

Review of Probability Theory

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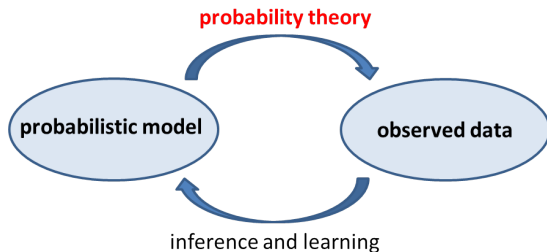
Instituto Superior Técnico & Instituto de Telecomunicações

Lisboa, **Portugal**

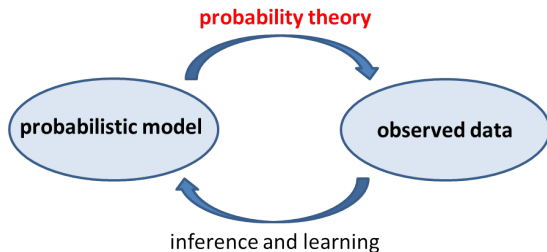
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Probability theory

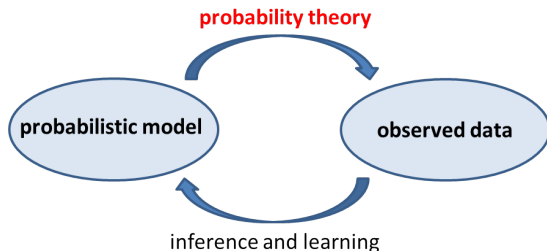


Probability theory



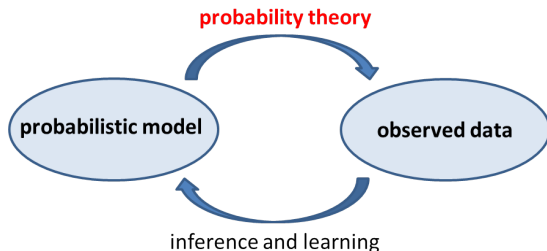
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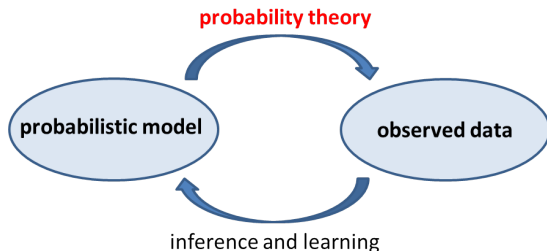
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- Great names of science: Cardano, Fermat, Pascal, Laplace, Kolmogorov, Bernoulli, Poisson, Cauchy, Boltzman, de Finetti, ...

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- Natural tool to model uncertainty, information, knowledge, belief, ...
- ...thus also learning, decision making, inference, ...

What is probability?

- **Classical** definition: $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{N_A}{N}$

...with N mutually exclusive equally likely outcomes,
 N_A of which result in the occurrence of A .

Laplace, 1814

Example: $\mathbb{P}(\text{randomly drawn card is } \clubsuit) = 13/52$.

Example: $\mathbb{P}(\text{getting 1 in throwing a fair die}) = 1/6$.

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- **Subjective probability:** $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is a degree of belief.

de Finetti, 1930s

...gives meaning to $\mathbb{P}(\text{"it will rain tomorrow"})$.

Key concepts: Sample space and events

- **Sample space** \mathcal{X} = set of possible outcomes of a random experiment.

Examples:

- ▶ Tossing two coins: $\mathcal{X} = \{HH, TH, HT, TT\}$
- ▶ Roulette: $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, \dots, 36\}$
- ▶ Draw a card from a shuffled deck: $\mathcal{X} = \{A\clubsuit, 2\clubsuit, \dots, Q\diamondsuit, K\diamondsuit\}$.

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- An **event** A is a subset of \mathcal{X} : $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ (also written $A \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$).

Examples:

- ▶ “exactly one H in 2-coin toss”: $A = \{TH, HT\} \subset \{HH, TH, HT, TT\}$.
- ▶ “odd number in the roulette”: $B = \{1, 3, \dots, 35\} \subset \{1, 2, \dots, 36\}$.
- ▶ “drawn a \heartsuit card”: $C = \{A\heartsuit, 2\heartsuit, \dots, K\heartsuit\} \subset \{A\clubsuit, \dots, K\Diamond\}$

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(More delicate) examples:

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- An **event** A is a **measurable** subset of \mathcal{X} , i.e., $A \in \sigma(F)$, $F \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$.
 σ -algebra: $\sigma(F)$

- ▶ $A \in \sigma(F) \Rightarrow A^c \in \sigma(F)$
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- Classical example in \mathbb{R}^n : the collection of Lebesgue measurable sets constitute a σ -algebra.
- For any $F \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, $\emptyset \in \sigma(F)$, $\mathcal{X} \in \sigma(F)$.

Kolmogorov's Axioms for Probability

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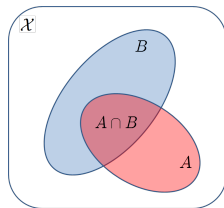
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- From these axioms, many results can be derived. **Examples:**

- ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$
- ▶ $C \subset D \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(C) \leq \mathbb{P}(D)$
- ▶ $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$
- ▶ $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) \leq \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)$ (**union bound**)

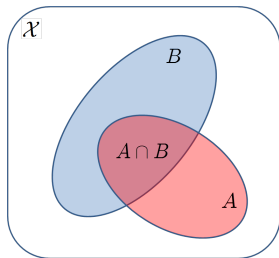


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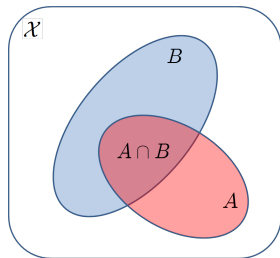


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- **Independence:** A, B are independent (denoted $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$) if and only if

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B).$$

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- Example: \mathcal{X} = “52 cards”, $A = \{3\heartsuit, 3\clubsuit, 3\diamondsuit, 3\spadesuit\}$, and $B = \{A\heartsuit, 2\heartsuit, \dots, K\heartsuit\}$; then, $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1/13$, $\mathbb{P}(B) = 1/4$

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(\{3\heartsuit\}) = \frac{1}{52}$$

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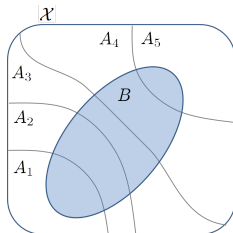
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Bayes Theorem

- Law of total probability: if A_1, \dots, A_n are a partition of \mathcal{X}

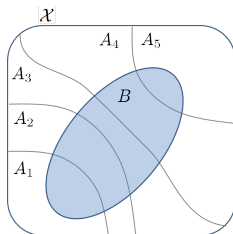
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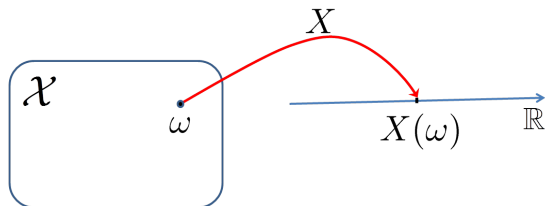


- Bayes' theorem: if $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$ is a partition of \mathcal{X}

$$\mathbb{P}(A_i|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B \cap A_i)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B|A_i) \mathbb{P}(A_i)}{\sum_i \mathbb{P}(B|A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_i)}$$

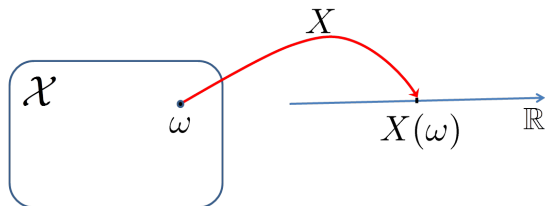
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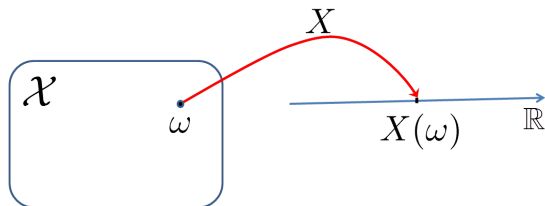
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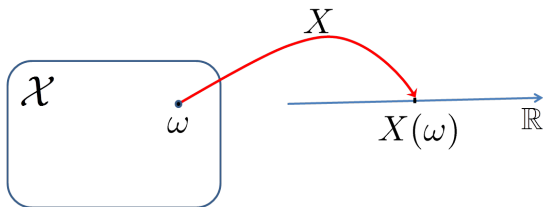
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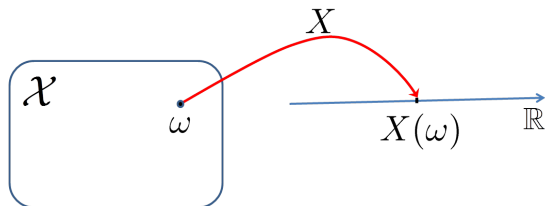
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- ▶ **Example**: number of head in tossing two coins,
 $\mathcal{X} = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$,
 $X(HH) = 2, X(HT) = X(TH) = 1, X(TT) = 0$.
Range of $X = \{0, 1, 2\}$.

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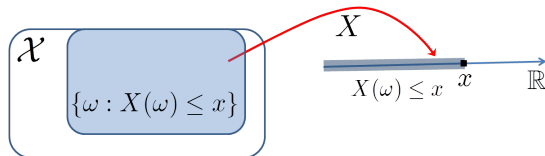
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- ▶ **Example**: distance traveled by a tossed coin; range of $X = \mathbb{R}_+$.

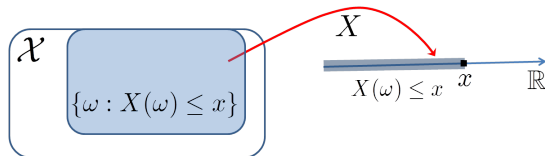
Random Variables: Distribution Function

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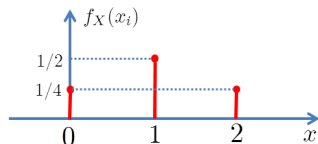
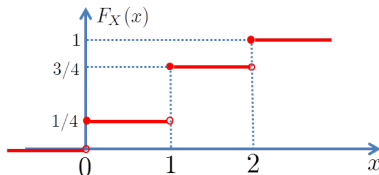


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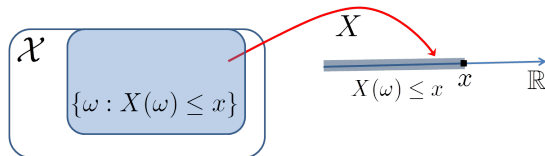


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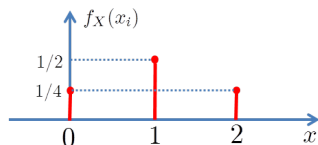
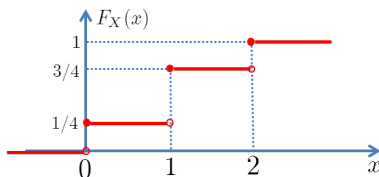


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- Probability mass function** (discrete RV): $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$,

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} f_X(x_i).$$

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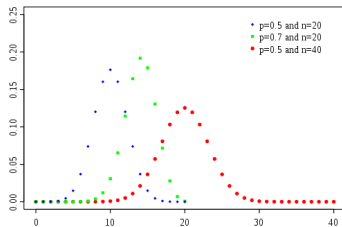
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Binomial coefficients
("n choose x"):

$$\binom{n}{x} = \frac{n!}{(n-x)! x!}$$



More Important Discrete Random Variables

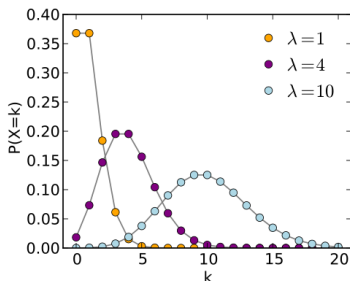
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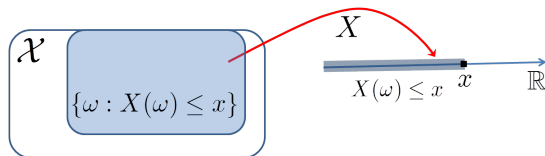
Notice that $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^\lambda$, thus $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f_X(x) = 1$.

“...probability of the number of independent occurrences in a fixed (time/space) interval if these occurrences have known average rate”



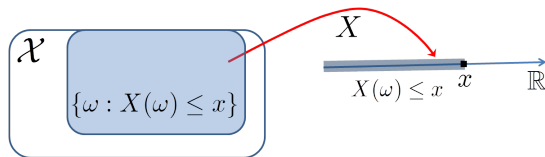
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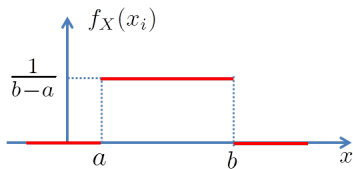
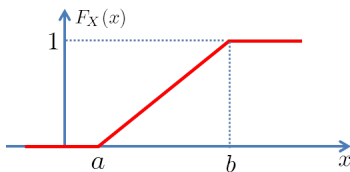


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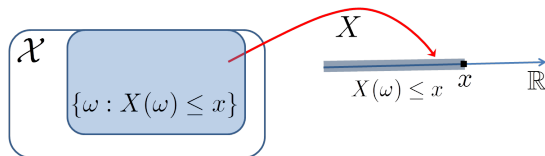


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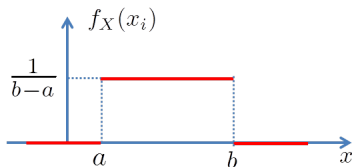
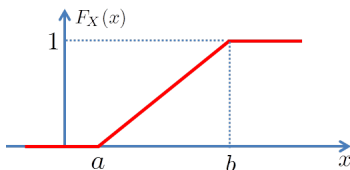


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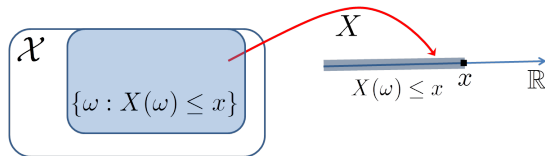
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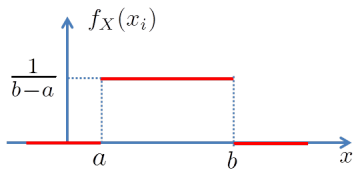
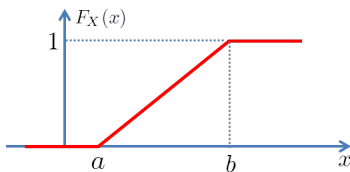
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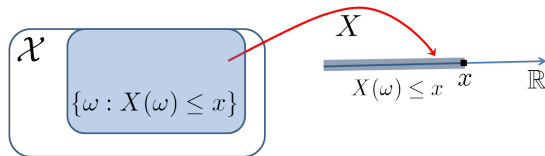


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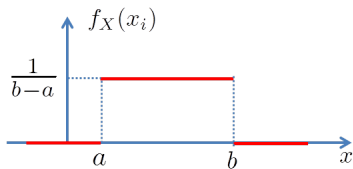
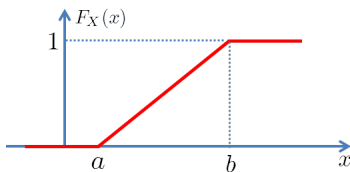
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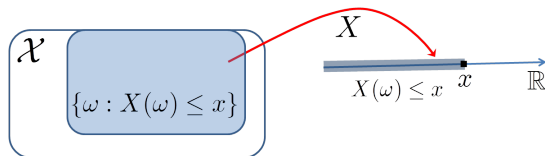


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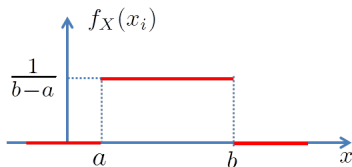
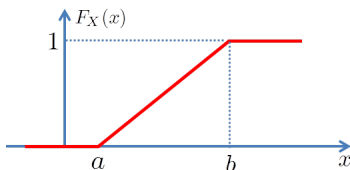
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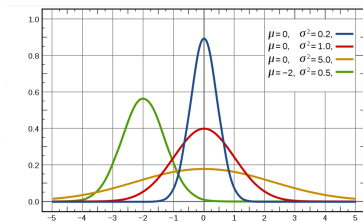
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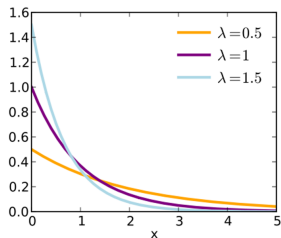
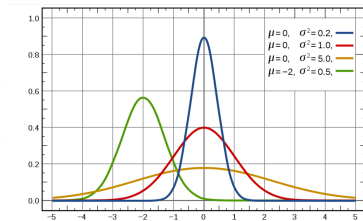
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$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^j f_X(x) dx &= \int_{|x| \leq 1} |x|^j f_X(x) dx + \int_{|x| > 1} |x|^j f_X(x) dx \\ &\leq \int_{|x| \leq 1} f_X(x) dx + \int_{|x| > 1} |x|^k f_X(x) dx \leq 1 + \mathbb{E}(|X|^k) < \infty \end{aligned}$$

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$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \Leftrightarrow f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y) \not\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X) \mathbb{E}(Y).$$

Conditionals and Bayes' Theorem

- **Conditional pmf** (discrete RVs):

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X = x \wedge Y = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = y)} = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

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- Also valid in the mixed case (e.g., X continuous, Y discrete).

Joint, Marginal, and Conditional Probabilities: An Example

- A pair of binary variables $X, Y \in \{0, 1\}$, with **joint** pmf:

$f_{X,Y}(x, y)$	$Y = 0$	$Y = 1$
$X = 0$	1/5	2/5
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$f_{Y X}(y x)$	$Y = 0$	$Y = 1$
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An Important Multivariate RV: Multinomial

- **Multinomial:** $X = (X_1, \dots, X_K)$, $X_i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$, such that $\sum_i X_i = n$,

$$f_X(x_1, \dots, x_K) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_K} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_K^{x_K} & \Leftarrow \sum_i x_i = n \\ 0 & \Leftarrow \sum_i x_i \neq n \end{cases}$$

$$\binom{n}{x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_K} = \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! \cdots x_K!}$$

Parameters: $p_1, \dots, p_K \geq 0$, such that $\sum_i p_i = 1$.

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- Generalizes the binomial from binary to K -classes.
- **Example:** tossing n independent fair dice, $p_1 = \dots = p_6 = 1/6$.
 x_i = number of outcomes with i dots. Of course, $\sum_i x_i = n$.

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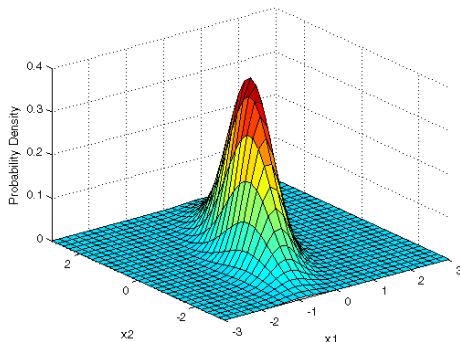
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Covariance, Correlation, and all that...

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- Covariance of Gaussian RV, $f_X(x) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, C) \Rightarrow \text{cov}(X) = C$

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- Canonical parameter(s): $\eta(\theta)$
- Sufficient statistics: $\phi(x)$
- Partition function: $Z(\theta)$
- Curved exponential family: $\dim(\theta) < \dim(\eta(\theta))$

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- **Gaussian:**

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} = \frac{\exp(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{\mu x}{\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2})}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}},$$

thus $\eta(\mu, \sigma^2) = [\mu/\sigma^2, -1/(2\sigma^2)]^T$, $\phi(x) = [x, x^2]^T$,
 $Z(\mu, \sigma^2) = \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp(\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2})$, and $h(x) = 1$.

More on Exponential Families

- Independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) observations:

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then

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- Expected sufficient statistics:

$$\frac{d \log Z(\eta)}{d\eta} = \frac{\frac{dZ(\eta)}{d\eta}}{Z(\eta)} = \frac{1}{Z(\eta)} \int \phi(x) h(x) \exp(\eta^T \phi(x)) dx = \mathbb{E}(\phi(X))$$

Statistical Inference

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$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{Y|X}(y|x) f_X(x)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{f_{Y,X}(y, x)}{f_Y(y)}$$

...the **posterior** (or **a posteriori**) pdf/pmf.

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where

$$\mathbb{E}[L(\hat{x}, X) | Y = y] = \begin{cases} \int L(\hat{x}, x) f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx, & \text{continuous (estimation)} \\ \sum_x L(\hat{x}, x) f_{X|Y}(x|y), & \text{discrete (classification)} \end{cases}$$

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- Same criterion can be derived for continuous X , using $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} L_{\varepsilon}(\hat{x}, x)$, where $L_{\varepsilon}(\hat{x}, x) = 0$, if $|\hat{x} - x| < \varepsilon$, and 1 otherwise.

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Statistical Inference: Example (Continuation)

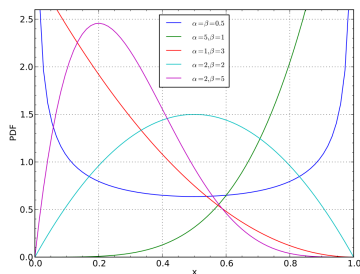
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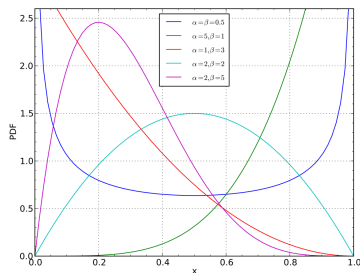
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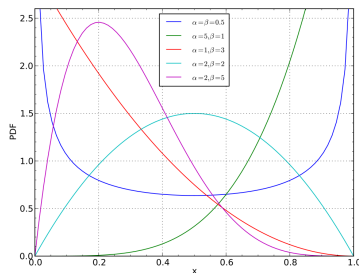
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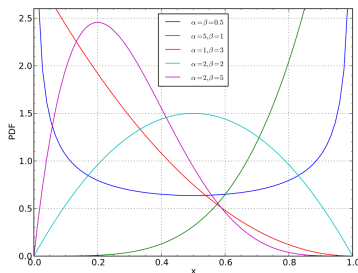
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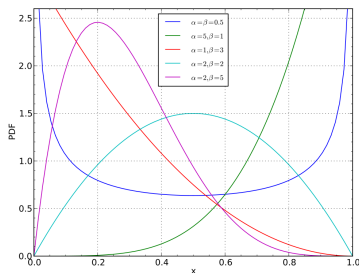
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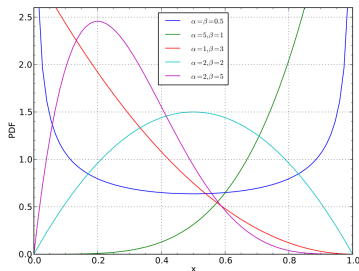
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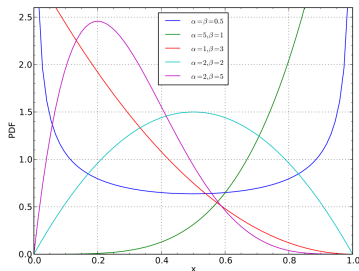
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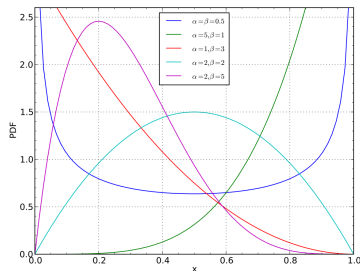
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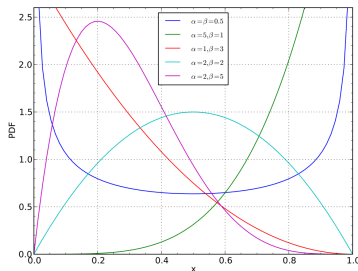
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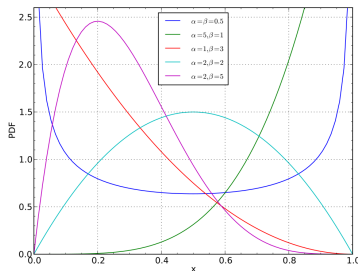
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- Conjugate prior equivalent to “virtual” counts; often called “smoothing” in NLP and ML.

The Bernstein-Von Mises Theorem

- In the previous example, we had

$n = 10$, $y = (1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1)$, thus $\sum_i y_i = 7$.

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- Consider $n = 100$, and $\sum_i y_i = 70$, with the same Beta(4,4) prior

$$\hat{x}_{\text{ML}} = 0.7, \quad \hat{x}_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{73}{106} \simeq 0.689, \quad \hat{x}_{\text{MMSE}} = \frac{74}{108} \simeq 0.685$$

... both Bayesian estimates are much closer to the ML.

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$n = 10$, $y = (1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1)$, thus $\sum_i y_i = 7$.

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$$\hat{x}_{\text{ML}} = 0.7, \quad \hat{x}_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{3 + \sum_i y_i}{6 + n} = 0.625, \quad \hat{x}_{\text{MMSE}} = \frac{4 + \sum_i y_i}{8 + n} \simeq 0.611$$

- Consider $n = 100$, and $\sum_i y_i = 70$, with the same Beta(4,4) prior

$$\hat{x}_{\text{ML}} = 0.7, \quad \hat{x}_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{73}{106} \simeq 0.689, \quad \hat{x}_{\text{MMSE}} = \frac{74}{108} \simeq 0.685$$

... both Bayesian estimates are much closer to the ML.

- This illustrates an important result in **Bayesian** inference: the **Bernstein-Von Mises theorem**; under (mild) conditions,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{x}_{\text{MAP}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{x}_{\text{MMSE}} = \hat{x}_{\text{ML}}$$

message: if you have a lot of data, priors don't matter much.

Important Inequalities

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- **Chebyshev's inequality:** $\mu = \mathbb{E}(Y)$ and $\sigma^2 = \text{var}(Y)$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq s) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{s^2}$$

...simple corollary of Markov's inequality, with $X = |Y - \mu|^2$, $t = s^2$

Other Important Inequalities

- Cauchy-Schwartz's inequality for RVs:

$$\mathbb{E}(|X Y|) \leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E}(X^2)\mathbb{E}(Y^2)}$$

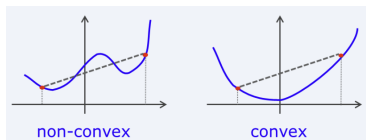
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$$g(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) \leq \alpha g(x) + (1 - \alpha)g(y)$$



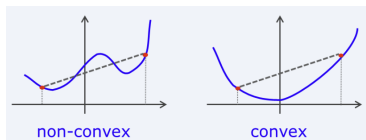
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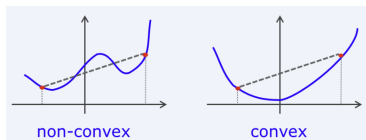
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Examples: $\mathbb{E}(X)^2 \leq \mathbb{E}(X^2) \Rightarrow \text{var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) - \mathbb{E}(X)^2 \geq 0$.
 $\mathbb{E}(\log X) \leq \log \mathbb{E}(X)$, for X a positive RV.

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- If $\text{var}(Y) = \sigma^2$, then $h(Y) \leq \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi e \sigma^2)$

Kullback-Leibler divergence

Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD) between two pmf:

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Mutual information

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MI is a measure of dependency between two random variables

Recommended Reading (Probability and Statistics)

- K. Murphy, “Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective”, MIT Press, 2012 (Chapter 2).
- L. Wasserman, “All of Statistics: A Concise Course in Statistical Inference”, Springer, 2004.

Linear Algebra

- Linear algebra provides (among many other things) a compact way of representing, studying, and solving linear systems of equations

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- **Example:** the system

$$\begin{aligned}4x_1 - 5x_2 &= -13 \\ -2x_1 + 3x_2 &= 9\end{aligned}$$

can be written compactly as $Ax = b$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix},$$

and can be solved as

$$x = A^{-1}b = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 2.5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notation: Matrices and Vectors

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a **matrix** with m rows and n columns.

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- Transpose of sum: $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$.

Norms

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- Notable case: the ℓ_∞ norm, $\|x\|_\infty = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}$.
- Notable case: the ℓ_0 “norm” (not): $\|x\|_0 = |\{i : x_i \neq 0\}|$.

Special Matrices

- The **identity matrix** $I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a square matrix such that

$$I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \quad I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- Upper triangular matrix: $(j < i) \Rightarrow A_{i,j} = 0$.

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- Diagonal matrix: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is diagonal if $(i \neq j) \Rightarrow A_{i,j} = 0$.
- Upper triangular matrix: $(j < i) \Rightarrow A_{i,j} = 0$.
- Lower triangular matrix: $(j > i) \Rightarrow A_{i,j} = 0$.

Eigenvalues, eigenvectors, determinant, trace

- A vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an **eigenvector** of matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ if

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where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is the corresponding **eigenvalue**.

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- There are several algorithms to compute A^{-1} ; general case, computational cost $O(n^3)$.

Quadratic Forms and Positive (Semi-)Definite Matrices

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