

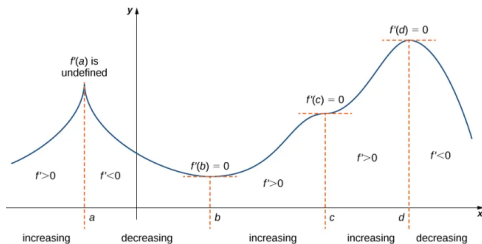
# Optimization of $f(x)$

## DEFINITION

A function  $f$  has a **local maximum** at  $c$  if there exists an open interval  $I$  containing  $c$  such that  $I$  is contained in the domain of  $f$  and  $f(c) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ . A function  $f$  has a **local minimum** at  $c$  if there exists an open interval  $I$  containing  $c$  such that  $I$  is contained in the domain of  $f$  and  $f(c) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ . A function  $f$  has a **local extremum** at  $c$  if  $f$  has a local maximum at  $c$  or  $f$  has a local minimum at  $c$ .

## Fermat's Theorem

If  $f$  has a local extremum at  $c$  and  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$ , then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

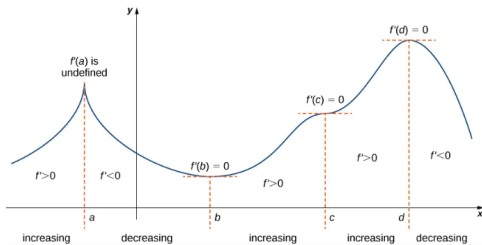


# Optimization of $f(x)$

## First Derivative Test

Suppose that  $f$  is a continuous function over an interval  $I$  containing a critical point  $c$ . If  $f$  is differentiable over  $I$ , except possibly at point  $c$ , then  $f(c)$  satisfies one of the following descriptions:

- If  $f'$  changes sign from positive when  $x < c$  to negative when  $x > c$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local maximum of  $f$ .
- If  $f'$  changes sign from negative when  $x < c$  to positive when  $x > c$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local minimum of  $f$ .
- If  $f'$  has the same sign for  $x < c$  and  $x > c$ , then  $f(c)$  is neither a local maximum nor a local minimum of  $f$ .



# Optimization of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

## DEFINITION

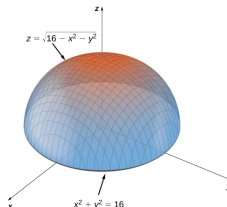
Let  $z = f(x, y)$  be a function of two variables that is defined on an open set containing the point  $(x_0, y_0)$ . The point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is called a **critical point of a function of two variables**  $f$  if one of the two following conditions holds:

1.  $f_x(x_0, y_0) = f_y(x_0, y_0) = 0$
2. Either  $f_x(x_0, y_0)$  or  $f_y(x_0, y_0)$  does not exist.

## THEOREM 4.16

### Fermat's Theorem for Functions of Two Variables

Let  $z = f(x, y)$  be a function of two variables that is defined and continuous on an open set containing the point  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Suppose  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  each exists at  $(x_0, y_0)$ . If  $f$  has a local extremum at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a critical point of  $f$ .



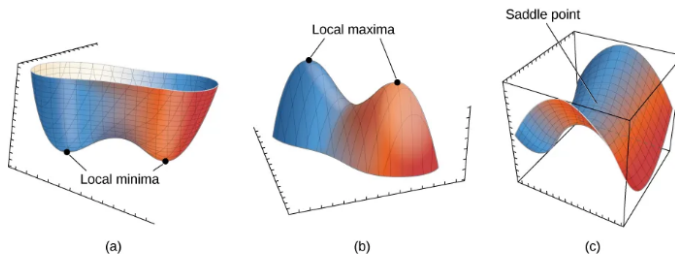
# Optimization of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

Let  $z = f(x, y)$  be a function of two variables for which the first- and second-order partial derivatives are continuous on some disk containing the point  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Suppose  $f_x(x_0, y_0) = 0$  and  $f_y(x_0, y_0) = 0$ . Define the quantity

$$D = f_{xx}(x_0, y_0)f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) - (f_{xy}(x_0, y_0))^2. \quad (4.43)$$

- i. If  $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) > 0$ , then  $f$  has a local minimum at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .
- ii. If  $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) < 0$ , then  $f$  has a local maximum at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .
- iii. If  $D < 0$ , then  $f$  has a saddle point at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .
- iv. If  $D = 0$ , then the test is inconclusive.

See [Figure 4.49](#).



**Figure 4.49** The second derivative test can often determine whether a function of two variables has a local minima (a), a local

# Optimization of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ : Gradient Descent

## DEFINITION

Let  $z = f(x, y)$  be a function of  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  exist. The vector  $\nabla f(x, y)$  is called the **gradient** of  $f$  and is defined as

$$\nabla f(x, y) = f_x(x, y) \mathbf{i} + f_y(x, y) \mathbf{j}. \quad (4.39)$$

The vector  $\nabla f(x, y)$  is also written as “grad  $f$ .”

## Properties of the Gradient

Suppose the function  $z = f(x, y)$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  ([Figure 4.41](#)).

- i. If  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0) = 0$  for any unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .
- ii. If  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0)$  is maximized when  $\mathbf{u}$  points in the same direction as  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0)$ . The maximum value of  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0)$  is  $\|\nabla f(x_0, y_0)\|$ .
- iii. If  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0)$  is minimized when  $\mathbf{u}$  points in the opposite direction from  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0)$ . The minimum value of  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0)$  is  $-\|\nabla f(x_0, y_0)\|$ .

# Optimization of $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ : Gradient Descent

## Gradient Descent Algorithm:

Let  $J(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be a differentiable function:

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1:  $w \leftarrow$  random values
2: for  $i < \text{epoch}$  do
3:    $\text{grad} \leftarrow \nabla_w J$ 
4:    $w \leftarrow w - \eta \times \text{grad}$ 
5:    $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
6: end for
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# Supervised Learning (I)

More generally, suppose that we observe a quantitative response  $Y$  and  $p$  different predictors,  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p$ . We assume that there is some relationship between  $Y$  and  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$ , which can be written in the very general form

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon. \quad (2.1)$$

## Prediction

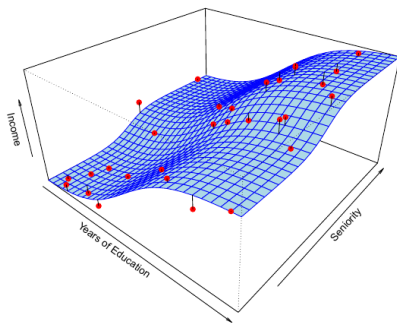
In many situations, a set of inputs  $X$  are readily available, but the output  $Y$  cannot be easily obtained. In this setting, since the error term averages to zero, we can predict  $Y$  using

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X), \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\hat{f}$  represents our estimate for  $f$ , and  $\hat{Y}$  represents the resulting prediction for  $Y$ . In this setting,  $\hat{f}$  is often treated as a *black box*, in the sense that one is not typically concerned with the exact form of  $\hat{f}$ , provided that it yields accurate predictions for  $Y$ .

# How to estimate $f(x)$ : Parametric Methods

- Use training data  $\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ .



- Make an assumption about the functional form of  $f(x)$ .
- The most common assumption about  $f(x)$  is that it is linear:

$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$$



# Simple Linear Regression

Assume you have training data  $\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ . We must find  $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$ .

Let  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$  be the prediction for  $Y$  based on the  $i$ th value of  $X$ . Then  $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  represents the  $i$ th *residual*—this is the difference between the  $i$ th observed response value and the  $i$ th response value that is predicted by our linear model. We define the *residual sum of squares* (RSS) as

$$\text{RSS} = e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_n^2,$$

or equivalently as

$$\text{RSS} = (y_1 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_1)^2 + (y_2 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_2)^2 + \dots + (y_n - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_n)^2. \quad (3.3)$$

The least squares approach chooses  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  to minimize the RSS. Using some calculus, one can show that the minimizers are

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}, \\ \hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

**Question:** Why?