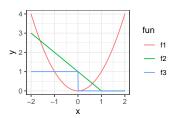
Optimization

Quadratic forms II

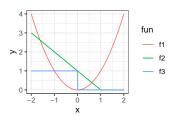


Learning goals

- TODO
- TODO

SMOOTH VS. NON-SMOOTH

- The smoothness of a function is a property that is measured by the number of its continuous derivatives.
- We will call a function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ "smooth", if it is at least differentiable for every $\mathbf{x} \in S$.
- We call a function k-times continuously differentiable, if the k-th derivative exists and is continuous. C^k denotes the class of k-times continuously differentiable functions.



 f_1 is smooth, f_2 is continuous but not differentiable, and f_3 is non-continuous.

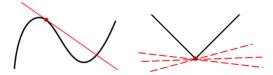
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DIFFERENTIABILITY (UNIVARIATE)

Definition 1: A function $f: S \subseteq \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be differentiable in $x \in S$ if the following limit exists:

$$f'(x) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

A function $f: \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be differentiable in $x \in \mathcal{S}$, if f can be locally approximated by a linear function in x.



Geometrically: A tangent can be placed on the graph of f through the point (x, f(x)).

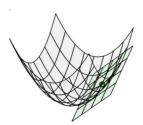
m = f'(x) then indicates the slope of this tangent. The function on the left is differentiable everywhere; the function on the right is not differentiable at the red point.

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A similar definition of differentiability holds for multivariate functions.

Definition: A function $f: \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{S}$ if there exists a (continuous) linear map $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}): \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ with

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{h}}{||\mathbf{h}||} = 0$$



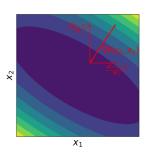
Geometrically: The function can be locally approximated by a tangent hyperplane. Source: https://github.com/jermwatt/machine_learning_refined.

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This local linear approximation is described by the **gradient**: If f is differentiable in \mathbf{x} , the **gradient** is defined by

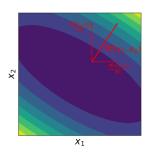
$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \boldsymbol{e}_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \boldsymbol{e}_n = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right)^{\top}.$$

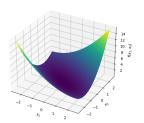
The elements of the gradient are called **partial derivatives**.



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Consider
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 0.5x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_1x_2$$
. The gradient is $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1 + x_2, 2x_2 + x_1)^{\top}$.

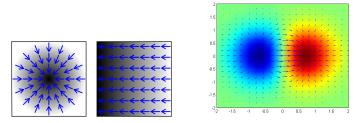




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Properties of the gradient:

- The gradient is orthogonal to level curves and level surfaces of a function
- The gradient points in the direction of greatest increase of *f*



• The normal vector describing the tangent plane has n + 1 components, the first n correspond to ∇f and the (n + 1)-th has the value -1

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We can also compute the instantaneous rate of change of f at \mathbf{x} along an arbitrary direction \mathbf{v} :

$$D_V f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}.$$

 $D_{\nu}f(\mathbf{x})$ is called **directional derivative**.

Definition: The directional derivative for direction ${m v}$ for

 $f: \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is defined as

$$D_{\nu}f(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+h\mathbf{v})-f(\mathbf{x})}{h}.$$

For example, the slope in the direction $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1)$ is the sum of the first and the second partial derivative:

$$D_{v}f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{1}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{2}}$$

Definition (Hessian): The **Hessian matrix** is analogous to the second derivative in a multivariate setting. The Hessian matrix consists of the second partial derivatives:

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}\right)_{i,j=1...d}$$

- The Hessian indicates the local curvature (2nd derivative) at a point x of the function f.
- The eigenvector corresponding to the largest absolute eigenvalue indicates the direction of the strongest curvature.
- The eigenvector corresponding to the smallest absolute eigenvalue indicates the direction of the lowest curvature.
- The corresponding eigenvalues specify the strength of the curvature.

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