EK381: Exam 3 Review

College of Engineering Boston University

Detection

Binary Hypothesis Testing:

• Two hypotheses H_0 and H_1 . Observe a random variable Y. Decide if H_0 or H_1 occurred based only on Y using a decision rule D(Y).

> $P_{Y|H_0}(y)$ if H_0 occurs $f_{Y|H_0}(y)$ if H_0 occurs $P_{Y|H_1}(y)$ if H_1 occurs $f_{Y|H_1}(y)$ if H_1 occurs

Discrete Case Continuous Case

Decision Regions:

 $A_0 = \{y \in R_Y : D(y) = 0\}$ $A_1 = \{y \in R_Y : D(y) = 1\}$

- Probability of False Alarm: $P_{\mathsf{FA}} = \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_1 | H_0]$
- Probability of Missed Detection: $P_{MD} = \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_0 | H_1]$
- Goal is to minimize the probability of error:

$$P_e = P_{\mathsf{FA}} \, \mathbb{P}[H_0] + P_{\mathsf{MD}} \, \mathbb{P}[H_1]$$

Likelihood Ratio (and Log-Likelihood Ratio):

$$L(y) = \frac{P_{Y|H_1}(y)}{P_{Y|H_0}(y)} \qquad \qquad \ln(L(y)) = \ln\left(\frac{P_{Y|H_1}(y)}{P_{Y|H_0}(y)}\right)$$

Detection

Maximum Likelihood (ML) Rule:

- Intuition: Choose the hypothesis that best explains the observation.
- In terms of the conditional PMFs for the discrete case,

$$D^{\mathsf{ML}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & P_{Y|H_1}(y) \ge P_{Y|H_0}(y), \\ 0, & P_{Y|H_1}(y) < P_{Y|H_0}(y). \end{cases}$$

• In terms of the conditional PDFs for the continuous case,

$$D^{\mathsf{ML}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & f_{Y|H_1}(y) \ge f_{Y|H_0}(y), \\ 0, & f_{Y|H_1}(y) < f_{Y|H_0}(y). \end{cases}$$

• In terms of the likelihood or log-likelihood ratio,

$$D^{\mathsf{ML}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & L(y) \ge 1, \\ 0, & L(y) < 1. \end{cases} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \underline{\mathsf{Log-Likelihood\ Ratio}}\\ D^{\mathsf{ML}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \ln(L(y)) \ge 0, \\ 0, & \ln(L(y)) < 0. \end{cases}$$

Detection

Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Rule:

- Intuition: Choose the most likely hypothesis given the observation.
- Attains the minimum probability of error.
- In terms of the conditional PMFs for the discrete case,

$$D^{\mathsf{MAP}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & P_{Y|H_1}(y) \, \mathbb{P}[H_1] \ge P_{Y|H_0}(y) \, \mathbb{P}[H_0], \\ 0, & P_{Y|H_1}(y) \, \mathbb{P}[H_1] < P_{Y|H_0}(y) \, \mathbb{P}[H_0]. \end{cases}$$

• In terms of the conditional PDFs for the continuous case,

$$D^{\mathsf{MAP}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & f_{Y|H_1}(y) \,\mathbb{P}[H_1] \ge f_{Y|H_0}(y) \,\mathbb{P}[H_0], \\ 0, & f_{Y|H_1}(y) \,\mathbb{P}[H_1] < f_{Y|H_0}(y) \,\mathbb{P}[H_0]. \end{cases}$$

• In terms of the likelihood or log-likelihood ratio,

$$\begin{split} \underline{\text{Likelihood Ratio}} & \underline{\text{Log-Likelihood Ratio}} \\ D^{\text{MAP}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & L(y) \geq \frac{\mathbb{P}[H_0]}{\mathbb{P}[H_1]}, \\ 0, & L(y) < \frac{\mathbb{P}[H_0]}{\mathbb{P}[H_1]}. \end{cases} & D^{\text{MAP}}(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \ln(L(y)) \geq \ln\left(\frac{\mathbb{P}[H_0]}{\mathbb{P}[H_1]}\right), \\ 0, & \ln(L(y)) < \ln\left(\frac{\mathbb{P}[H_0]}{\mathbb{P}[H_1]}\right). \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Vector Observations:

• Two hypotheses H_0 and H_1 . Observe a random vector Y. Decide which hypothesis occurred using a decision rule D(Y).

> Discrete Case $P_{Y|H_0}(y)$ if H_0 occurs $f_{\underline{Y}|H_0}(\underline{y})$ if H_0 occurs $P_{Y|H_1}(y)$ if H_1 occurs $f_{Y|H_1}(y)$ if H_1 occurs

Continuous Case

Decision Regions:

$$A_0 = \{\underline{y} \in R_Y : D(\underline{y}) = 0\} \qquad A_1 = \{\underline{y} \in R_Y : D(\underline{y}) = 1\}$$

- Probability of False Alarm: $P_{\mathsf{FA}} = \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_1 | H_0]$
- Probability of Missed Detection: $P_{MD} = \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_0 | H_1]$
- Probability of Error: $P_e = P_{\mathsf{FA}} \mathbb{P}[H_0] + P_{\mathsf{MD}} \mathbb{P}[H_1]$
- The likelihood ratio as well as the ML and MAP rules are the same as on the previous slides, just substitute in \underline{Y} for Y and y for y in each equation.

Scalar Estimation:

- We observe a random variable Y and want to estimate an unobserved random variable X using an estimator $\hat{x}(Y)$.
- Goal: Minimize the mean-squared error: $MSE = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(X \hat{x}(Y)\right)^2\right]$

Minimum Mean-Squared Error (MMSE) Estimator:

- Attains the minimum MSE amongst all possible estimators.
- Given by the conditional expectation: $\hat{x}_{MMSE}(y) = \mathbb{E}[X|Y = y]$ Linear Least-Squares Error (LLSE) Estimator:
- Attains the minimum MSE amongst all linear estimators.

•
$$\hat{x}_{\text{LLSE}}(y) = \mathbb{E}[X] + \frac{\text{Cov}[X,Y]}{\text{Var}[Y]} (y - \mathbb{E}[Y]) = \mathbb{E}[X] + \rho_{X,Y} \frac{\sigma_X}{\sigma_Y} (y - \mathbb{E}[Y])$$

• $\text{MSE}_{\text{LLSE}} = \text{Var}[X] - \frac{(\text{Cov}[X,Y])^2}{\text{Var}[Y]} = \text{Var}[X](1 - \rho_{X,Y}^2)$

• For jointly Gaussian X and Y, $\hat{x}_{MMSE}(y) = \hat{x}_{LLSE}(y)$.

Vector Estimation:

- We observe a random vector \underline{Y} and want to estimate an unobserved random vector \underline{X} using an estimator $\underline{\hat{x}}(\underline{Y})$.
- Mean-Squared Error: $MSE = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\underline{X} \hat{\underline{x}}(\underline{Y})\right)^{\mathsf{T}}\left(\underline{X} \hat{\underline{x}}(\underline{Y})\right)\right]$

Vector Minimum Mean-Squared Error (MMSE) Estimator:

- Attains the minimum MSE amongst all possible estimators.
- Given by the conditional expectation: $\underline{\hat{x}}_{MMSE}(\underline{y}) = \mathbb{E}[\underline{X}|\underline{Y} = \underline{y}]$ Vector Linear Least-Squares Error (LLSE) Estimator:
- Attains the minimum MSE amongst all linear estimators.
- $\underline{\hat{x}}_{\mathsf{LLSE}}(\underline{y}) = \mathbb{E}[\underline{X}] + \Sigma_{\underline{X},\underline{Y}} \Sigma_{\underline{Y}}^{-1} (\underline{y} \mathbb{E}[\underline{Y}])$
- Covariance Matrix of \underline{Y} : $\Sigma_{\underline{Y}} = \mathbb{E}\left[(\underline{Y} \mathbb{E}[\underline{Y}])(\underline{Y} \mathbb{E}[\underline{Y}])^{\mathsf{T}}\right]$
- Cross-Covariance Matrix: $\Sigma_{\underline{X},\underline{Y}} = \mathbb{E}\left[(\underline{X} \mathbb{E}[\underline{X}])(\underline{Y} \mathbb{E}[\underline{Y}])^{\mathsf{T}}\right]$
- For jointly Gaussian \underline{X} and \underline{Y} , $\underline{\hat{x}}_{MMSE}(\underline{y}) = \underline{\hat{x}}_{LLSE}(\underline{y})$.

Sums of Random Variables

- Joint PMF for n discrete random variables $P_{X_1,...,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$
- Joint PDF for n continuous random variables $f_{X_1,...,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$
- Expected Value of a Sum: $\mathbb{E}[X_1 + \cdots + X_n] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[X_i]$

• Variance of a Sum: Var
$$[X_1 + \dots + X_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n Cov[X_i, X_j]$$

Independent and Identically Distributed Random Variables:

- Joint PMF $P_{X_1,\ldots,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = P_X(x_1)\cdots P_X(x_n)$
- Joint PDF $f_{X_1,\ldots,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = f_X(x_1)\cdots f_X(x_n)$
- Expected Value of a Sum: $\mathbb{E}[X_1 + \cdots + X_n] = n\mathbb{E}[X]$
- Variance of a Sum: $Var[X_1 + \cdots + X_n] = nVar[X]$

Sums of Random Variables

 Weak Law of Large Numbers: Let X₁, X₂,..., X_n be i.i.d. random variables with finite mean μ. For any constant ε > 0,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i - \mu \right| > \epsilon \right) = 0$$

• Strong Law of Large Numbers: Let *X*₁*, X*₂*,...,X*_n be i.i.d. random variables with finite mean μ. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i = \mu\right) = 1$$

• Central Limit Theorem: Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. random variables with finite mean μ and finite variance σ^2 . The CDF of $Y_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$ converges to the standard normal CDF,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{Y_n}(y) = \Phi(y) \; .$$

Parameter Estimation:

• We collect data X_1, \ldots, X_n , which we assume is i.i.d. with some unknown true mean μ and true variance σ^2 . How can we estimate these parameters?

• Sample Mean:
$$M_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

• Sample Variance: $V_n = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - M_n)^2$

• The sample mean and sample variance are unbiased estimators:

$$\mathbb{E}[M_n] = \mu \qquad \qquad \mathbb{E}[V_n] = \sigma^2$$

Confidence Intervals:

• $[M_n \pm \epsilon]$ is a confidence interval for the mean with confidence level $1 - \alpha$ if $\mathbb{P}[\mu - \epsilon \le M_n \le \mu + \epsilon] = 1 - \alpha$.

Confidence Interval: Known Variance

- Assumes data is i.i.d. $\mathrm{Gaussian}(\mu,\sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known.
- $[M_n \pm \epsilon]$ with $\epsilon = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}Q^{-1}(\frac{\alpha}{2})$ is a confidence interval for the mean with confidence level 1α .
- When to use: Variance is known or n > 30 samples.
- If the variance σ^2 is unknown and we have n > 30 samples, substitute σ^2 with the sample variance V_n .

Confidence Interval: Unknown Variance

- Assumes data is i.i.d. $\mathsf{Gaussian}(\mu,\sigma^2)$ with σ^2 unknown.
- Let $F_{T_{n-1}}(t)$ be the CDF for a Student's t-distribution with n-1 degrees-of-freedom.
- $[M_n \pm \epsilon]$ with $\epsilon = -\frac{\sqrt{V_n}}{\sqrt{n}} F_{T_{n-1}}^{-1}(\frac{\alpha}{2})$ is a confidence interval for the mean with confidence level 1α .
- When to use: Variance is unknown and $n \leq 30$ samples.

Significance Testing

- Only have a probability model for the null hypothesis H_0 .
- The significance level $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ is used to determine when to reject the null hypothesis.
- Given a statistic calculated from the dataset, the p-value is the probability of observing a value at least this extreme under the null hypothesis.
 - If p-value $< \alpha$, then reject the null hypothesis.
 - If p-value $\geq \alpha$, then fail to reject the null hypothesis.

One-Sample Z-Test

- Null Hypothesis: X_1, \ldots, X_n is i.i.d. Gaussian (μ, σ^2) .
- When to use: Variance σ^2 is known or n > 30 samples.
- Informally, is the mean not equal to μ ?
 - **1** Calculate the sample mean M_n .
 - **2** Z-statistic: $Z = \sqrt{n}(M_n \mu)/\sigma$.
 - **3** p-value = $2\Phi(-|Z|)$.
- If the variance σ^2 is unknown and we have n > 30 samples, substitute σ^2 with the sample variance V_n .

One-Sample T-Test

- Null Hypothesis: X_1, \ldots, X_n is i.i.d. Gaussian (μ, σ^2) .
- When to use: Variance σ^2 is unknown and $n \leq 30$ samples.
- Informally, is the mean not equal to μ ?
 - **1** Calculate the sample mean M_n and variance V_n .
 - **2** Z-statistic: $T = \sqrt{n}(M_n \mu)/\sqrt{V_n}$.
 - **3** p-value = $2F_{T_{n-1}}(-|T|)$.

Two-Sample Z-Test

- Null Hypothesis: X_1, \ldots, X_{n_1} is i.i.d. Gaussian (μ, σ_1^2) and Y_1, \ldots, Y_{n_2} is i.i.d. Gaussian (μ, σ_2^2) .
- When to use: Variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 are known or $\min(n_1, n_2) > 30$.
- Informally, do the datasets have the same mean?
 - **1** Calculate the sample means $M_{n_1}^{(1)}$ and $M_{n_2}^{(2)}$.

2 Z-statistic:
$$Z = \left(M_{n_1}^{(1)} - M_{n_2}^{(2)}\right) / \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$$

- **3** p-value = $2\Phi(-|Z|)$.
- If the variances σ_1^2, σ_2^2 are unknown and we have $\min(n_1, n_2) > 30$ samples, substitute $\sigma_1^2 = V_{n_1}^{(1)}$ and $\sigma_2^2 = V_{n_2}^{(2)}$.

Two-Sample T-Test

- Null Hypothesis: X_1, \ldots, X_{n_1} is i.i.d. Gaussian (μ, σ^2) and Y_1, \ldots, Y_{n_2} is i.i.d. Gaussian (μ, σ^2) . The mean μ is unknown.
- When to use: (Equal) variance σ^2 is unknown and $\min(n_1, n_2) \leq 30$.
- Informally, do the datasets have the same mean?
 - \blacksquare Calculate the sample means $M_{n_1}^{(1)}, M_{n_2}^{(2)}$, sample variances $V_{n_1}^{(1)}, V_{n_2}^{(2)}$, and the pooled sample variance

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \left((n_1 - 1) V_{n_1}^{(1)} + (n_2 - 1) V_{n_2}^{(2)} \right) / \left(n_1 + n_2 - 2 \right)$$

2 T-statistic:
$$T = \frac{\left(M_{n_1}^{(1)} - M_{n_2}^{(2)}\right)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right)}}$$

3 p-value = $2F_{T_{n_1+n_2-2}}(-|T|).$

Binary Classification:

- The goal is to decide between two hypotheses, but we do not have access to the underlying probability model.
- Instead, we have a dataset consisting of n samples,

 $\{(\underline{X}_1, Y_1), (\underline{X}_2, Y_2), \dots, (\underline{X}_n, Y_n)\}.$

The i^{th} sample (\underline{X}_i, Y_i) has an observation vector \underline{X}_i and a label Y_i , which we assume is -1 or +1.

- We use this dataset to come up with a classifier $D(\underline{x})$, which is a function that maps any possible observation vector \underline{x} into a guess of its label.
- We measure performance via the error rate, the fraction of misclassified examples (usually reported as a percentage).

Training and Test Error:

• To make sure we are not overfitting, we split our dataset into non-overlapping training and test datasets,

$$\begin{split} \big\{(\underline{X}_{\mathsf{train},1}, Y_{\mathsf{train},1}), (\underline{X}_{\mathsf{train},2}, Y_{\mathsf{train},2}), \dots, (\underline{X}_{\mathsf{train},n_{\mathsf{train}}}, Y_{\mathsf{train},n_{\mathsf{train}}})\big\}, \\ \big\{(\underline{X}_{\mathsf{test},1}, Y_{\mathsf{test},1}), (\underline{X}_{\mathsf{test},2}, Y_{\mathsf{test},2}), \dots, (\underline{X}_{\mathsf{test},n_{\mathsf{test}}}, Y_{\mathsf{test},n_{\mathsf{test}}})\big\}. \end{split}$$

• The training set is used to construct our classifier $D(\underline{x})$ and the test set can only be used to evaluate its performance.

 $\label{eq:training} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{Error} = \mbox{fraction of misclassified training examples}, \\ \mbox{Test Error} = \mbox{fraction of misclassified test examples} \end{array}$

Basic Classifiers:

- The closest average classifier first computes the average vector for each label. Given a new observation vector, it computes the distance to each average and choose the label with the smallest distance.
- The nearest neighbor classifier, when given a new observation vector, computes the distance to every sample in the training set to find the closest point. It then outputs the label of this point as its guess.
- The LDA classifier assumes the observation vectors are Gaussian, with different mean vectors and the same covariance matrix. It estimates these parameters and then applies the resulting ML rule.
- The QDA classifier assumes the observation vectors are Gaussian, with different mean vectors and covariance matrices. It estimates these parameters and then applies the resulting ML rule.

Dimensionality Reduction:

• Principal component analysis allows us to reduce the dimensionality of our observations, by only keeping the (orthogonal) directions corresponding the largest variance.

Markov Chains

Markov Chain:

• Sequence of (discrete) random variables X_0, X_1, X_2, \ldots such that, given the history X_0, \ldots, X_n , the next state X_{n+1} only depends on the current state X_n ,

$$P_{X_{n+1}|X_n,\dots,X_0}(x_{n+1}|x_n,\dots,x_0) = P_{X_{n+1}|X_n}(x_{n+1}|x_n)$$

- We assume the range is finite $R_X = \{1, \ldots, K\}$.
- The transition probabilities P_{jk} are the probabilities of moving from state j to state k in one time step. We assume the Markov chain is homogeneous, $P_{X_{n+1}|X_n}(k|j) = P_{jk}$.
- The *n*-step transition probabilities $P_{jk}(n)$ are the probabilities of moving from state j to state k in exactly n time steps. They can be determined via the Chapman-Kolmogorov equations:

$$P_{jk}(n+m) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} P_{ji}(n) P_{ik}(m)$$

State Transition Matrix:

• The state transition matrix is $\mathbf{P}=$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & \cdots & P_{1K} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} & \cdots & P_{2K} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{K1} & P_{K2} & \cdots & P_{KK} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Row index is for the current state, column index is for the next state.
- All rows must sum to 1.

Probability State Vector:

- The probability state vector is $\underline{p}_t = \begin{bmatrix} P_{X_t}(1) \\ \vdots \\ P_{X_t}(K) \end{bmatrix}$.
- Moving forward one time step: $\underline{p}_{t+1} = \mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}} \underline{p}_t$.
- Moving forward n time steps: $\underline{p}_{t+n} = (\mathbf{P}^n)^{\mathsf{T}} \underline{p}_t$.

State Classification:

- State k is accessible from state j if it is possible to reach state k starting from state j in zero or more time steps. (State j is always accessible from itself.) Notation: $j \rightarrow k$
- States j and k communicate if $j \rightarrow k$ and $k \rightarrow j$. Notation: $j \leftrightarrow k$
- A communicating class C is a subset of states such that if $j \in C$, then $k \in C$ if and only if $j \leftrightarrow k$.
- A Markov chain is irreducible if all of its states belong to a single communicating class.
- A state j is transient if there is a state k such that $j \rightarrow k$ but $k \not\rightarrow j$.
- Any state that is not transient is recurrent.
- The period d of a state j is the greatest common divisor of the length of all cycles from j back to itself.
- If the period is 1, then the state is called aperiodic. The entire Markov chain is aperiodic if all states are aperiodic.

Markov Chains

Limiting Probability State Vector:

• For an irreducible, aperiodic Markov chain, there is a unique limiting state probability vector $\underline{\pi} = \lim_{t \to \infty} \underline{p}_t$.

Properties of the Limiting Probability State Vector:

• Normalization:
$$\sum_{j=1}^{K} \pi_j = 1$$

- Any initial probability state probability vector p_0 will converge to $\underline{\pi}$.
- Steady-State Distribution: $\underline{\pi} = \mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}} \underline{\pi}$.

Handling Transient States:

• If there is only one recurrent communicating class and it is aperiodic, then there is still a unique limiting state probability vector. Find by first setting the limiting probabilities of all transient states to 0.

Consider the following detection problem. Under hypothesis H_0 , Y is a Geometric(1/2) random variable. Under hypothesis H_1 , Y is a Geometric(3/4) random variable. The probabilities of the hypotheses are $\mathbb{P}[H_0] = 1/3$ and $\mathbb{P}[H_1] = 2/3$.

(a) Determine the ML rule. The conditional PMFs are

$$P_{Y|H_0}(y) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^y & y = 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad P_{Y|H_1}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{y-1} & y = 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

From these, we can form the likelihood ratio,

$$L(y) = \frac{P_{Y|H_1}(y)}{P_{Y|H_0}(y)} = 3\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^y,$$

which is greater than 1 for y = 1 and less than 1 for $y \ge 2$. Therefore, the ML rule is to decide H_1 for y = 1 and decide H_0 for $y \ge 2$.

Consider the following detection problem. Under hypothesis H_0 , Y is a Geometric(1/2) random variable. Under hypothesis H_1 , Y is a Geometric(3/4) random variable. The probabilities of the hypotheses are $\mathbb{P}[H_0] = 1/3$ and $\mathbb{P}[H_1] = 2/3$.

(b) Determine the probability of error under the ML rule. For the ML rule, we have $A_0 = \{Y \ge 2\}$ and $A_1 = \{Y = 1\}$. Therefore, the probability of error is

$$\begin{split} P_{\mathsf{FA}} &= \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_1 | H_0] = \mathbb{P}[Y = 1 | H_0] = P_{Y|H_0}(1) = \frac{1}{2} \\ P_{\mathsf{MD}} &= \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_0 | H_1] = \mathbb{P}[Y \ge 2 | H_1] \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}[Y = 1 | H_1] = 1 - P_{Y|H_1}(1) = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4} \\ \mathbb{P}[\mathsf{error}] &= P_{\mathsf{FA}} \mathbb{P}[H_0] + P_{\mathsf{MD}} \mathbb{P}[H_1] = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \end{split}$$

Consider the following detection problem. Under hypothesis H_0 , Y is a Geometric(1/2) random variable. Under hypothesis H_1 , Y is a Geometric(3/4) random variable. The probabilities of the hypotheses are $\mathbb{P}[H_0] = 1/3$ and $\mathbb{P}[H_1] = 2/3$.

(c) Determine the MAP rule. For the MAP rule, we need to compare the likelihood ratio L(y) to $\frac{\mathbb{P}[H_0]}{\mathbb{P}[H_1]} = \frac{1/3}{2/3} = \frac{1}{2}$. We find that L(y) is greater than $\frac{1}{2}$ for y = 1, 2 and L(y) is less than $\frac{1}{2}$ for $y = 3, 4, \ldots$. Therefore, the MAP rule is to decide H_1 for y = 1, 2 and decide H_0 for $y \ge 3$.

Consider the following detection problem. Under hypothesis H_0 , Y is a Geometric(1/2) random variable. Under hypothesis H_1 , Y is a Geometric(3/4) random variable. The probabilities of the hypotheses are $\mathbb{P}[H_0] = 1/3$ and $\mathbb{P}[H_1] = 2/3$.

(d) Determine the probability of error under the MAP rule. For the MAP rule, we have $A_0 = \{Y \ge 3\}$ and $A_1 = \{Y \le 2\}$. Therefore, the probability of error is

$$\begin{split} P_{\mathsf{FA}} &= \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_1 | H_0] = \mathbb{P}[Y \leq 2 | H_0] \\ &= P_{Y|H_0}(1) + P_{Y|H_0}(2) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4} \\ P_{\mathsf{MD}} &= \mathbb{P}[Y \in A_0 | H_1] = \mathbb{P}[Y \geq 3 | H_1] = 1 - \mathbb{P}[Y \leq 2 | H_1] \\ &= 1 - P_{Y|H_1}(1) - P_{Y|H_1}(2) = 1 - \frac{3}{4} - \frac{3}{16} = \frac{1}{16} \\ \mathbb{P}[\mathsf{error}] &= P_{\mathsf{FA}} \, \mathbb{P}[H_0] + P_{\mathsf{MD}} \, \mathbb{P}[H_1] = \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{16} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{7}{24} \; . \end{split}$$

Consider the following estimation problem. The joint PDF of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x-y & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(a) What are the marginal PDFs $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$?

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x,y) \, dy = \begin{cases} \int_0^1 (x-y) \, dy & 1 \le x \le 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} (xy - \frac{y^2}{2}) \Big|_0^1 & 1 \le x \le 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} x - \frac{1}{2} & 1 \le x \le 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x,y) \, dx = \begin{cases} \int_1^2 (x-y) \, dx & 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \left(\frac{x^2y}{2} - xy\right) \Big|_1^2 & 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2} - y & 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Consider the following estimation problem. The joint PDF of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x-y & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(b) What is the conditional PDF $f_{X|Y}(x|y)$?

$$\begin{split} f_{X|Y}(x|y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)} & f_Y(y) > 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{x-y}{\frac{3}{2}-y} & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

(Remember that the range of conditional PDF will be the same as the range of the joint PDF!)

Consider the following estimation problem. The joint PDF of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x-y & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(c) What is the MMSE estimator of X given Y = y? Remember that the MMSE estimator is just the conditional expectation!

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}_{\mathsf{MMSE}}(y) &= \mathbb{E}[X|Y=y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) \, dx \\ &= \int_{1}^{2} x \frac{x-y}{\frac{3}{2}-y} \, dx = \left(\frac{\frac{x^{3}}{3} - \frac{x^{2}y}{2}}{\frac{3}{2}-y}\right) \Big|_{1}^{2} = \frac{14-9y}{9-6y} \end{aligned}$$

Consider the following estimation problem. The joint PDF of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x-y & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(d) What is the LLSE estimator of X given Y = y? Remember that the LLSE estimator is a linear function with slope and offset determined through calculating certain means, variances, and covariances. We will use the formula $\hat{x}_{\text{LLSE}}(y) = \mathbb{E}[X] + \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\text{Var}[Y]}(y - \mathbb{E}[Y])$. Below, we calculate the necessary integrals.

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) \, dy = \int_1^2 x \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right) dx = \left(\frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^2}{4}\right) \Big|_2^1 = \frac{19}{12}$$
$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_Y(y) \, dy = \int_0^1 y \left(\frac{3}{2} - y\right) dy = \left(\frac{3y^2}{4} - \frac{y^3}{3}\right) \Big|_0^1 = \frac{5}{12}$$

Consider the following estimation problem. The joint PDF of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x-y & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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(d) What is the LLSE estimator of X given Y = y?

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[Y^2] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^2 f_Y(y) \, dy = \int_0^1 y^2 \left(\frac{3}{2} - y\right) \, dy = \left(\frac{y^3}{2} - \frac{y^4}{4}\right) \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{4} \\ \mathsf{Var}[Y] &= \mathbb{E}[Y^2] - \left(\mathbb{E}[Y]\right)^2 = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{25}{144} = \frac{11}{144} \\ \mathbb{E}[XY] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xy f_{X,Y}(x,y) \, dy \\ &= \int_1^2 \int_0^1 xy(x-y) \, dy \, dx = \int_1^2 \left(\frac{x^2 y^2}{2} - \frac{xy^3}{3}\right)_0^1 dx \\ &= \int_1^2 \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x}{3}\right) \, dx = \left(\frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{x^2}{6}\right) \Big|_1^2 = \frac{2}{3} \end{split}$$

Consider the following estimation problem. The joint PDF of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x-y & 1 \le x \le 2, \ 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(d) What is the LLSE estimator of X given Y = y?

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Cov}[X,Y] &= \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y] = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{19}{12} \cdot \frac{5}{12} = \frac{1}{144} \\ \hat{x}_{\mathsf{LLSE}}(y) &= \frac{19}{12} + \frac{\frac{144}{144}}{\frac{11}{144}} \left(y - \frac{5}{12}\right) = \frac{y}{11} + \frac{17}{11} \end{aligned}$$

Let Y be a random variable with $\mathbb{E}[Y] = 2$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y^2] = 5$. Let Z be a random variable with $\mathbb{E}[Z] = -1$ and $\mathbb{E}[Z^2] = 3$. Let $\rho_{Y,Z} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and define X = 3Y + Z.

(a) Determine the mean of X.

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[3Y + Z] = 3\mathbb{E}[Y] + \mathbb{E}[Z] = 3 \cdot 2 + (-1) = 5 .$$

(b) Determine the variance of X. We can use the formula $\begin{aligned} & \text{Var}[aY + bZ] = a^2 \operatorname{Var}[Y] + b^2 \operatorname{Var}[Z] + 2ab \operatorname{Cov}[Y, Z]. \\ & \text{Var}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[Y^2] - \left(\mathbb{E}[Y]\right)^2 = 5 - 2^2 = 1 \\ & \text{Var}[Z] = \mathbb{E}[Z^2] - \left(\mathbb{E}[Z]\right)^2 = 3 - (-1)^2 = 2 \\ & \text{Cov}[Y, Z] = \rho_{Y, Z} \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}[Y] \cdot \operatorname{Var}[Z]} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \sqrt{1 \cdot 2} = -1 \\ & \text{Var}[X] = \operatorname{Var}[3Y + Z] = 3^2 \operatorname{Var}[Y] + 1^2 \operatorname{Var}[Z] + 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 \operatorname{Cov}[Y, Z] \\ &= 9 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 2 + 6 \cdot (-1) = 5 . \end{aligned}$

Let Y be a random variable with $\mathbb{E}[Y] = 2$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y^2] = 5$. Let Z be a random variable with $\mathbb{E}[Z] = -1$ and $\mathbb{E}[Z^2] = 3$. Let $\rho_{Y,Z} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and define X = 3Y + Z.

(c) Let X_1, \ldots, X_{500} be i.i.d. random variables with the same distribution as X. Using the Central Limit Theorem approximation, estimate the probability $\mathbb{P}[\left|\frac{1}{500}\sum_{i=1}^{500}X_i - \mathbb{E}[X]\right| > \frac{1}{2}]$. (You may leave your answer in terms of the Φ function.) Let

$$\begin{split} W &= \frac{1}{500} \sum_{i=1}^{500} X_i - \mathbb{E}[X] \text{ and note that } \mathbb{E}[W] = 0 \text{ and} \\ \mathsf{Var}[W] &= \frac{1}{500} \mathsf{Var}[X] = \frac{5}{500} = \frac{1}{100}. \text{ Therefore,} \\ \mathbb{P}[|W| > \frac{1}{2}] &= \mathbb{P}\Big[W > \frac{1}{2}\Big] + \mathbb{P}\Big[W < -\frac{1}{2}\Big] = 1 - F_W\Big(\frac{1}{2}\Big) + F_W\Big(-\frac{1}{2}\Big) \\ &\approx 1 - \Phi\Big(\frac{1/2 - 0}{1/10}\Big) + \Phi\Big(\frac{-1/2 - 0}{1/10}\Big) \\ &= 1 - \Phi(5) + \Phi(-5) = 2\Phi(-5) \end{split}$$

You are trying out a new blood pressure drug with a control group and an experimental group, each of consisting of 400 samples. The variance is believed to be $\sigma_1^2 = 0.40$ in the control group and $\sigma_2^2 = 0.60$ in the experimental group. For the control group, you obtain sample mean $M_{400}^{(1)} = 2.10$ and for the experimental group you obtain sample mean $M_{400}^{(2)} = 2.02$.

(a) What is the variance of the sample mean $Var[M_{400}^{(1)}]$?

$$\mathsf{Var}[M_{400}^{(1)}] = \frac{1}{400}(0.40) = 0.001$$

(b) Do the groups have different means at a significance level of 0.05? Since the variances are known, a two-sample Z-test is appropriate. The Z-statistic is

$$Z = \frac{(M_n^{(1)} - M_n^{(2)})}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n}}} = \frac{20 \cdot (2.10 - 2.02)}{\sqrt{1}} = 20 \cdot 0.08 = 1.6$$

The p-value is $2\Phi(-|Z|) = 2\Phi(-1.6) = 0.1$ which exceeds the significance level 0.05. Thus, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

You are trying out a new blood pressure drug with a control group and an experimental group, each of consisting of 400 samples. The variance is believed to be $\sigma_1^2 = 0.40$ in the control group and $\sigma_2^2 = 0.60$ in the experimental group. For the control group, you obtain sample mean $M_{400}^{(1)} = 2.10$ and for the experimental group you obtain sample mean $M_{400}^{(2)} = 2.02$.

(c) Construct a confidence interval for the mean of the control group with confidence level 0.9. First, select γ such that $Q(\gamma) = \alpha/2 = 0.05 \implies \gamma = 1.6.$

Since the variance is known,

$$\left[M_n^{(1)} \pm \frac{\gamma\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right] = \left[2.10 \pm \frac{1.6 \cdot \sqrt{0.40}}{20}\right]$$

In this problem, you will work through the process of constructing and evaluating an LDA binary classifier by hand. You have been given the following 1-dimensional training and test datasets:

$$\mathbf{X}_{\text{train}} = \begin{bmatrix} +2\\0\\-1\\-3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{Y}_{\text{train}} = \begin{bmatrix} +1\\+1\\-1\\-1\\-1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{X}_{\text{test}} = \begin{bmatrix} +4\\0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{Y}_{\text{test}} = \begin{bmatrix} +1\\-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) Compute the sample means $\hat{\mu}_+$ and $\hat{\mu}_-$ as well as the sample covariance matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$, which in this 1-dimensional setting is just a sample variance (and could be denoted by $\hat{\sigma}^2$ instead if you wish).

$$\hat{\mu}_{+} = \frac{1}{2}(+2+0) = +1 \qquad \hat{\mu}_{-} = \frac{1}{2}(-1-3) = -2$$
$$\hat{\Sigma}_{+} = (2-1)^{2} + (0-1)^{2} = 2$$
$$\hat{\Sigma}_{-} = ((-1) - (-2))^{2} + (-3 - (-2))^{2} = 2$$
$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{4-2}((2-1)\hat{\Sigma}_{+} + (2-1)\hat{\Sigma}_{-}) = 2$$

(b) Work out the LDA classifier. Try to simplify the expression as much as you can. Show your work for full credit.

$$\begin{split} D_{\mathsf{LDA}}(x) &= \begin{cases} +1 & 2(\hat{\mu}_{+} - \hat{\mu}_{-})\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}x \geq \hat{\mu}_{+}\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}\hat{\mu}_{+} - \hat{\mu}_{-}\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}\hat{\mu}_{-} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} +1 & 2(+1 - (-2))\frac{1}{2}x \geq 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 - (-2) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot (-2) \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} +1 & x \geq -\frac{1}{2} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

(c) Calculate the LDA training and test error rates.

$$\underline{Y}_{\mathsf{train},\mathsf{guess}} = \begin{bmatrix} +1\\ +1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \underline{Y}_{\mathsf{test},\mathsf{guess}} = \begin{bmatrix} +1\\ +1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Training Error Rate is 0% and Test Error Rate is 50%.

- (a) Determine the communicating classes. $C_1 = \{1, 5\}$ and $C_2 = \{2, 3, 4\}.$
- (b) Determine which states are transient and which are recurrent. States 1 and 5 are transient and states 2, 3, and 4 are recurrent.
- (c) Determine the period of each state. State 3 has a self-cycle and thus has period 1. All states in its communicating class have the same period so states 2 and 4 have period 1 as well. States 1 and 5 have period 2.



(e) Does the Markov chain have a unique limiting probability state vector <u>π</u>?
 Yes, even though it is not irreducible, it has only a single recurrent

communicating class. This class is aperiodic. Therefore, it has a unique limiting probability state vector where the probabilities of the transient states are set to 0.

(f) Solve for the unique limiting probability state vector $\underline{\pi}$. Since states 1 and 5 are transient, we know that $\pi_1 = \pi_5 = 0$. From the steady-state equation $\mathbf{P}^T \underline{\pi} = \underline{\pi}$, we get

$$\pi_4 = \pi_2$$

 $\pi_2 + \frac{1}{3}\pi_3 = \pi_3 \implies \pi_3 = \frac{3}{2}\pi_2$.

Plugging these into the normalization equation, we get

$$\sum_{j=1}^{5} \pi_j = \pi_2 + \frac{3}{2}\pi_2 + \pi_2 = \frac{7}{2}\pi_2 = 1 \implies \pi_2 = \frac{2}{7}.$$

Substituting back in, we get
$$\pi_4 = \frac{2}{7}$$
 and $\pi_3 = \frac{3}{7}$ so $\underline{\pi} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 2/7\\ 3/7\\ 2/7\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.