GroupAssignment3_Team10

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Question 1

(a)

See Figure 1

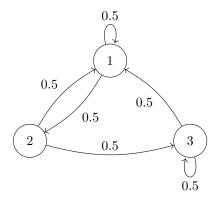


Figure 1: Markov chain for problem 1.

(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:

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

The solution is $\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.25 & 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$



(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):

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

In our case, we have then:

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

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

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(e)

- 1. The period of state 1 is 1 (self loop).
- 2. The period of state 2 is 2 [2,1,2] can also be 3, for ex. 2 -> 3 -> 1 -> 2, since all these jumps have positive points of the period of state 2 is 2 [2,1,2].
- 3. The period of state 3 is 1 (self loop).

Question 2

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(a) Empirical Version of Precision and Recall

The empirical version of precision and recall is as follows: the formula is correct, but it's not I

• Precision:

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

• Recall:

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

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:

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

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:

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

(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:

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

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

- Suitable for large sample sizes (TP + FP > 30, TP + 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:

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

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

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

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

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

$$\mathbb{E}(X \cdot Y) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} X_i Y_i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{d} \mathbb{E}(X_i Y_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{d} \mathbb{E}(X_i) \mathbb{E}(Y_i) \quad \text{(since } X_i \text{ and } Y_i \text{ are independent)}$$

$$= 0.$$

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

$$Var[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[(X \cdot Y)^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y])^2$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(X \cdot Y)^2] \quad (\text{since } \mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = 0)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^d X_i Y_i^2\right)^2\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^d X_i^2 Y_i^2\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^d (X_i Y_i X_j Y_j)\right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 Y_i^2) + \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i Y_i X_j Y_j)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i^2) \mathbb{E}(Y_i^2) + \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^d \mathbb{E}(X_i) \mathbb{E}(Y_i) \mathbb{E}(X_j) \mathbb{E}(Y_i) \text{ (since } X_i \text{ and } Y_i \text{ are independent)}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^d Var(X_i) Var(Y_i) \qquad (\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i) = 0)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^d 1 \qquad (Var(X_i) = Var(Y_i) = 1)$$

$$= d$$

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

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

Markov inequality only works for

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

where $\mathbb{E}(e^{tX_iY_i}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}}$ 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 Null(A), consists of all vectors \mathbf{x} such that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Therefore:

$$\operatorname{Null}\left(u_{i}u_{i}^{\top}\right)=\left\{ \mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^{n}\mid u_{i}^{\top}\mathbf{x}=0\right\} ,$$

which is the set of all vectors orthogonal to u_i .

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

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

(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, \ldots, 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, \ldots, 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:

$$rank(U) = r$$
.

(c)

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

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

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, \ldots, u_r the Same as the Right Singular Vectors of U?

In general, the vectors $\{u_1, \ldots, u_r\}$ 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, \ldots, 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, \ldots, u_r are All Orthogonal, What Are the Singular Values of U?

When the vectors $\{u_1, \ldots, u_r\}$ 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 $u_i u_i^{\mathsf{T}}$ 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:

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

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:

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

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 $\{u_1, \ldots, u_r\}$ 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 :

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

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 $||X||_2 \le y$ is proportional to the volume of the ball with radius y in n-dimensional space. Therefore, the cumulative distribution function is given by:

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

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

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

(b) Distribution of ln(1/Y)

Now, lets 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:

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

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

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

Thus, the cumulative distribution function of Z is:

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

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

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

(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:

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

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:

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

