

# EECS 16B    Designing Information Devices and Systems II

## Fall 2021    Discussion Worksheet    Discussion 11B

The following notes are useful for this discussion: [Note 19](#).

### 1. Linear Approximation

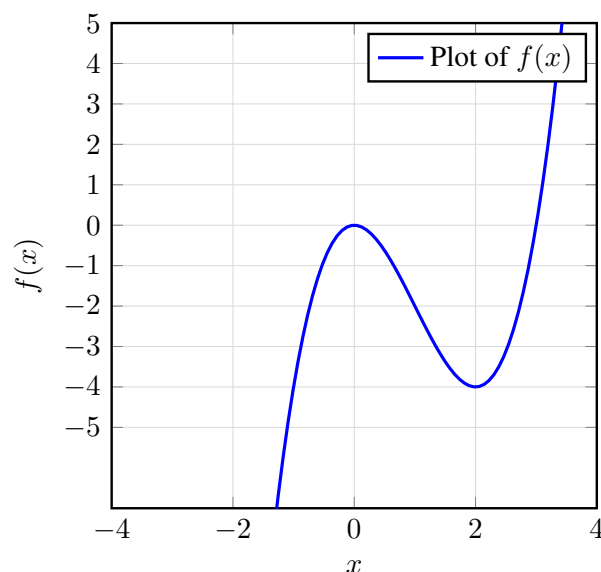
A common way to approximate a nonlinear function is to perform linearization near a point. In the case of a one-dimensional function  $f(x)$ , the linear approximation of  $f(x)$  at a point  $x_*$  is given by

$$f(x) \approx f(x_*) + f'(x_*) \cdot (x - x_*), \quad (1)$$

where  $f'(x_*) := \frac{df}{dx}(x_*)$  is the derivative of  $f(x)$  at  $x = x_*$ .

Keep in mind that wherever we see  $x_*$ , this denotes a *constant value* or operating point.

- (a) Suppose we have the single-variable function  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2$ . We can plot the function  $f(x)$  as follows:



- i. Write the linear approximation of the function around an arbitrary point  $x_*$ .

**Solution:**

$$f(x) \approx f(x_*) + f'(x_*) \cdot (x - x_*) \quad (2)$$

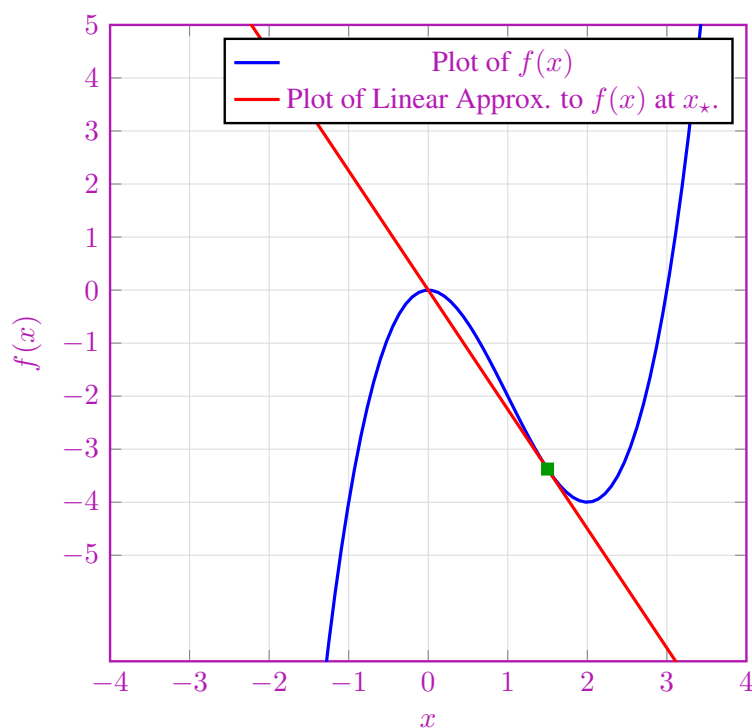
$$= f(x_*) + (3x_*^2 - 6x_*) \cdot (x - x_*) \quad (3)$$

- ii. Using the expression above, linearize the function around the point  $x = 1.5$ . Draw the linearization into the plot of part i).

**Solution:**

$$f(x) \approx f(1.5) + (3 \cdot 1.5^2 - 6 \cdot 1.5) \cdot (x - 1.5) \quad (4)$$

$$\approx -3.375 + (-2.25) \cdot (x - 1.5) \quad (5)$$



Now that we have this specific point's linearization, we understand how the function behaves around the point. Let's use this linearization to evaluate the function's approximation at  $x = 1.7$  (based on our approximation at  $x = 1.5$ , we want to see how a  $\delta = +0.2$  shift in the  $x$  value changes the corresponding  $f(x)$  value). How does this approximation compare to the exact value of the function at  $x = 1.7$ ?

$$f(1.7) \approx -3.375 + (-2.25) \cdot (1.7 - 1.5) \quad (6)$$

$$\approx -3.375 - 0.45 \quad (7)$$

$$\approx -3.825 \quad (8)$$

Comparing to the exact value  $f(1.7) = 1.7^3 - 3 \cdot 1.7^2 = -3.757$ , we find that the difference is 0.068. Not too bad! What if we repeat with  $\delta = 1$ ? To do so, we must use the approximation around  $x = 1.5$  to compute  $x = 2.5$ , and compare to the exact value  $f(2.5)$ . How does our new approximation compare to the exact result?

$$f(2.5) \approx -3.375 + (-2.25) \cdot (2.5 - 1.5) \quad (9)$$

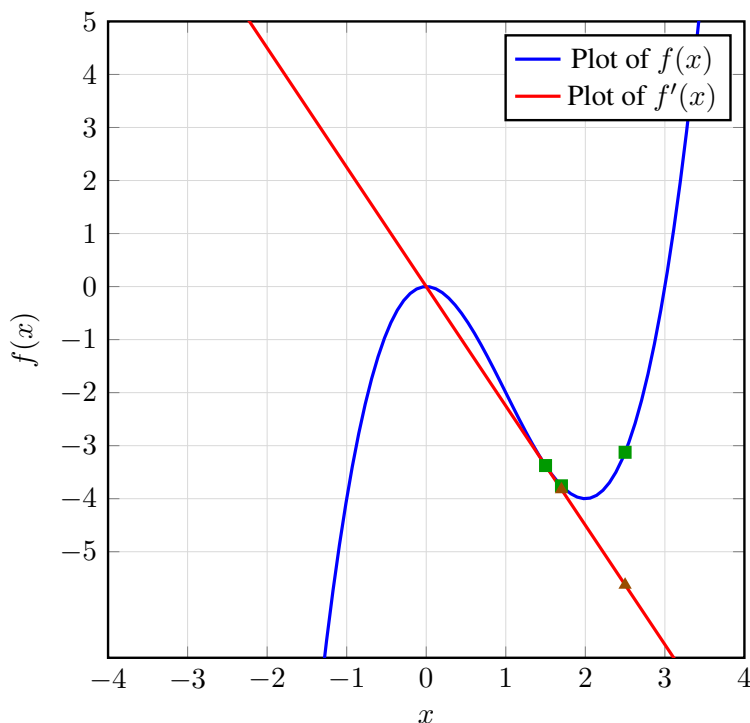
$$\approx -3.375 - 2.25 \quad (10)$$

$$\approx -5.625 \quad (11)$$

Comparing to the exact value  $f(2.5) = 2.5^3 - 3 \cdot 2.5^2 = -3.125$ , we find that the difference is much larger; the error jumped to 2.5! This is an error multiplication of  $\frac{2.5}{0.068} \approx 37$ , even though our  $\delta$  only multiplied by 5. What happened?

Looking at the actual function, we see that the function has a significant curvature between our

"anchor point" of  $x_* = 1.5$  and  $x = 2.5$ . Our linear model is unable to capture this curvature, and so we estimated  $f(2.5)$  as if the function kept decreasing, as it did around  $x = 1.5$  (where the slope was  $-2.25$ ).



Now, we can extend this to higher dimensional functions. In the case of a two-dimensional function  $f(x, y)$ , the linear approximation of  $f(x, y)$  at a point  $(x_*, y_*)$  is given by

$$f(x, y) \approx f(x_*, y_*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_*, y_*) \cdot (x - x_*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_*, y_*) \cdot (y - y_*). \quad (12)$$

where  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_*, y_*)$  is the partial derivative of  $f(x, y)$  with respect to  $x$  at the point  $(x_*, y_*)$ , and similarly for  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_*, y_*)$

- (b) Now, let's see how we can find partial derivatives. When we are given a function  $f(x, y)$ , we calculate the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  by fixing  $y$  and taking the derivative with respect to  $x$ . **Given the function  $f(x, y) = x^2y$ , find the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial y}$ .**

**Solution:** We have

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} = 2xy \quad (13)$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} = x^2. \quad (14)$$

- (c) **Write out the linear approximation of  $f$  near  $(x_*, y_*)$ .**

**Solution:** Based on the formula in eq. (12), we can write that:

$$f(x, y) \approx f(x_*, y_*) + 2x_*y_* \cdot (x - x_*) + x_*^2 \cdot (y - y_*). \quad (15)$$

- (d) We want to see if the approximation arising from linearization of this function is reasonable for a point close to our point of evaluation. **First, approximate  $f(x, y)$  at the point  $(2.01, 3.01)$  using  $(x_*, y_*) = (2, 3)$ . Next, compare the result to  $f(2.01, 3.01)$ .**

**Solution:** Let  $\delta = 0.01$ . Then, the true value of  $f(2.01, 3.01)$  is

$$f(2.01, 3.01) = (2 + \delta)^2(3 + \delta) = (4 + 4\delta + \delta^2)(3 + \delta) = 12 + 16\delta + 7\delta^2 + \delta^3. \quad (16)$$

On the other hand, our approximation is

$$f(2.01, 3.01) \approx f(2, 3) + 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \delta + 2^2 \cdot \delta = 12 + 16\delta. \quad (17)$$

As we can see, our approximation removes the terms with  $\delta^2$  and  $\delta^3$ . When  $\delta$  is sufficiently small, these terms become very small, and hence our approximation is reasonable.

The actual numerical values are:

$$\begin{aligned} f(2, 3) &= 12 \\ f(2.01, 3.01) &\approx 12.16 && \text{(using linearization)} \\ f(2.01, 3.01) &= 12.160701 && \text{(exact evaluation of } f \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

- (e) We will now define the notion of a derivative as a function, and take a look at one possible representation of that function.

**Given the representation of the derivative as a row-vector, describe a function that can take this representation, along with some column vector defining a change in direction, to return a scalar value (which is the change in the real-valued output). Don't worry if this seems abstract for now, the next subpart will clarify.**

**Solution:** We can perform a matrix multiplication between the row vector and column vector to produce a  $1 \times 1$  matrix, which we treat as a scalar. Specifically,  $1 \times k \times k \times 1 = 1 \times 1$ .

- (f) Suppose we have now a scalar-valued function  $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$ , which takes in vector-valued arguments  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and outputs a scalar  $\in \mathbb{R}$ . That is,  $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$  is  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . For this new model involving a vector-valued function, how can we adapt our previous linearization method?

One way to linearize the function  $f$  is to do it for every single element in  $\vec{x} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]^\top$  and  $\vec{y} = [y_1 \ y_2 \ \dots \ y_k]^\top$ . Then, when we are looking at  $x_i$  or  $y_j$ , we fix everything else as constant. This would give us the linear approximation

$$f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \approx f(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial x_i} (x_i - x_{i,*}) + \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{\partial f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial y_j} (y_j - y_{j,*}). \quad (18)$$

In order to simplify this equation, we can define the rows  $D_{\vec{x}}$  and  $D_{\vec{y}}$  as

$$D_{\vec{x}}f = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \quad \dots \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right], \quad (19)$$

$$D_{\vec{y}}f = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_1} \quad \dots \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_k} \right]. \quad (20)$$

Then, eq. (18) can be rewritten as

$$f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \approx f(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + (D_{\vec{x}}f) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + (D_{\vec{y}}f) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*). \quad (21)$$

**Assume that  $n = k$  and we define the function  $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \vec{x}^\top \vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i y_i$ . Find  $D_{\vec{x}}f$  and  $D_{\vec{y}}f$ .**

**[Practice] Next, suppose  $g(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = x_1 x_2^2 y_1 + x_1 y_2^3 + x_2 x_1 y_2 y_1 + \frac{x_1^2}{x_2^3 y_1}$ . Find  $D_{\vec{x}}g$  and  $D_{\vec{y}}g$**

*Hint: it can help to look at eq. (12), and match the terms in eq. (18) to that formulation.*

**Solution:** The derivative is a row vector (as denoted above), so if we apply the definition (and write out the given function explicitly as  $x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_k y_k$ ), we have:

$$D_{\vec{x}}f = \vec{y}^\top \quad (22)$$

and

$$D_{\vec{y}}f = \vec{x}^\top. \quad (23)$$

For the second (more difficult) example, we can similarly compute:

$$\frac{\partial g(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial x_1} = x_2^2 y_1 + y_2^3 + x_2 y_1 y_2 + 2 \frac{x_1}{x_2^3 y_1} \quad (24)$$

$$\frac{\partial g(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial x_2} = 2x_1 x_2 y_1 + x_1 y_1 y_2 - 3 \frac{x_1^2}{x_2^4 y_1} \quad (25)$$

$$\frac{\partial g(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial y_1} = x_1 x_2^2 + x_1 x_2 y_2 - \frac{x_2^2}{x_2^3 y_1^2} \quad (26)$$

$$\frac{\partial g(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial y_2} = 3x_1 y_2^2 + x_1 x_2 y_1 \quad (27)$$

Compiling these into derivative (row) vectors:

$$D_{\vec{x}} g = \left[ x_2^2 y_1 + y_2^3 + x_2 y_1 y_2 + 2 \frac{x_1}{x_2^3 y_1} \quad 2x_1 x_2 y_1 + x_1 y_1 y_2 - 3 \frac{x_1^2}{x_2^4 y_1} \right] \quad (28)$$

$$D_{\vec{y}} g = \left[ x_1 x_2^2 + x_1 x_2 y_2 - \frac{x_2^2}{x_2^3 y_1^2} \quad 3x_1 y_2^2 + x_1 x_2 y_1 \right] \quad (29)$$

(g) Following the above part, **find the linear approximation of  $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$  near  $\vec{x}_* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\vec{y}_* = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .**

**Recall that**  $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \vec{x}^\top \vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i y_i$ .

**Solution:** From the solution in the previous part, we can write

$$f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \approx f(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + (D_{\vec{x}} f) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + (D_{\vec{y}} f) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*) \quad (30)$$

$$= \vec{x}_*^\top \vec{y}_* + \vec{y}_*^\top (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + \vec{x}_*^\top (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*). \quad (31)$$

Putting in  $\vec{x}_* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\vec{y}_* = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ , and let's find the approximation of  $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 + \delta_1 \\ 2 + \delta_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 + \delta_3 \\ 2 + \delta_4 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ ,

we have

$$f\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 + \delta_1 \\ 2 + \delta_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 + \delta_3 \\ 2 + \delta_4 \end{bmatrix}\right) \approx \vec{x}_*^\top \vec{y}_* + \vec{y}_*^\top (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + \vec{x}_*^\top (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*) \quad (32)$$

$$= 3 + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_3 \\ \delta_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (33)$$

$$= 3 - \delta_1 + 2\delta_2 + \delta_3 + 2\delta_4. \quad (34)$$

Let's compare this with the true value  $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 + \delta_1 \\ 2 + \delta_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 + \delta_3 \\ 2 + \delta_4 \end{bmatrix}\right)$  We have:

$$f\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 + \delta_1 \\ 2 + \delta_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 + \delta_3 \\ 2 + \delta_4 \end{bmatrix}\right) = (1 + \delta_1)(-1 + \delta_3) + (2 + \delta_2)(2 + \delta_4) \quad (35)$$

$$= 3 - \delta_1 + 2\delta_2 + \delta_3 + 2\delta_4 + \delta_1\delta_3 + \delta_2\delta_4. \quad (36)$$

As we can see, our approximation removes the second order  $\delta$  terms  $\delta_1\delta_3$  and  $\delta_2\delta_4$ , which is valid for small  $\delta_i$ .

These linearizations are important for us because we can do many easy computations using linear functions.

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