

# 1. Linear algebra refresher.

(a) i

Because  $Q$  is orthogonal,  $Q^T = Q^{-1}$ . Also,  $Q^T(Q^T)^T = Q^T Q = I$  (since  $Q$  is orthogonal)  
 So  $Q^{-1}$  and  $Q^T$  are also orthogonal

ii

assume eigenvector is  $V$   
 eigenvalue is  $\lambda$

Then we have  $AV = \lambda V$

$$\text{Then } \|AV\|^2 = \|\lambda V\|^2 = |\lambda|^2 \|V\|^2$$

$$\|AV\|^2 = \overline{(AV)}^T (AV) \text{ by definition of the length}$$

$$= \bar{V}^T A^T A V \text{ because } A \text{ is real}$$

$$= \bar{V}^T V \text{ because } A^T A = I \text{ as } A \text{ is orthogonal}$$

$$= \|V\|^2 \text{ by definition of the length}$$

$$\|V\|^2 = |\lambda|^2 \|V\|^2$$

Since  $V$  is an eigenvector, it is non-zero, and hence  $\|V\| \neq 0$

Canceling  $\|V\|$ , we have  $|\lambda|^2 = 1$ . Since the length is non-negative, we get  $|\lambda| = 1$

iii.

Since  $Q$  is orthogonal,  $QQ^T = I = Q^T Q$  by definition

Using the fact that  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$ , we have

$$\det(I) = 1 = \det(QQ^T) = \det(Q)\det(Q^T) = \det(Q)\det(Q) = [\det(Q)]^2$$

Since we have  $[\det(Q)]^2 = 1$ , then  $\det(Q) = \pm\sqrt{1} = \pm 1$

iv.

Say that  $Q$  is orthogonal. Take arbitrary  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We want to

show  $\|\vec{x}\| = \|Q(\vec{x})\|$ . By definition  $\|\vec{x}\| = (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x})^{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $\|Q(\vec{x})\| = (Q(\vec{x}) \cdot Q(\vec{x}))^{\frac{1}{2}}$

Since  $Q$  is orthogonal, we know that  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = Q(\vec{x}) \cdot Q(\vec{x})$ , so the results show that  $Q$  defines a length preserving transformation

(b) Assume we have  $n$  eigenvalues  $[\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n]$ , the corresponding eigenvectors  $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ . Then we have

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \quad W = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

Since  $Ax = \lambda x$ , we have  $AW = W\Sigma \Rightarrow A = W\Sigma W^{-1}$

Since  $\|x\|_2^2 = 1$ , then  $W^T = W^{-1}$ ,  $A = W\Sigma W^T$

Since  $A$ 's SVD decomposition is  $A = UDV^T = U \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} V^T$

Thus,  $A = VD^T U^T = V[\Sigma \quad 0] V^T$

Then  $A^T A = VD^T U^T U D V^T$

Since  $U$  is orthogonal:  $A^T A = VD^T D V^T = V\Sigma^2 V^T$

Thus,  $A$ 's right singular vector  $V$  is  $A^T A$ 's eigenvector.

and  $A^T A$ 's eigenvalue is the <sup>the  $W$  built by</sup> square of the singular value of  $A$

Same  $\therefore AA^T = UDV^T VD^T U^T = UDD^T U^T = U\Sigma^2 U^T$

Thus,  $A$ 's left singular vector is the  $U$  built by  $AA^T$ 's eigenvector

and  $AA^T$ 's eigenvalue is the square of the singular value of  $A$

(c) i. False. At most  $n$  distinct eigenvalues

ii. False. If  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are eigenvectors of  $A$  corresponding to eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  respectively, then the sum  $v_1 + v_2$

is not guaranteed to be an eigenvector.

In fact, unless  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are scalar multiples of each other (i.e.  $v_1 = \lambda v_2$ ),  $v_1 + v_2$  will not satisfy the eigenvector equation  $Av = \lambda v$  for any single eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

iii. Correct

iv. Correct

v. Correct



2. (a) since  $n=1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$  where  $n$  denotes the round in which the duel ends, partitions the sample space so by law of total probability.

$$i. P(A \text{ not hit}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A \text{ not hit}, n)$$

Now, if duel ends in  $n$  rounds and  $A$  isn't hit, then  $\frac{BM}{1} \frac{BM}{2} \frac{BM}{3} \frac{BM}{4} \dots \frac{BM}{n-1} \frac{A}{n}$

$$\text{So, } P(A \text{ not hit}, n) = (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^{n-1} P_A (1-P_B) \\ = P_A (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^n$$

$$\text{So } P(A \text{ not hit}) = P_A \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^n \\ = P_A \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^n$$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^n$  is the sum of a geometric series with  $a = 1-P_B$ ,  $r = (1-P_A)(1-P_B)$

$$\text{So, } P(A \text{ not hit}) = \frac{P_A (1-P_B)}{1 - (1-P_A)(1-P_B)}$$

$$ii. P(\text{both duelists are hit}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^{n-1} P_A P_B \\ = P_A P_B \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^{n-1} \\ = \frac{P_A P_B}{1 - (1-P_A)(1-P_B)}$$

iii. Since duel can end after  $n$ th round of shots in 3 possible ways: (1) A hit (2) B hit

Then, by law of total probability (3) Both hit

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{duel ends after } n\text{th round}) \\ = (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^{n-1} (1-P_A)P_B + (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^{n-1} P_A(1-P_B) \\ + (1-P_A)^{n-1} (1-P_B)^{n-1} P_A P_B \end{aligned}$$

$$= [(1-P_A)(1-P_B)]^{n-1} [1 - (1-P_A)(1-P_B)]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{iv. } P(\text{Duel ends after } n^{\text{th}} \text{ round} \mid A \text{ is not hit}) &= \frac{P(\text{Duel ends after } n^{\text{th}} \text{ round} \cap A \text{ is not hit})}{P(A \text{ is not hit})} \\
 &= \frac{[(1-P_A)(1-P_B)]^{n-1} [(1-P_B)P_A]}{[(1-P_B) \cdot P_A / 1 - (1-P_B)(1-P_A)]} \\
 &= \frac{[(1-P_A)(1-P_B)]^{n-1}}{\frac{1}{1 - (1-P_B)(1-P_A)}} = [(1-P_A)(1-P_B)]^{n-1} [1 - (1-P_A)(1-P_B)]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{v. } P(\text{end in the } n\text{-th} \mid \text{both are shot}) = \frac{P(\text{end in the } n\text{-th, both are shot})}{P(\text{both are shot})}$$

$$\text{From iv, we get } P(\text{both are shot}) = \frac{P_A P_B}{P_A + P_B - P_A P_B}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{end in } n\text{-th} \mid \text{both hit}) &= \frac{[(1-P_A)(1-P_B)]^{n-1} P_A P_B}{\frac{P_A P_B}{P_A + P_B - P_A P_B}} \\
 &= [(1-P_A)(1-P_B)]^{n-1} \cdot (P_A + P_B - P_A P_B)
 \end{aligned}$$



2(b)

suppose we define  $X_i$  as the bernoulli random variable

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{the } i\text{th faculty is isolated} \\ 0, & \text{the } i\text{th faculty is not isolated} \end{cases}$$

Then  $X = \sum_{i=1}^{18} X_i$

Now,  $E[X_i] = P(X_i = 1)$

$P(X_i = 1) = P(\text{ith faculty is isolated})$

Define  $E$ : ith faculty is ECE

$C$ : ith faculty is CSE

$M$ : ith faculty is Math

Since  $E, C, M$  partitions the sample space so by law of total probability,

$P(\text{ith faculty is isolated})$

$$= P(i|E)P(E) + P(i|C)P(C) + P(i|M)P(M)$$

$$= \left(\frac{12}{17}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{11}{16}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3 = \frac{33}{68}$$

Hence by linearity of expectations

$$E[X] = 18E[X_i] = 18 \cdot \frac{33}{68} = 8.735$$

it. Define  $Y_i$  as the Bernoulli random variable

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{ith faculty is semi-happy} \\ 0, & \text{ith faculty is not semi-happy} \end{cases}$$

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{15} Y_i \quad \text{Now, } E[Y_i] = P(Y_i=1)$$

$$P(Y_i=1) = P(i\text{th faculty is semi-happy})$$

~~See the~~ Use the same event defined: E, C, M

$$P(i\text{th faculty is semi-happy}) \\ = P(i|E)P(E) + P(i|C)P(C) + P(i|M)P(M)$$

$$= \left[ \frac{12}{17} \cdot \frac{5}{16} + \frac{5}{17} \cdot \frac{12}{16} \right] \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3 = \frac{30}{68}$$

By linearity of expectations

$$E[Y] = 15E[Y_i] = 18 \cdot \frac{30}{68} = 7.941$$

ii. Define  $Z_i$  as the Bernoulli random variable

$$Z_i = \begin{cases} 1, & i\text{th faculty is joyous} \\ 0, & i\text{th faculty is not joyous} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Then } Z = \sum_{i=1}^{15} Z_i \quad E[Z_i] = P(Z_i=1)$$

$$P(Z_i=1) = P(i\text{th faculty is joyous})$$

Use the same event defined before: E, C, M

$$P(i\text{th faculty is joyous}) = P(i|E)P(E) + P(i|C)P(C) + P(i|M)P(M)$$

$$= \left[ \frac{5}{17} \cdot \frac{4}{16} \right] \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3 = \frac{5}{68}$$

$$E[Z] = 15E[Z_i] = 18 \times \frac{5}{68} = 1.324$$



2. (c) Let's define the following events:

D: man has a dangerous type of the disease

T: man has a positive LSA test

From the problem statement, we are given the following quantities

$$P(T|D) = 0.9 \quad P(T|D^c) = 0.01 \quad P(D) = 0.0005$$

i. By Bayes law

$$\begin{aligned} P(D|T) &= \frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T|D)P(D) + P(T|D^c)P(D^c)} \\ &= \frac{0.9 \times 0.0005}{0.9 \times 0.0005 + 0.01 \times 0.9995} = 0.043 \end{aligned}$$

ii. By Bayes Law,

$$\begin{aligned} P(D|T^c) &= \frac{P(T^c|D)P(D)}{P(T^c|D)P(D) + P(T^c|D^c)P(D^c)} = \frac{0.1 \times 0.0005}{0.1 \times 0.0005 + 0.99 \times 0.9995} \\ &= 0.000050528 \end{aligned}$$

(d)  $E(x)$  is the expected value of vector  $x$ .  $E(Ax+b)$  is the expectation of the vector  $Ax+b$  where we have known the dimension of  $x$  is  $n$ . Then  $A$  and  $b$  are deterministic and the dimension of  $A$  is  $m \times n$ , and the dimension of  $b$  is  $m$ .

Using the linearity of expectation to break down the calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} E(Ax+b) &= E([Ax_1+b, Ax_2+b, \dots, Ax_n+b]^T) \\ &= [E(Ax_1+b), E(Ax_2+b), \dots, E(Ax_n+b)]^T \end{aligned}$$

if  $A$  and  $b$  are deterministic, we can pull them out of the expectation:

$$E(Ax+b) = A[E(x_1), E(x_2), \dots, E(x_n)]^T + b$$

Since  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are identically distributed random variables, their expectations are the same. Let's denote this common expectation as  $\mu$ .

$$\begin{aligned} E(Ax+b) &= A[E(x_1), E(x_2), \dots, E(x_n)]^T + b = A[\mu, \mu, \dots, \mu]^T + b \\ &= A\mu + b \end{aligned}$$

(e)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(Ax+b) &= E((Ax+b - E(Ax+b))(Ax+b - E(Ax+b))^T) \\ &= E((Ax+b - AEx - b)(Ax+b - AEx - b)^T) \\ &= E((Ax - AEx)(Ax - AEx)^T) \end{aligned}$$

if  $A$  is a deterministic matrix and  $E(x)$  is a constant vector, we can further simplify:

$$\text{cov}(Ax+b) = E(A(x - E(x))(x - E(x))^T A^T)$$

Using the properties of covariance, we can rewrite the expression as:

$$\text{cov}(Ax+b) = A \text{cov}(x) A^T$$



$$3. (a) \nabla_x x^T A y = A y$$

$$(b) \nabla_y x^T A y = \nabla_y (A y)^T x = \nabla_y y^T A^T x = A^T x$$

$$(c) \nabla_A x^T A y = x y^T$$

$$(d) f = x^T A x + b^T x, \nabla_x f = \nabla_x x^T A x + \nabla_x b^T x = A x + A^T x + b$$

$$(e) f = \text{tr}(AB) \quad \nabla_A f = B^T$$

$$(f) f = \text{tr}(BA + A^T B + A^T B)$$

$$\nabla_A f = \nabla_A [\text{tr}(BA) + \text{tr}(A^T B) + \text{tr}(A^T B)]$$

$$= \nabla_A [\text{tr}(BA) + \text{tr}(A^T B) + \text{tr}(A A B)]$$

$$= \nabla_A [\text{tr}(BA) + \text{tr}(A^T B) + \text{tr}(B A I A)] \quad I \text{ is the identity matrix } \text{tr}(A X B X) = \text{tr}(A' X' B' X A')$$

$$= B^T + B + B^T A^T + A^T B^T$$

$$= A' X' B' + B X A'$$

$$(g) f = \|A + \lambda B\|^2$$

$$\nabla_A f = \nabla_A \text{tr}[(A + \lambda B)(A + \lambda B)^T]$$

$$= \nabla_A \text{tr}[(A + \lambda B)(A + \lambda B)^T]$$

$$= \nabla_A \text{tr}[(A + \lambda B)(A^T + \lambda B^T)]$$

$$= \nabla_A \text{tr}[A A^T + \lambda A B^T + \lambda B A^T + \lambda^2 B B^T]$$

$$= 2A + \lambda B + \lambda B^T$$

4.

To find the optimal  $W$ , we take the derivative of the loss function

$$L(W) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \|y^{(i)} - W x^{(i)}\|^2$$

with respect to  $W$  and set the derivative to zero

Expand the loss function  $L(W)$ .

$$L(W) = \frac{1}{2} (y - Wx)^T (y - Wx) = \frac{1}{2} (y^T - x^T W^T) (y - Wx)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (y^T y - y^T Wx - x^T W^T y + x^T W^T Wx)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (y^T y - y^T Wx - x^T W^T y + x^T W^T Wx)$$

Take the derivative of the above formula with respect to  $W$  and make the derivative zero.

$$\frac{\partial L(W)}{\partial W} = \frac{1}{2} [0 - y x^T - y x^T + W(x x^T + x x^T)] = \frac{1}{2} (-2 y x^T$$

$$+ 2 W x x^T) = -y x^T + W x x^T = 0$$

$$\text{Then } W x x^T = y x^T$$



Now we can find the optimal parameter  $W$  by solving the above equation

A common method for solving equations is to use Normal Equations:

$$W = YX^T(XX^T)^{-1}$$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N [y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)}]^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^M \theta_j^2$$

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = - \sum_{i=1}^N (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)}) x^{(i)} + \lambda \theta$$

$$0 = - \sum_{i=1}^N (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)}) x^{(i)} + \lambda \theta$$

Matrix form:

$$-(X^T Y) + X^T X \theta + \lambda \theta = 0$$

$$-X^T Y + X^T X \theta + \lambda \theta = 0$$

$$X^T Y = X^T X \theta + \lambda \theta$$

$$\theta = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T Y$$