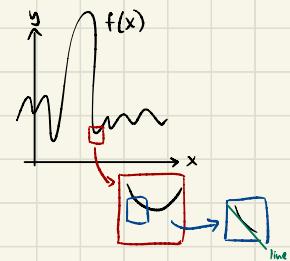


[Note 15]

Linearization: approximate nonlinear function around a point

→ key idea: functions, no matter how curved/nonlinear,
look linear for a small region.
relative term

→ nonlinear modeling: very difficult (has applications
in controls) [Prof. Murat Arcak's Research]



Key Results

1) Scalar 1D
($f(x): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)

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

2) Scalar, n-D
($f(x_1, \dots, x_n): \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)

$$f(x, y) \approx f(x_*, y_*) + f_x(x_*, y_*)(x - x_*) + f_y(x_*, y_*)(y - y_*)$$

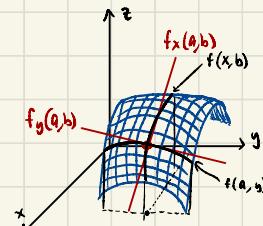
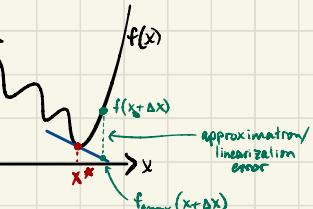
⋮

3) Vector → Scalar
($f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}): \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)

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

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

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_k} \end{bmatrix}$$



lines $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$
form a plane of approximation
(2 lines define a plane)

No thanks !!

4) Vector → Vector
($\vec{f}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}): \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$)

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \vec{f}(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + D_{\vec{x}} \vec{f} \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*)$$

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

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

EECS 16B Designing Information Devices and Systems II
 Spring 2021 Discussion Worksheet Discussion 13A

This discussion will recap a lot of the key concepts covered in [lecture last week](#).

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

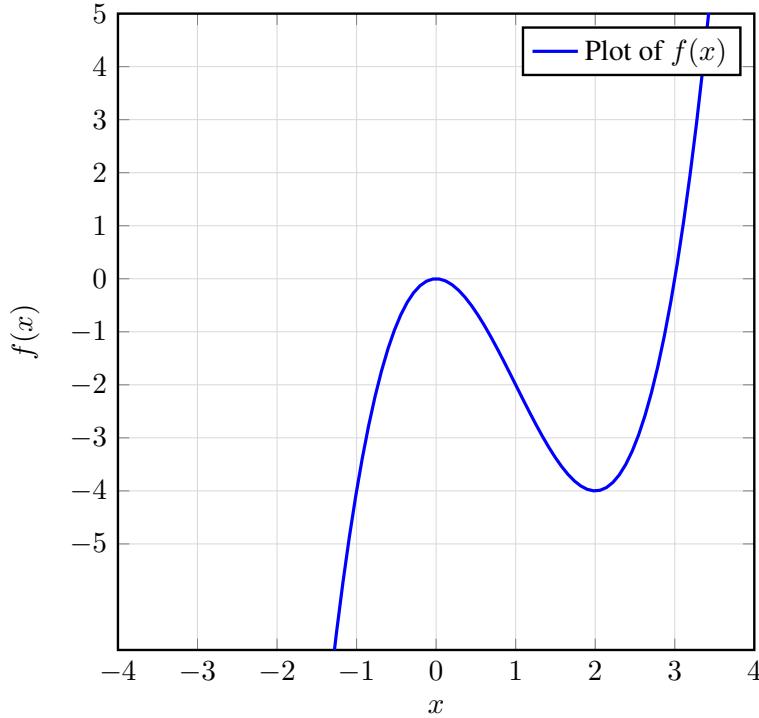
$$f(x) \approx f(x_*) + f'(x_*) \cdot (x - x_*), \quad (1)$$

where $f'(x_*) := \frac{df(x)}{dx} \Big|_{x=x_*}$ 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:

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x$$



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

$$f(x) \approx f(x_*) + (3x_*^2 - 6x_*)(x - x_*)$$

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

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

$$f(x) \approx -3.375 - 2.25(x - 1.5)$$

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 $x = 1.7$?

$$f(1.7) \approx -3.375 + (-2.25) \cdot (1.7 - 1.5) \quad (2)$$

$$\approx -3.375 - 0.45 \quad (3)$$

$$\approx -3.825 \quad (4)$$

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?

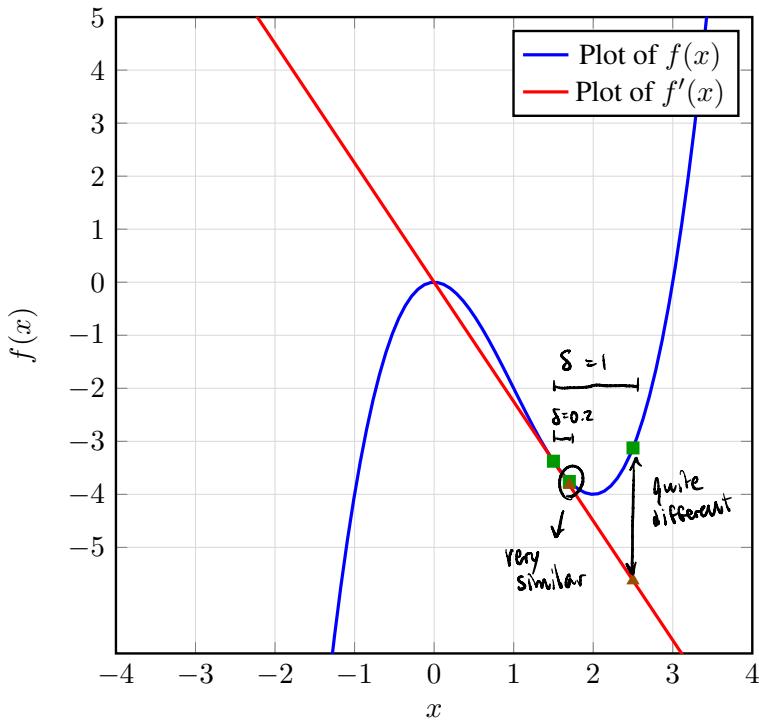
$$f(2.5) \approx -3.375 + (-2.25) \cdot (2.5 - 1.5) \quad (5)$$

$$\approx -3.375 - 2.25 \quad (6)$$

$$\approx -5.625 \quad (7)$$

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

$$f(x, y) \approx f(x_*, y_*) + f_x(x_*, y_*) \cdot (x - x_*) + f_y(x_*, y_*) \cdot (y - y_*). \quad (8)$$

where $f_x(x_*, y_*)$ is the partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to x at the point (x_*, y_*) :

$$f_x(x_*, y_*) = \left. \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_*, y_*)} \quad (9)$$

and $f_y(x_*, y_*)$ is the partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to y at the point (x_*, y_*) .

- (b) Now, let's see how we can derive 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 $f_y(x, y)$ and $f_x(x, y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f_x(x, y) &= 2xy \\ f_y(x, y) &= x^2 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &\approx f(x_*, y_*) + 2x_*y_* (x - x_*) \\ &\quad + x_*^2 (y - y_*) \end{aligned}$$

Optional Extra practice for Partial Derivatives:

$$1) f(x, y, z) = x^2y + y^2z + 3xyz$$

$$f_x = 2xy$$

$$f_y = x^2 + 2yz + 3xz$$

$$f_z = y^2 + 3xy$$

$$2) f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_1 + x_1x_2 + \dots + \prod_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$f_{x_n} = x_1x_2 \dots x_{n-1} = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i$$

$$f_{x_{n-1}} = \underbrace{x_1x_2 \dots x_{n-2}x_n}_{\text{last term}} + \underbrace{x_1x_2 \dots x_{n-2}}_{\text{2nd last term}}$$

↓ 3

$$f_{x_2} = x_1 + x_1x_3 + x_1x_3x_4 \dots$$

$$f_{x_1} = 1 + x_2 + x_2x_3 + \dots$$

- (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 $(x_*, y_*) = (2, 3)$, and compare the result to $f(2.01, 3.01)$.

$$f(x,y) = x^2y \quad f(2.01, 3.01) \quad 2.01 = 2 + \delta_x, \delta_x = 0.01 \\ 3.01 = 3 + \delta_y, \delta_y = 0.01 \quad \delta = \delta_x + \delta_y$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \hookrightarrow (2+\delta)^2 (3+\delta) \\ \text{exact value: } &= 12 + 16\delta + \underline{7\delta^2 + \delta^3} \Rightarrow \boxed{12.160701} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{approx value: } & f(2.01, 3.01) = f(2, 3) + 2 \cdot \underbrace{x_* y_*}_{\delta} (\underbrace{x - x_*}_{\delta}) \\ & + x_*^2 (\underbrace{y - y_*}_{\delta}) \\ &= f(2, 3) + 2 \cdot \underline{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \delta \\ & + 2^2 \cdot \delta \\ &= 12 + 12\delta + 4\delta \\ &= 12 + 16\delta \quad = \boxed{12.16} \end{aligned}$$

$\delta^2, \delta^3, \dots$
not captured
by our linear
model!

- (e) Suppose we have now a vector-valued function $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$, which takes in vectors $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and outputs a scalar $\in \mathbb{R}$. That is, $f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$ is $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. With this new model, 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

$$f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \approx f(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial x_i} (x_i - x_{*,i}) + \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{\partial f(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{\partial y_j} (y_j - y_{*,j}). \quad (10)$$

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

$$D_{\vec{x}} f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ derivative / row} \quad (11)$$

$$D_{\vec{y}} f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_k} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

Then, Equation (10) can be rewritten as

$$f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \approx f(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + \underbrace{(D_{\vec{x}} f) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)}}_{|x| \times n} \cdot \underbrace{(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*)}_{n \times 1} + (D_{\vec{y}} f) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot \underbrace{(\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*)}_{k \times 1}. \quad (13)$$

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 $D_{\vec{y}} f$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) &= \vec{x}^\top \vec{y} \\ &= x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\vec{x}} f &= \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \ \dots \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right] \\ &\approx \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix} = \vec{y}^\top \end{aligned}$$

$$D_{\vec{y}} f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial y_1} \ \dots \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_n} \right] = \vec{x}^\top$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) &= f(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + \vec{y}_*^\top (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) \\ &\quad + \vec{x}_*^\top (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\vec{x}_* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{y}_* = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) = \begin{bmatrix} 1+\delta_1 \\ 2+\delta_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \end{bmatrix} = 3 + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_3 \\ \delta_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 3 - \delta_1 + 2\delta_2 + \delta_3 + 2\delta_4$$

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

$$= 3 - \delta_1 + 2\delta_2 + \delta_3 + 2\delta_4 + \underbrace{\delta_1\delta_3 + \delta_2\delta_4}_{\text{not captured by our linear model!}}$$



$\delta_1\delta_3, \delta_2\delta_4$ etc
not captured
by our linear
model!

- (g) When the function $\vec{f}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ takes in vectors and outputs a vector (rather than a scalar), we can view each dimension in \vec{f} independently as a separate function f_i , and linearize each of them:

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \\ f_2(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + D_{\vec{x}}f_1 \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + D_{\vec{y}}f_1 \cdot (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*) \\ f_2(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + D_{\vec{x}}f_2 \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + D_{\vec{y}}f_2 \cdot (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + D_{\vec{x}}f_m \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + D_{\vec{y}}f_m \cdot (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*) \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

We can rewrite this in a clean way with the *Jacobian*:

$$D_{\vec{x}}\vec{f} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{\vec{x}}f_1 \\ D_{\vec{x}}f_2 \\ \vdots \\ D_{\vec{x}}f_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (15)$$

and similarly

$$D_{\vec{y}}\vec{f} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial y_k} \end{bmatrix}. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{stack of scalar output cases} \\ \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m = \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbb{R} \\ \mathbb{R} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right]^m \end{array} \quad (16)$$

Then, the linearization becomes

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \approx \vec{f}(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*) + (D_{\vec{x}}\vec{f}) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_*) + (D_{\vec{y}}\vec{f}) \Big|_{(\vec{x}_*, \vec{y}_*)} \cdot (\vec{y} - \vec{y}_*). \quad (17)$$

Let $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 x_2 \\ x_1 x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $D_{\vec{x}}\vec{f}$, applying the definition above.

\hookrightarrow not present
in example
question.

$$D_{\vec{x}}\vec{f} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} \sim \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 x_2 & x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 & 2x_1 x_2 \end{bmatrix}}$$

(h) Compare the approximation of \vec{f} at the point $\begin{bmatrix} 2.01 \\ 3.01 \end{bmatrix}$ using $\vec{x}_* = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ versus $\vec{f}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2.01 \\ 3.01 \end{bmatrix}\right)$. Recall the definition that $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 x_2 \\ x_1 x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\underline{s_1 = s_2 = 0.01}$$

exact: $\vec{f}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2.01 \\ 3.01 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} (2+8)(3+8) \\ (2+8)(3+8)^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 + 168 + 78^2 + 8^3 \\ 18 + 218 + 88^2 + 8^3 \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{array}{l} 12.160701 \\ 18.210801 \end{array}}$

approx: $\vec{f}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2.01 \\ 3.01 \end{bmatrix}\right) \approx \vec{f}\left[\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}\right] + \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 4 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 + (68) \\ 18 + 218 \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{array}{l} 12.16 \\ 18.21 \end{array}}$

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\vec{x}} \vec{f} \Big|_{(2,3)} &= \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 x_2 & x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 & 2x_1 x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 4 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

(i) **Practice:** Let \vec{x} and \vec{y} be vectors with 2 rows, and let \vec{w} be another vector with 2 rows. Let $\vec{f}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \vec{x} \vec{y}^\top \vec{w}$. Find $D_{\vec{x}} \vec{f}$ and $D_{\vec{y}} \vec{f}$.

- (j) **Practice:** Continuing the above part, find the linear approximation of \vec{f} near $\vec{x} = \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and with $\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

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

Contributors:

- Neelesh Ramachandran.
- Kuan-Yun Lee.