

Instructions:

- This assignment is meant to help you understand certain concepts we will use in the course.

1. Simple Derivatives

- (a) Find the derivative of the sigmoid function with respect to x where the sigmoid function $\sigma(x)$ is given by,

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

Solution: The derivative of the sigmoid function is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma'(x) &= \frac{d\sigma(x)}{dx} \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} (1 + e^{-x})^{-1} \\ &= -(1 + e^{-x})^{-2} \frac{d}{dx} (1 + e^{-x}) \\ &= -(1 + e^{-x})^{-2} (-e^{-x})\end{aligned}$$

We can simplify the above answer as follows :

$$\begin{aligned}-(1 + e^{-x})^{-2} (-e^{-x}) &= \frac{e^{-x}}{(1 + e^{-x})^2} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \left(\frac{e^{-x}}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \left(\frac{1 - 1 + e^{-x}}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \right) \\ &= \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the derivative of the sigmoid function is :

$$\sigma'(x) = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

(b) Given two gaussian functions

$$y = \mathcal{N}(0, 1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

and

$$\hat{y} = \mathcal{N}(1, 1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}}$$

we define,

$$\mathcal{L} = (y - \hat{y})^2$$

Find $\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dx}$ at $x = 1$.

Solution: Given,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= (y - \hat{y})^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

The derivative of \mathcal{L} w.r.t x is given by $\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dx} = \mathcal{L}'$, which can be found as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}' &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d}{dx} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{2}{2\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \frac{d}{dx} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \left(\frac{d}{dx} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \right) - \frac{d}{dx} \left(e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \frac{d}{dx} \left(-\frac{x^2}{2} \right) - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \frac{d}{dx} \left(-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} (-x) - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} (-(x-1)) \right) \\ &= \frac{-1}{\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \left(x e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - (x-1) e^{-\frac{(x-1)^2}{2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

By substituting $x = 1$, we get :

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dx} \right|_{x=1} &= \frac{-1}{\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}} - e^{-\frac{(1-1)^2}{2}} \right) \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}} - (1-1) e^{-\frac{(1-1)^2}{2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{-1}{\pi} \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right) \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

(c) Find the derivative of $f(\rho)$ with respect to ρ where $f(\rho)$ is given by,

$$f(\rho) = \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}}$$

(Hint : You can treat $\hat{\rho}$ as a constant.)

Solution: The derivative of $f(\rho)$ with respect to ρ can be found as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(\rho) &= \frac{d}{d\rho}(f(\rho)) \\
 &= \frac{d}{d\rho} \left(\rho \log\left(\frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}}\right) + (1 - \rho) \log\left(\frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}}\right) \right) \\
 &= \frac{d}{d\rho} \left(\rho \log(\rho) - \rho \log(\hat{\rho}) + (1 - \rho) \log(1 - \rho) - (1 - \rho) \log(1 - \hat{\rho}) \right) \\
 &= \frac{d}{d\rho}(\rho \log(\rho)) - \frac{d}{d\rho}(\rho \log(\hat{\rho})) + \frac{d}{d\rho}((1 - \rho) \log(1 - \rho)) - \frac{d}{d\rho}((1 - \rho) \log(1 - \hat{\rho}))
 \end{aligned}$$

Treating $\hat{\rho}$ as a constant and using product rule of derivatives, we get,

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(\rho) &= \left(\rho \cdot \frac{1}{\rho} + \log(\rho)(1) \right) - \log(\hat{\rho})(1) + \left((1 - \rho) \cdot \frac{-1}{(1 - \rho)} + \log(1 - \rho)(-1) \right) - \log(1 - \hat{\rho})(-1) \\
 &= 1 + \log(\rho) - \log(\hat{\rho}) - 1 - \log(1 - \rho) + \log(1 - \hat{\rho}) \\
 &= \log\left(\frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}}\right) - \log\left(\frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}}\right) \\
 &= \log\left(\frac{\rho(1 - \hat{\rho})}{\hat{\rho}(1 - \rho)}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

2. Chain Rule

Using the chain rule of derivatives, find the derivative of $f(x)$ with respect to x where

(a) $f(x) = x \log(3^x)$

Solution: Let,

$$\begin{aligned}
 z &= 3^x \\
 \therefore \frac{dz}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} 3^x = 3^x \log 3
 \end{aligned}$$

Also let,

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= \log(z) \\
 \therefore \frac{dy}{dz} &= \frac{d}{dz} \log z = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{3^x}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can write $f(x)$ in terms of y which itself can be written in terms of z , i.e. ,

$$f(x) = xy$$

The derivative of $f(x)$ can be found as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}(f(x)) \\
 &= \frac{d}{dx}(xy) \\
 &= x \frac{dy}{dx} + y \frac{d}{dx}x && \text{(By Product Rule)} \\
 &= x \frac{dy}{dz} \frac{dz}{dx} + y && \text{(By Chain Rule)} \\
 &= x \frac{1}{3^x} 3^x \log 3 + \log 3^x \\
 &= x \log 3 + \log 3^x \\
 &= \log 3^x + \log 3^x \\
 &= 2 \log 3^x
 \end{aligned}$$

- (b) $f(x) = \sigma(w_1(\sigma(w_0x + b_0)) + b_1)$,
 where w_1, w_0, b_0, b_1 are constants and $\sigma(x)$ is the sigmoid function defined in Q1(a).

Solution: Using change of variables we can write $f(x)$ as:

$$f(x) = \sigma(w_1(\underbrace{\underbrace{\sigma(w_0x + b_0)}_{=z}}_{=y}))$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned}
 z &= w_0x + b_0 \\
 \therefore \frac{dz}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx}(w_0x + b_0) = w_0
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= w_1(\sigma(z)) + b_1 \\
 \therefore \frac{dy}{dz} &= w_1 \frac{d\sigma(z)}{dz} = w_1 \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z))
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can write $f(x)$ in terms of y which itself can be written in terms of z , i.e. ,

$$f(x) = \sigma(y)$$

The derivative of $f(x)$ can be found as given below. Also, recall from Q1(a), the derivative of $\sigma(x)$ w.r.t x is given by $\sigma'(x) = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= \sigma(y) \\
 f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}\sigma(y) \\
 &= \frac{d}{dy}\sigma(y)\frac{dy}{dx} && \text{(By Chain rule)} \\
 &= \sigma(y)(1 - \sigma(y))\frac{dy}{dz}\frac{dz}{dx} && \text{(By Chain rule)} \\
 &= \sigma(y)(1 - \sigma(y))w_1\sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z))w_0
 \end{aligned}$$

3. Taylor Series

(a) Consider $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$. Write down the Taylor series expansion of $f(x)$.

Solution: A function $f(x)$ can be expanded around a given point x by the Taylor Series :

$$f(x + \delta x) = f(x) + f'(x)(\delta x) + \frac{f''(x)}{2!}(\delta x)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}(\delta x)^n + \dots$$

where δx is very small, $f'(x)$ is the first derivative of $f(x)$ with respect to x and $f^{(n)}(x)$ is the n^{th} derivative of $f(x)$ with respect to x .

(b) Consider $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$. Write down the Taylor series expansion of $f(\mathbf{x})$.

Solution: A function $f(\mathbf{x})$ where \mathbf{x} is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , can be expanded by the Taylor series as follows:

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \delta \mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}f(\mathbf{x})\delta \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2!}\delta \mathbf{x}^T \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 f(\mathbf{x})\delta \mathbf{x} + \dots$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \delta \mathbf{x} &= [\delta x_1, \dots, \delta x_n]^T \\
 \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}f(\mathbf{x}) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 f(\mathbf{x}) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

4. Softmax Function

- (a) How is the softmax function defined ?

Solution: Softmax function squashes a K -dimensional vector \mathbf{v} of arbitrary real values to a K -dimensional vector $\mathbf{softmax}(\mathbf{v})$ of real values, where each entry is in the range $(0, 1)$, and all the entries add up to 1.

The softmax function is defined as:

$$softmax(v)_j = \frac{e^{v_j}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{v_k}} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, K$$

For example :

Let $\mathbf{v} = [2.1 \ 4.8 \ 3.5]$, then the softmax of it will be:

$$\begin{aligned} softmax(v)_1 &= \frac{e^{v_1}}{\sum_{k=1}^3 e^{v_k}}, \text{ note that here } K = 3 \\ &= \frac{e^{2.1}}{e^{2.1} + e^{4.8} + e^{3.5}} = 0.0502 \\ softmax(v)_2 &= \frac{e^{v_2}}{\sum_{k=1}^3 e^{v_k}} \\ &= \frac{e^{4.8}}{e^{2.1} + e^{4.8} + e^{3.5}} = 0.7464 \\ softmax(v)_3 &= \frac{e^{v_3}}{\sum_{k=1}^3 e^{v_k}} \\ &= \frac{e^{3.5}}{e^{2.1} + e^{4.8} + e^{3.5}} = 0.2034 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $softmax(\mathbf{v}) = [0.0502 \ 0.7464 \ 0.2034]$

- (b) Can you think of any concept which is similar to what the softmax function computes? (Hint : You probably learnt it in high school)

Solution: The output of the softmax function can be used to represent the probability distribution over K components of the input vector.

5. Matrix Multiplication

- (a) What are the four ways of multiplying two matrices ?

Solution:

1. The most common way of finding the product of two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} is to compute the ij -th element of the resultant product matrix \mathbf{C} using the

i^{th} row of \mathbf{A} and j^{th} column of \mathbf{B} . For example, suppose matrix \mathbf{A} is of size $m \times n$ with elements a_{ij} and a matrix \mathbf{B} of size $n \times p$ with elements b_{jk} , then multiplying matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} will produce matrix \mathbf{C} of size $m \times p$. The ij -th element of this matrix will be computed as,

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}$$

- The second way is to realise that the columns of \mathbf{C} are the linear combinations of columns of \mathbf{A} . To get the i^{th} column of \mathbf{C} , multiply the whole matrix \mathbf{A} with the i^{th} column of \mathbf{B} . (Remember that a matrix times column is a column.)

Example: Let \mathbf{A} be a 3×2 matrix and \mathbf{B} be a 2×3 matrix. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C} &= \mathbf{AB} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \left[\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \end{bmatrix}}_{1^{\text{st}} \text{ column of } \mathbf{C}} \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \end{bmatrix}}_{2^{\text{nd}} \text{ column of } \mathbf{C}} \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{13} \\ b_{23} \end{bmatrix}}_{3^{\text{rd}} \text{ column of } \mathbf{C}} \right] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} & a_{11}b_{13} + a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & a_{21}b_{13} + a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} & a_{31}b_{13} + a_{32}b_{23} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- The third way is to realise that the rows of \mathbf{C} are the linear combinations of rows of \mathbf{B} . To get the i^{th} row of \mathbf{C} , multiply the i^{th} row of \mathbf{A} with the whole matrix \mathbf{B} . (Remember that a row times matrix is a row.)

Example: Let \mathbf{A} be a 3×2 matrix and \mathbf{B} be a 2×3 matrix.

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_{11} & a_{12} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_{31} & a_{32} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{array} \right] \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1^{st} \text{ row of } \mathbf{C} \\ 2^{nd} \text{ row of } \mathbf{C} \\ 3^{rd} \text{ row of } \mathbf{C} \end{matrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} & a_{11}b_{13} + a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & a_{21}b_{13} + a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} & a_{31}b_{13} + a_{32}b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

4. The fourth way is to look at the product of \mathbf{AB} as a sum of (columns of \mathbf{A}) times (rows of \mathbf{B}).

Example: Let \mathbf{A} be a 3×2 matrix and \mathbf{B} be a 2×3 matrix. Then,

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \end{bmatrix}}_{1^{st} \text{ column of } \mathbf{A}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \end{bmatrix}}_{1^{st} \text{ row of } \mathbf{B}} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ a_{32} \end{bmatrix}}_{2^{nd} \text{ column of } \mathbf{A}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{bmatrix}}_{2^{nd} \text{ row of } \mathbf{B}}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{11}b_{12} & a_{11}b_{13} \\ a_{21}b_{11} & a_{21}b_{12} & a_{21}b_{13} \\ a_{31}b_{11} & a_{31}b_{12} & a_{31}b_{13} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} a_{12}b_{21} & a_{12}b_{22} & a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{22}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{22} & a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{32}b_{21} & a_{32}b_{22} & a_{32}b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} & a_{11}b_{13} + a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & a_{21}b_{13} + a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} & a_{31}b_{13} + a_{32}b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

- (b) Consider a matrix \mathbf{A} of size $m \times n$ and a vector \mathbf{x} of size n . What is the result of

the matrix-vector multiplication \mathbf{Ax} . Is it a vector or a matrix? What are the dimensions of the product.

Solution: It will be a vector of size m .

- (c) Consider two vectors \mathbf{x} and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. What is \mathbf{xy}^T ? Is it a matrix of size $n \times n$, a vector of size n or a scalar?

Solution: It will be a matrix of size $n \times n$.

6. L2-norm

- (a) What is meant by L2-norm of a vector?

Solution: L2 norm of a vector $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ is defined as the square root of the sum of squares of the absolute values of the vector components and is written as,

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^2}$$

- (b) Given a vector $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, find it's L2-norm, i.e. $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2$.

Solution: $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2}$

- (c) Given a vector $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, find it's L2-norm, i.e $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2$.

Solution: $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2}$

7. Euclidean Distance

Consider two vectors \mathbf{x} and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. How would you compute the Euclidean distance between the two vectors ?

Solution: Let, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$ be the two vectors. The Euclidean distance,

d , between the two vectors can then be calculated as:

$$d = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

8. Consider two vectors \mathbf{x} and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. How do you compute the dot product between the two vectors? Is it a matrix of size $n \times n$, a vector of size n or a scalar?

Solution: Let, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$ be the two vectors. Then, the dot product between them is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \end{aligned}$$

9. Consider two vectors \mathbf{x} and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. How do you compute the cosine of the angle between the two vectors?

Solution: Let, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$ be the two vectors and θ be the angle between them. Then, the cosine of the angle between the two vectors is given by:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|}$$

10. Basic Geometry

- (a) What is the equation of a line?

Solution: The equation of line can be written as:

$$y = mx + b$$

Note that it also can be re-written as:

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = b$$

where, $x_1 = x, x_2 = y, a_1 = -m, a_2 = 1$

(b) What is the equation of a plane in 3 dimensions (assume the axes are x_1, x_2, x_3)?

Solution: The equation of a plane in 3 dimensions is:

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 = b$$

where, x_1, x_2, x_3 are the axes and a_1, a_2, a_3, b are the coefficients.

(c) What is the equation of a plane in n dimensions (assume the axes are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)?

Solution: The equation of a plane in n dimensions is :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i = b$$

where, x_i are the axes and a_i, b are the coefficients.

11. **Basis** Consider a set of vectors $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. When do you say that these vectors form a basis in \mathbb{R}^n ?

Solution: A set of vectors $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ forms a basis in \mathbb{R}^n if and only if following conditions are satisfied:

1. v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n are linearly independent vectors
2. S spans \mathbb{R}^n i.e. every vector in \mathbb{R}^n can be represented as a linear combination of vectors in S .

For example, if $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then we can write,

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_nv_n$$

where $v_i \in S$ form the basis of \mathbb{R}^n and c_i are co-efficients, $\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

For example :

The unit basis vectors for \mathbb{R}^3 are $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Note that you can represent any vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ as the linear combination of these three basis vectors.

12. Orthogonal Vectors

(a) When are two vectors \mathbf{u} and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ said to be orthogonal ?

Solution: Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are said to be orthogonal vectors when their dot-product is zero i.e. $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = 0$.

(b) Are the following vectors orthogonal to each other?

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution: From part (a) of this question, we know that two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are said to be orthogonal if their dot product is zero. Therefore, to check whether $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ and \mathbf{v}_3 are orthogonal, we have to find the dot product between them. We do this by taking two vectors at a time.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 &= \mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{v}_2 \\ &= [1 \ 0 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 &= \mathbf{v}_2^T \mathbf{v}_3 \\ &= [0 \ 1 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 &= \mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{v}_3 \\ &= [1 \ 0 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

As we can see, we can take any subset of the above 3 vectors and compute the dot product and the result will be zero. Therefore, $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ and \mathbf{v}_3 are orthogonal to each other.

13. Consider two vectors a and $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. What is the vector projection of b onto a ?

Solution: The vector projection of b onto a will have the same direction as vector a but it will be either a scaled up or down version of a depending on the vector b . The vector projection of b onto a is given by,

$$\left(\frac{a \cdot b}{\|a\|^2} \right) \cdot a = \left(\frac{a^T b}{\|a\|^2} \right) \cdot a$$

14. Consider a matrix A and a vector x . We say that x is an eigen vector of A if _____ ?

Solution: x is an eigenvector of A if $Ax = \lambda x$ where λ is a scalar and is called the corresponding eigenvalue.

15. Consider a set of vectors $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$? We say that x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n form an orthonormal basis in \mathbb{R}^n if _____ ?

Solution: $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ form an orthonormal basis in \mathbb{R}^n if $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ are orthogonal to each other and have unit length.

16. Consider a set of vectors $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We say that x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are linearly independent if _____ ?

Solution: We say that x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are linearly independent if any vector in the set cannot be written as a linear combination of the remaining vectors in the set. On the other hand, a vector x_i is said to be linearly dependent on vectors x_1 to x_n if it can be written as a linear combination of these vectors as :

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_{i-1} x_{i-1} + c_{i+1} x_{i+1} + \dots + c_n x_n &= x_i \\ \implies c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_{i-1} x_{i-1} + c_{i+1} x_{i+1} + \dots + c_n x_n + (-1)x_i &= 0 \\ \implies \sum_{k=1}^n c_k x_k &= 0, \text{ where } c_i = -1 \end{aligned}$$

But for a set of linearly independent vectors no vector in the set can be written as a linear combination of the remaining vectors in the set. An alternate way of saying this is that, a set of vectors is linearly independent if the only solution to the equation

$$\sum_{k=1}^n c_k x_k = 0, \text{ is, } c_k = 0 \forall k = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

17. Consider a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. The product $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ can be written as $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \text{---} ?$

Solution: $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n x_i A_{ji} x_j$

18. KL Divergence

- (a) Consider a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} which can take one of k values from the set $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$. A distribution over X defines the value of $Pr(\mathbf{X} = x) \forall x \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Consider two such distributions \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} . How do you compute the KL divergence between \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} .

Solution: The KL Divergence between two distributions P and Q can be calculated as :

$$\begin{aligned} D_{KL}(P||Q) &= - \sum_x P(x) \log \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} \\ &= \sum_x P(x) \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P} \left[\log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

For example,

Consider a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} which can take one of 3 values from the set $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$. A distribution over X defines the value of $Pr(\mathbf{X} = x) \forall x \in \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$. Consider two such distributions \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} which are defined as follows:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \underbrace{0}_{\Pr(X = x_1)} & \underbrace{1}_{\Pr(X = x_2)} & \underbrace{0}_{\Pr(X = x_3)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \underbrace{0.228}_{\Pr(X = x_1)} & \underbrace{0.619}_{\Pr(X = x_2)} & \underbrace{0.153}_{\Pr(X = x_1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, the KL divergence between P and Q can be calculated as:

$$\begin{aligned} D_{KL}(P||Q) &= (0.0 * \log\left(\frac{0}{0.228}\right) + 1.0 * \log\left(\frac{1}{0.619}\right) + 0.0 * \log\left(\frac{0}{0.153}\right)) \\ &= 0.691 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Is KL Divergence symmetric?

Solution: KL divergence is not symmetric as $D_{KL}(P||Q) \neq D_{KL}(Q||P)$, which can be shown as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} D_{KL}(Q||P) &= - \sum_x Q(x) \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \\ &= \sum_x Q(x) \log \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{X \sim Q} \left[\log \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} \right] \\ &\neq D_{KL}(P||Q) \end{aligned}$$

19. Cross Entropy

Given two distributions P and Q defined over a discrete random variable X , how do you compute the cross entropy between the two distributions?

Solution: The cross entropy between two distributions P and Q is given by,

$$H(P, Q) = - \sum_x P(x) \log Q(x)$$

For example,

Consider a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} which can take one of 3 values from the set $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$. A distribution over X defines the value of $Pr(\mathbf{X} = x) \forall x \in \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$.

Consider two such distributions \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} which are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \begin{bmatrix} \underbrace{0}_{Pr(X=x_1)} & \underbrace{1}_{Pr(X=x_2)} & \underbrace{0}_{Pr(X=x_3)} \end{bmatrix} \\ Q &= \begin{bmatrix} \underbrace{0.228}_{Pr(X=x_1)} & \underbrace{0.619}_{Pr(X=x_2)} & \underbrace{0.153}_{Pr(X=x_1)} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Then, the cross-entropy between P and Q can be calculated as:

$$\begin{aligned} H(P, Q) &= -(0.0 * \log(0.228) + 1.0 * \log(0.619) + 0.0 * \log(0.153)) \\ &= 0.691 \end{aligned}$$