{n-r \text{ times}}.$$

Since U is symmetric and PSD, its singular values are identical to its eigenvalues. Therefore, the singular values of U are:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \dots = \sigma_r = 1, \quad \sigma_{r+1} = \dots = \sigma_n = 0.$$

In this orthonormal case, the vectors $\{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$ are same as the eigenvectors as well as the right singular vectors of U , each corresponding to a singular value of 1.

Question 5

Let $X \sim \text{Uniform}(B_1)$ and define $Y = \|X\|_2$ (the Euclidean norm).

(a) Distribution function of $Y = \|X\|_2$

Given that $X \sim \text{Uniform}(B_1)$, where B_1 is the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^n , we need to find the distribution of the Euclidean norm $Y = \|X\|_2$. The random vector X is uniformly distributed over the unit ball.

The cumulative distribution function of Y , denoted by :

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y),$$

is the probability that Y is less than or equal to a certain value y .

For a uniform distribution over the unit ball, the probability that $\|X\|_2 \leq y$ is proportional to the volume of the ball with radius y in n -dimensional space. Therefore, the cumulative distribution function is given by:

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = \frac{\text{Volume of ball of radius } y}{\text{Volume of unit ball}} = y^n \quad \text{for } 0 \leq y \leq 1.$$

The probability density function, $f_Y(y)$, is the derivative of the CDF:

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = ny^{n-1} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq y \leq 1.$$

(b) Distribution of $\ln(1/Y)$

Now, let's assume random variable $Z = \ln(1/Y)$.

The cumulative distribution function of Z , denoted by $F_Z(z)$, is related to the cumulative distribution function of Y as follows:

$$F_Z(z) = P(Z \leq z) = P(\ln(1/Y) \leq z) = P(Y \geq e^{-z}).$$

Since the cumulative distribution function of Y is $F_Y(y) = y^n$, we have:

$$F_Z(z) = P(Y \geq e^{-z}) = 1 - P(Y \leq e^{-z}) = 1 - F_Y(e^{-z}) = 1 - (e^{-z})^n = 1 - e^{-nz}.$$

Thus, the cumulative distribution function of Z is:

$$F_Z(z) = 1 - e^{-nz} \quad \text{for } z \geq 0.$$

The probability density function of Z is the derivative of the cumulative distribution function:

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{d}{dz} F_Z(z) = ne^{-nz} \quad \text{for } z \geq 0.$$

(c) Calculate $E[\ln(1/Y)]$

First we will calculate $E[\ln(1/Y)]$ using the distribution of Y . The expected value is:

$$E[\ln(1/Y)] = \int_0^1 \ln(1/y) f_Y(y) dy.$$

Substitute $f_Y(y) = ny^{n-1}$ into the integral:

$$E[\ln(1/Y)] = \int_0^1 \ln(1/y) ny^{n-1} dy.$$

We can simplify $\ln(1/y) = -\ln(y)$, so the integral becomes:

$$E[\ln(1/Y)] = -n \int_0^1 \ln(y) y^{n-1} dy.$$

(e) This integral is a standard result:

$$\int_0^1 \ln(y) y^{n-1} dy = -\frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Therefore:

$$E[\ln(1/Y)] = -n \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{n^2}\right) = \frac{1}{n}.$$

Secondly, we will compute $E[\ln(1/Y)]$ using the distribution of $Z = \ln(1/Y)$. The expected value is:

$$E[Z] = \int_0^\infty z f_Z(z) dz = \int_0^\infty z n e^{-nz} dz.$$

This is a standard exponential integral, and the result is:

$$E[Z] = \frac{1}{n}.$$