

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

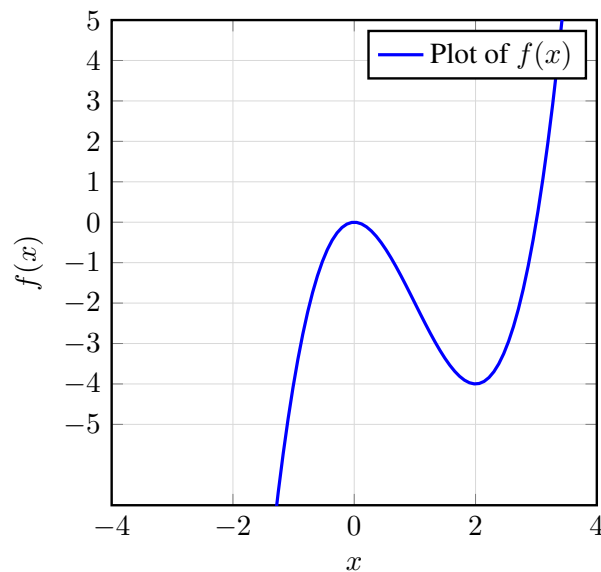
A common way to approximate a nonlinear function is to perform linearization near a point. In the case of a one-dimensional function $f(x)$, the linear approximation of $f(x)$ at a point x_* is given by

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

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:

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

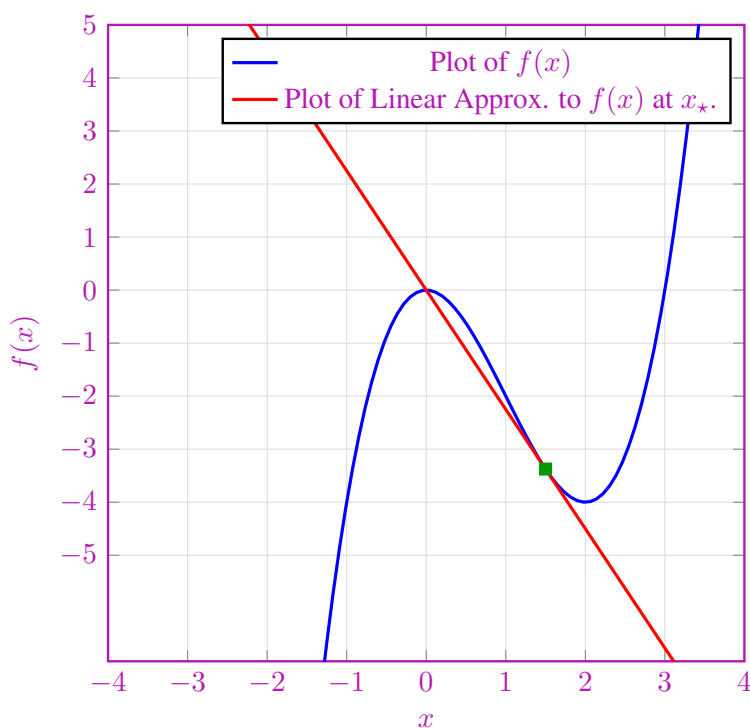
$$= f(x_*) + (3x_*^2 - 6x_*) \cdot (x - x_*) \quad (3)$$

- 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?

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

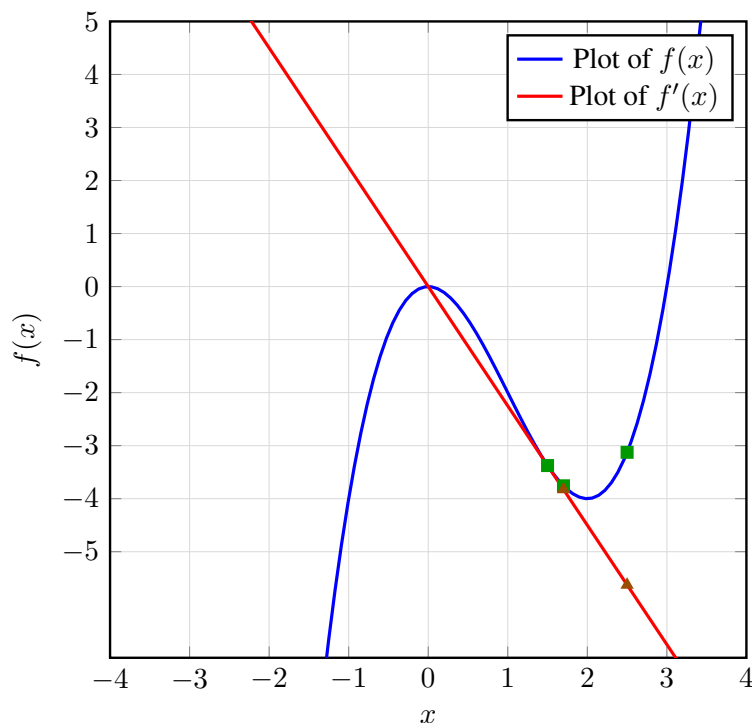
$$\approx -3.375 - 2.25 \quad (10)$$

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

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 δ 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 δ^2 and δ^3 . When δ 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 1×1 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, $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. 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 δ terms $\delta_1\delta_3$ and $\delta_2\delta_4$, which is valid for small δ_i .

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

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