

# **Math for Machine Learning**

**Week 3.1: Basic Differentiation and Vector Calculus**

**By: Samuel Deng**

# Logistics & Announcements

- HW ① complex.
  - HW ② due Thurs. 11:59 PM.
  - HW ③ out Tues (thursday). 1 or 2 more days
- ⇒ MID-COURSE SURVEY
- \* DVI of Town NEXT WEEK. optimization lectures.
  - Expect project evaluations graded this week by wednesday.

# Lesson Overview

**Motivation for differential calculus.** We ultimately want to solve *optimization problems*, which require finding *global minima*.

**Single-variable differentiation review.** In single-variable differentiation, the [derivative](#) is still a  $1 \times 1$  “matrix” mapping change in input to change in output.

**Multivariable differentiation.** Derivatives in multiple variables become harder because we can approach from an infinite number of directions, not just two.

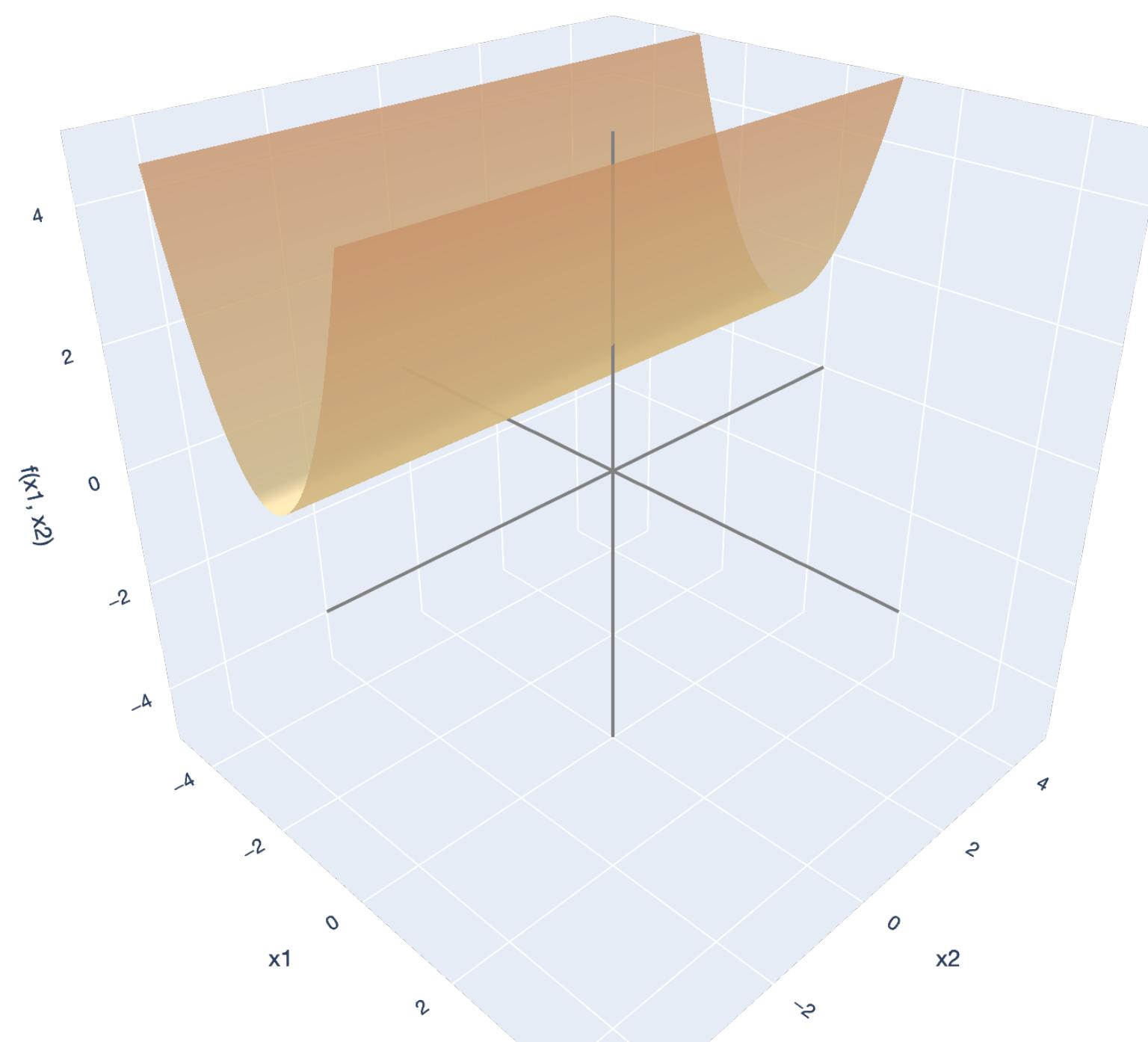
**Total, directional, and partial derivatives.** When a function is [smooth](#) it has a [total derivative](#) (it is [differentiable](#)). In this case, the [directional derivative](#) and [partial derivative](#) comes directly from the total derivative (Jacobian/gradient).

**OLS: Optimization Perspective.** We can solve OLS using differential calculus instead of linear algebra. We provide a heuristic derivation of the OLS estimator again.

# Lesson Overview

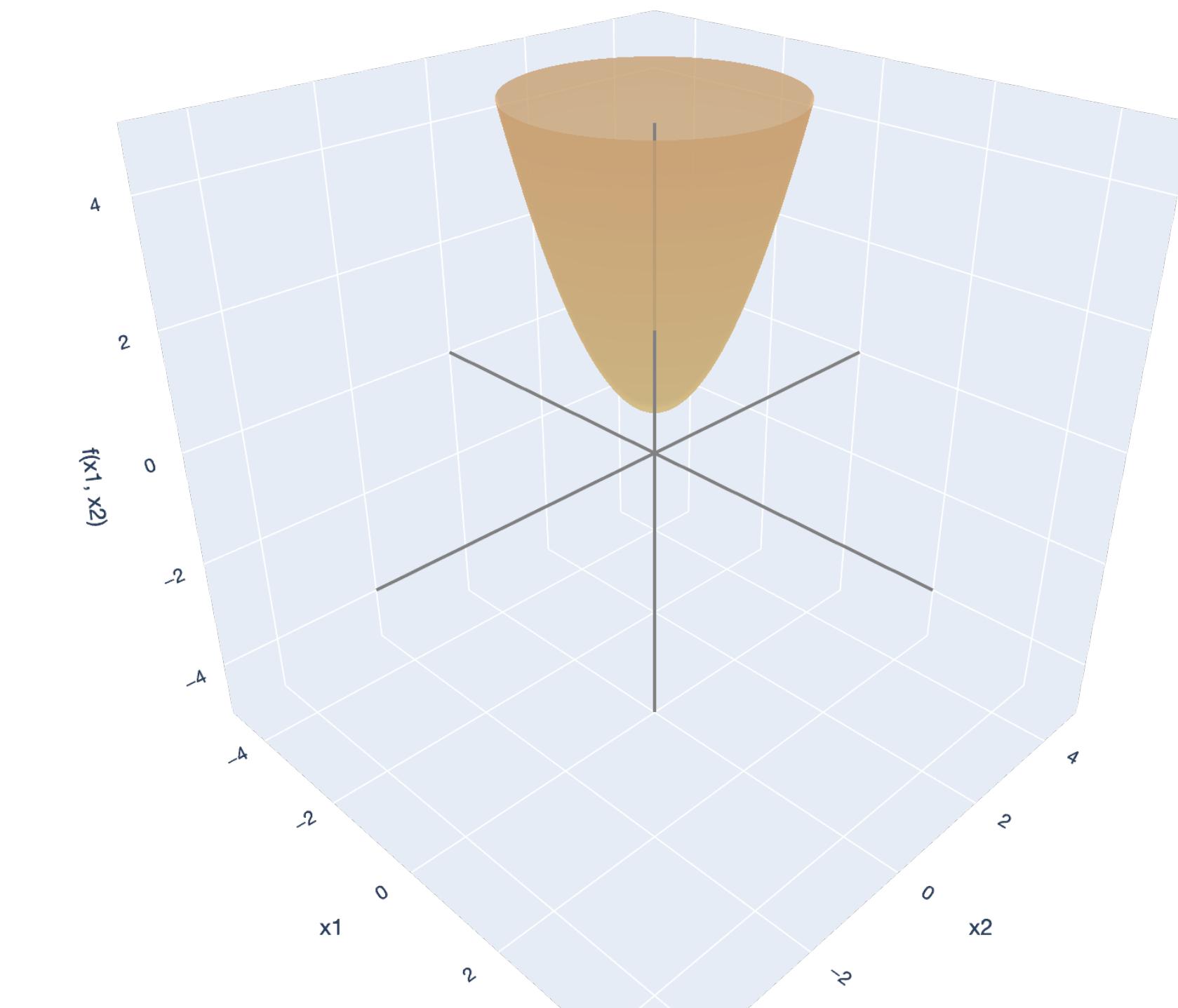
## Big Picture: Least Squares

$$\|Xw - y\|^2 = f(w)$$



x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis

$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d \geq 0$$

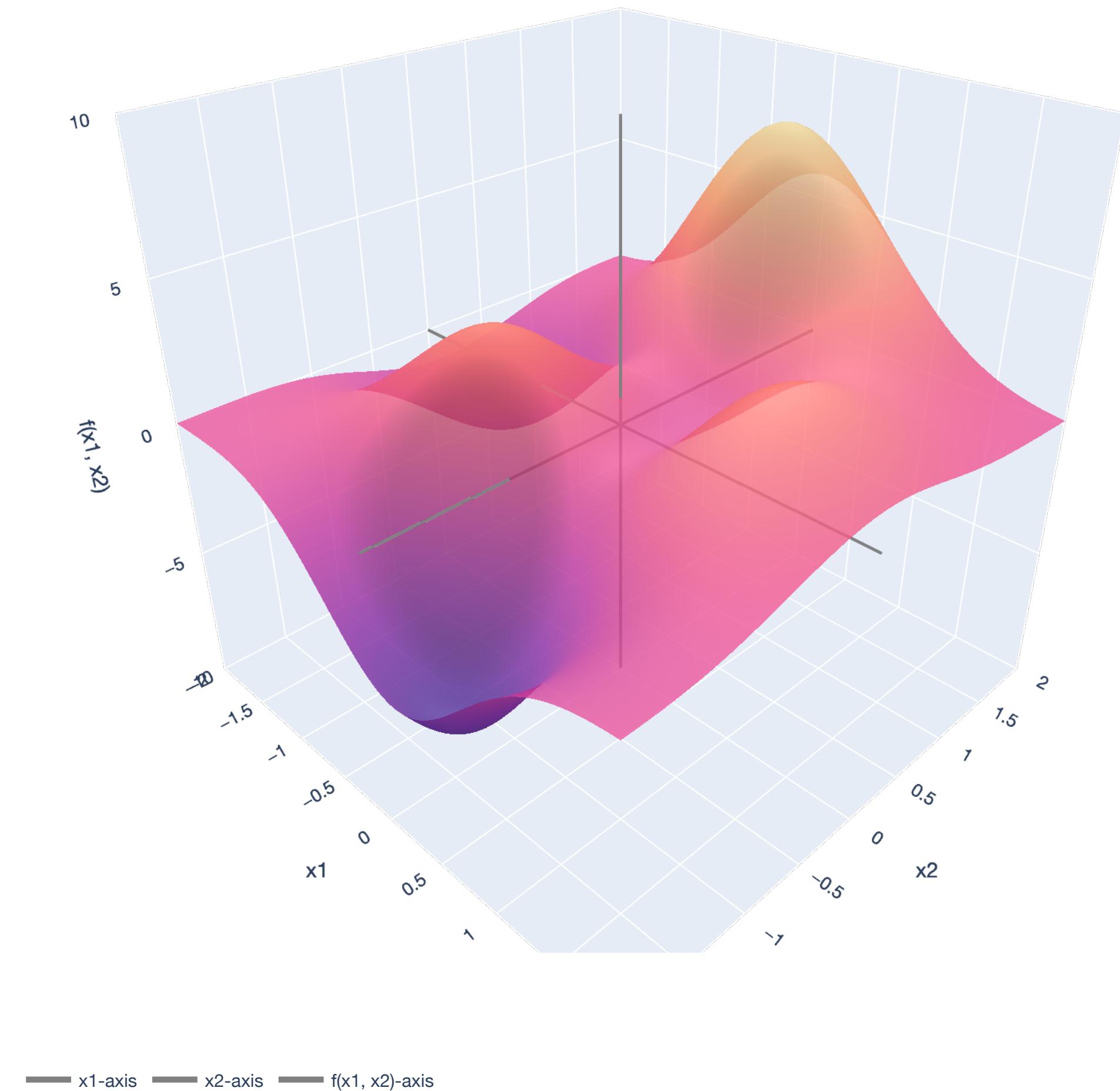
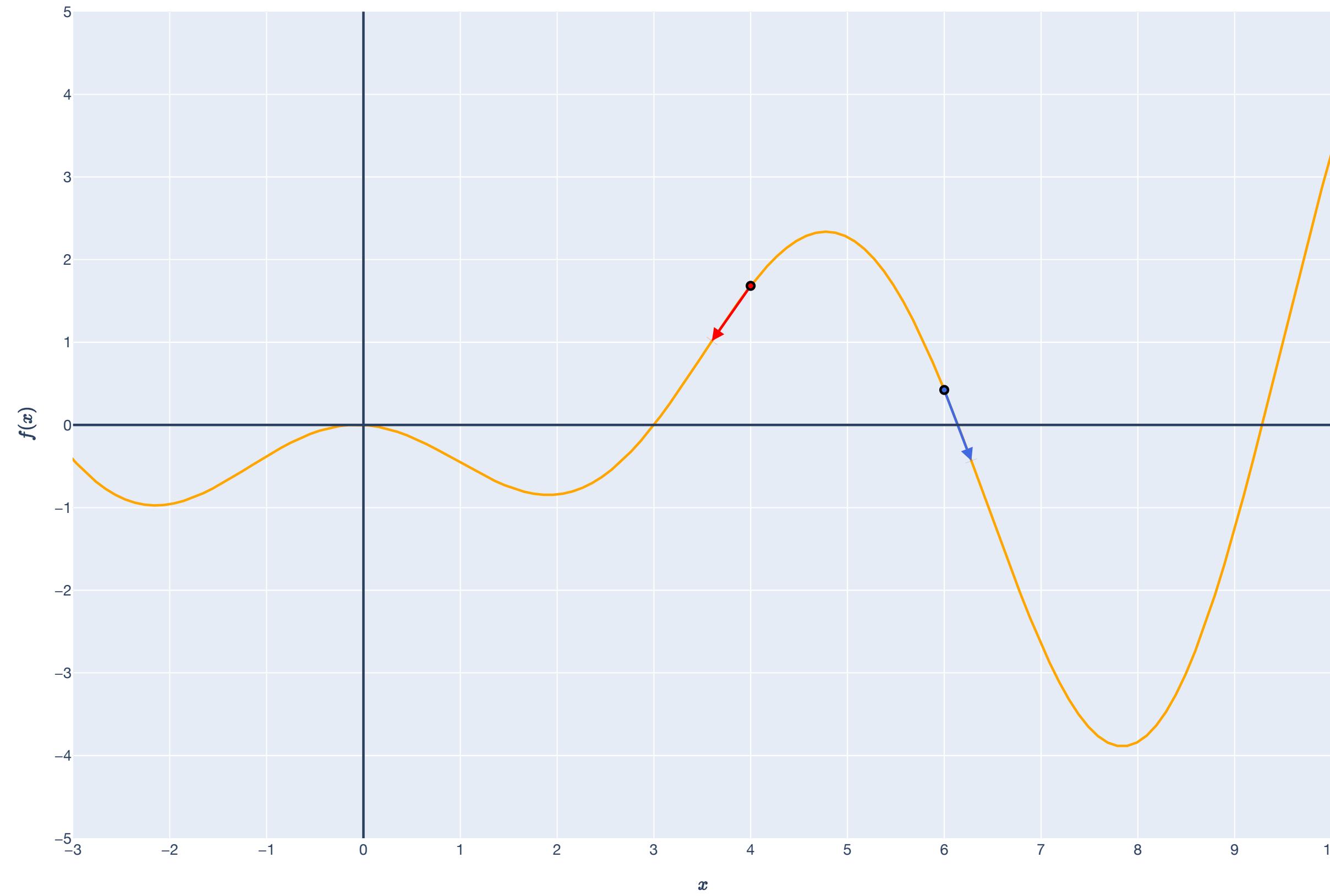


x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis

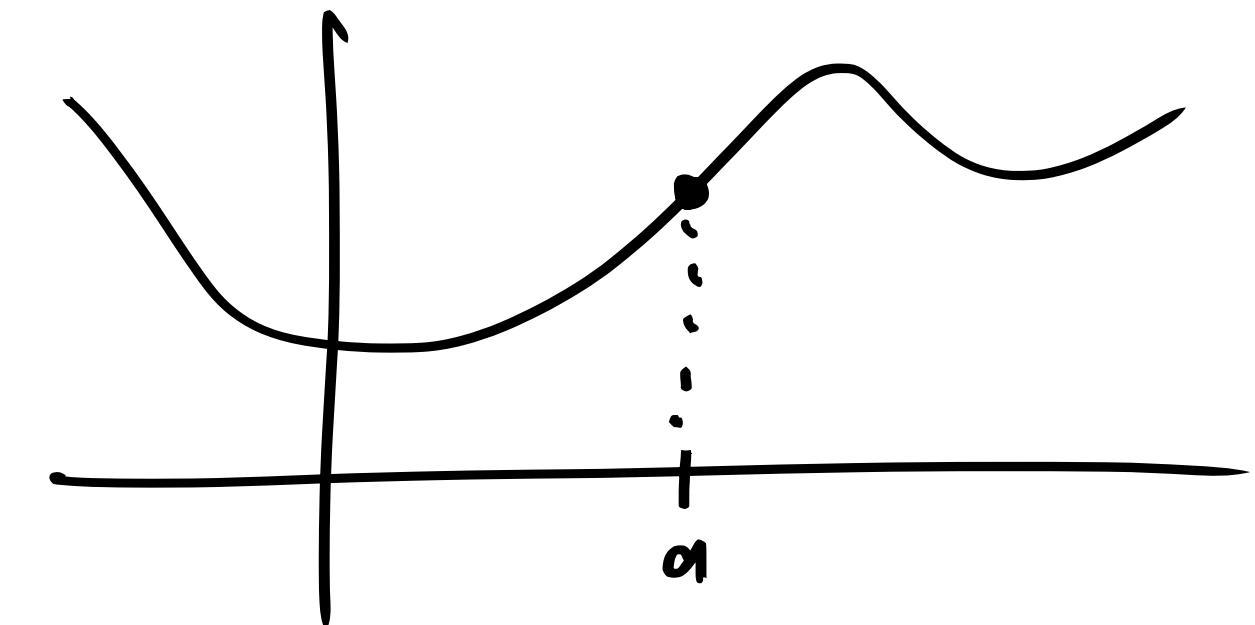
$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d > 0$$

# Lesson Overview

## Big Picture: Gradient Descent

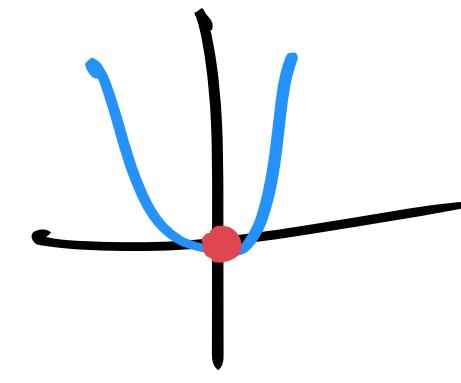


$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$$



# A Motivation for Calculus

## Optimization



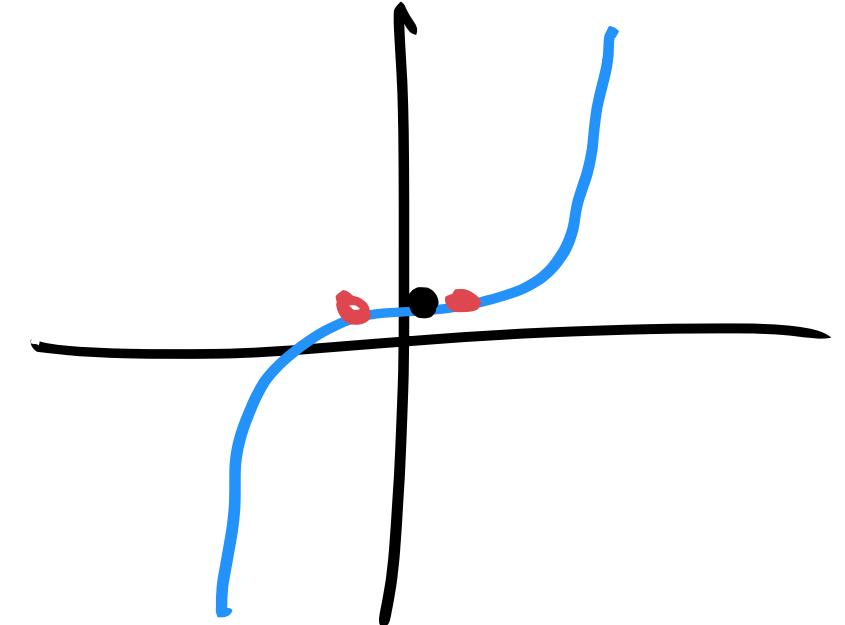
$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

# Motivation

## Optimization in single-variable calculus

$$f'(x) = 0$$

$$f''(x) > 0$$



In much of machine learning, we design algorithms for well-defined *optimization problems*.

In an optimization problem, we want to minimize an **objective function**

$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with respect to a set of constraints  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize}_{x} \quad \boxed{f(x)} \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \boxed{x \in \mathcal{C}} \end{aligned}$$

$w \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$   
 $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
 $f(w) = \|Xw - y\|^2$   
 $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $w = (w_1, w_2)$   
 $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{R}^d$

Example:  
 $\|w\| \leq \lambda, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$$f(w) = \left\| \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} X \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{= \begin{bmatrix} Xw \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}} - \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2$$

# Motivation

## Optimization in single-variable calculus

In much of machine learning, we design algorithms for well-defined *optimization problems*.

In an optimization problem, we want to minimize an objective function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with respect to a set of constraints  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad f(x)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad x \in \mathcal{C}$$

*How do we know how to do this from single-variable calculus?*

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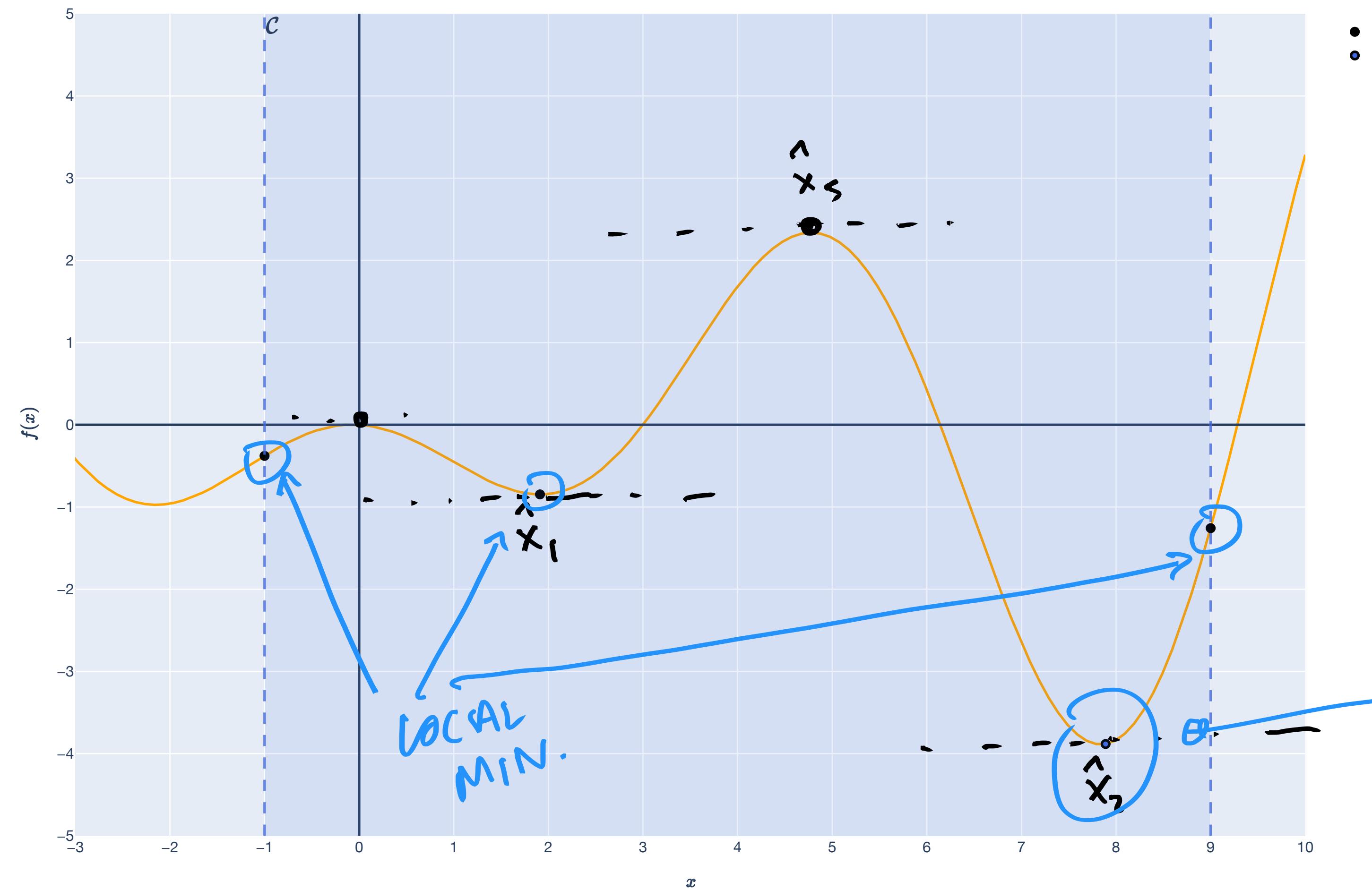
$$\textcircled{1} \quad f'(x) = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad f''(x) \text{ test for min.}$$

# Motivation

## Optimization in single-variable calculus

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$C = [-1, 9]$$



• local min  
• global min

①  $f'(x) = 0$ .  
→ Candidate Points:  
 $\hat{x}_1 \approx 2$     $\hat{x}_5 \approx 5$ ,  
 $\hat{x}_2 \approx 8$     $\hat{x}_6 = 0$

② Look at borders:  
 $\hat{x}_3 = 9$   
 $\hat{x}_4 = -1$

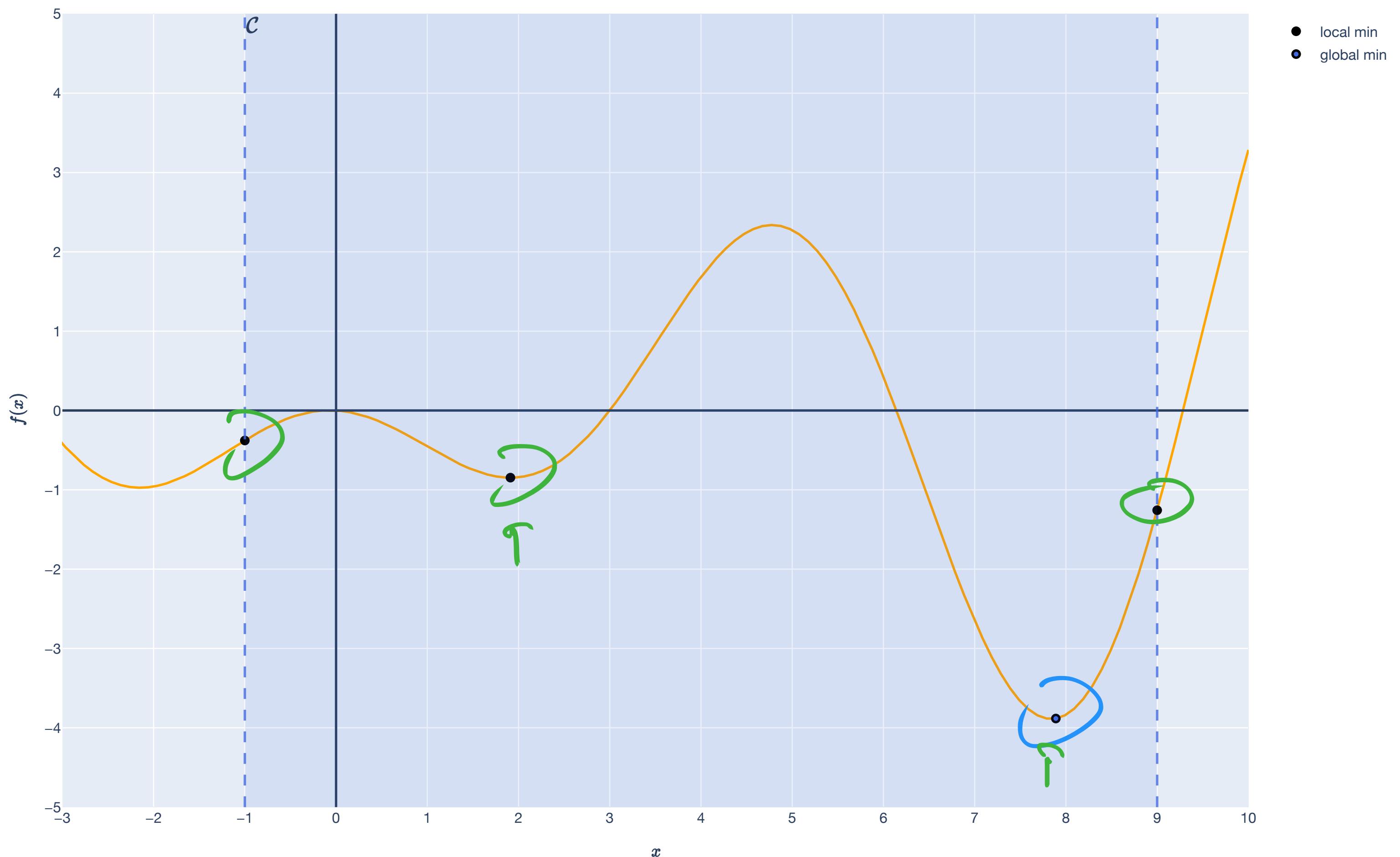
GLOBAL MIN.

# Motivation

## Optimization in single-variable calculus

**Ultimate goal:** Find the *global minimum* of functions.

**Intermediary goal:** Find the *local minima*.



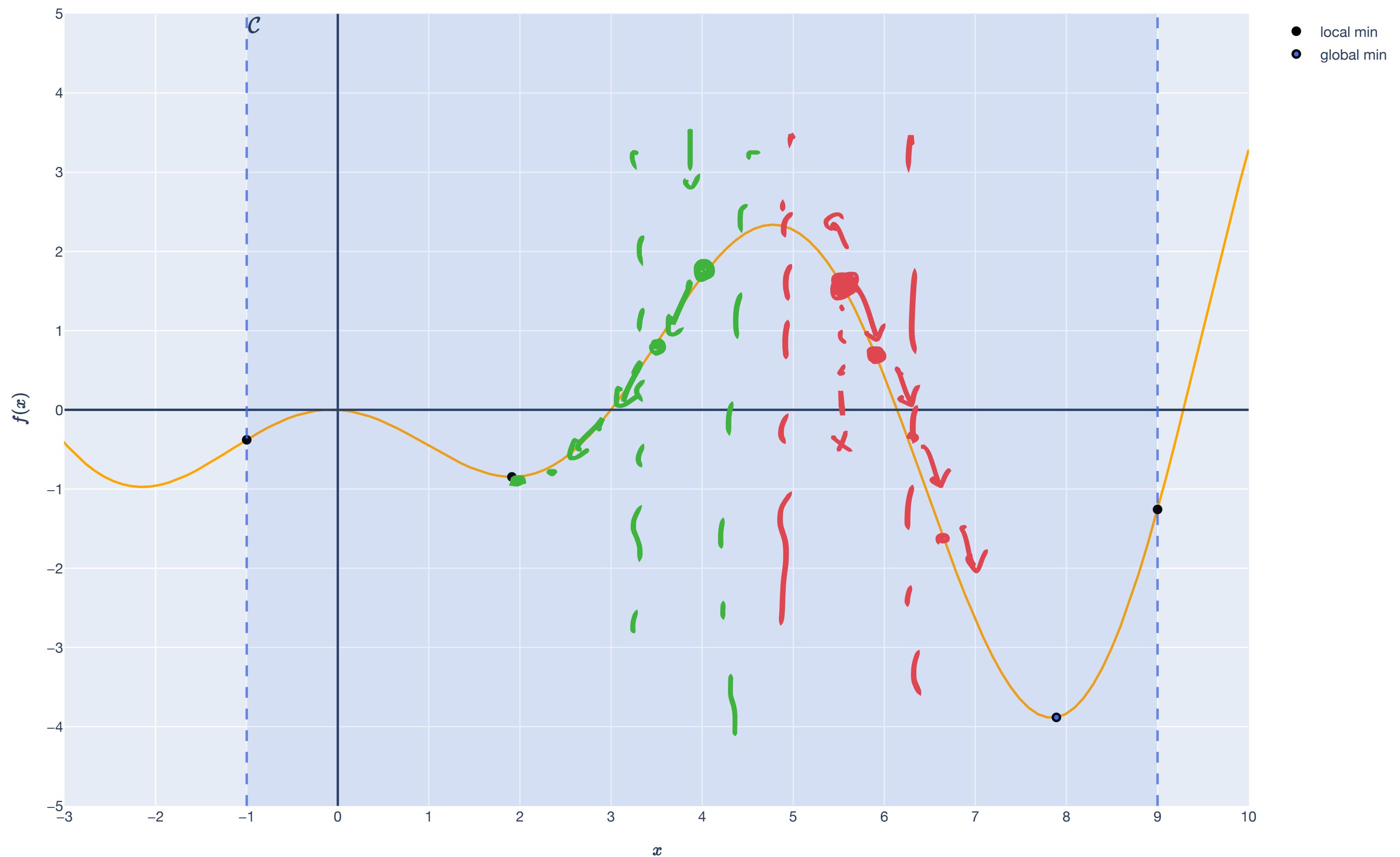
# Motivation

## Optimization in single-variable calculus

**Ultimate goal:** Find the *global minimum* of functions.

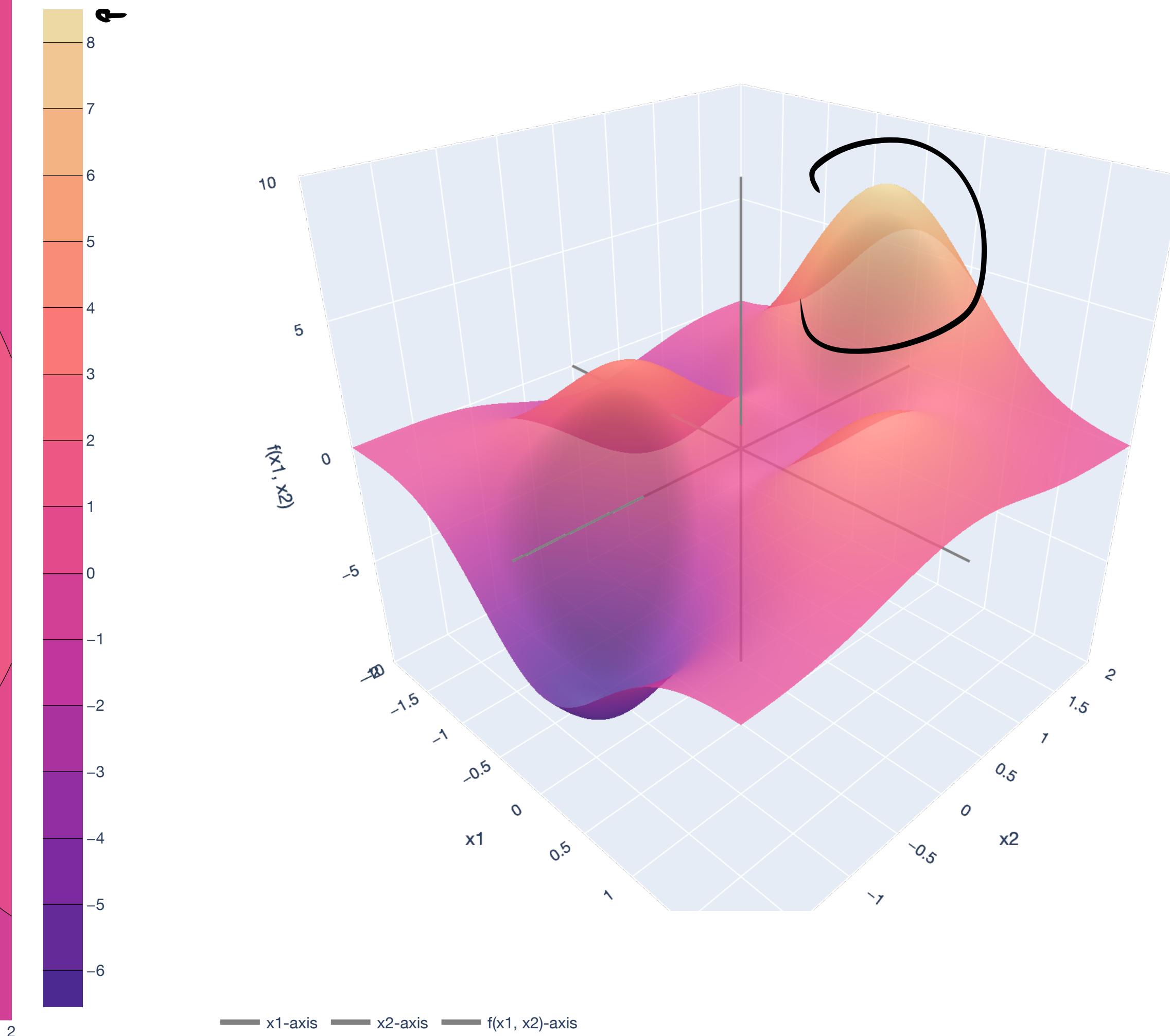
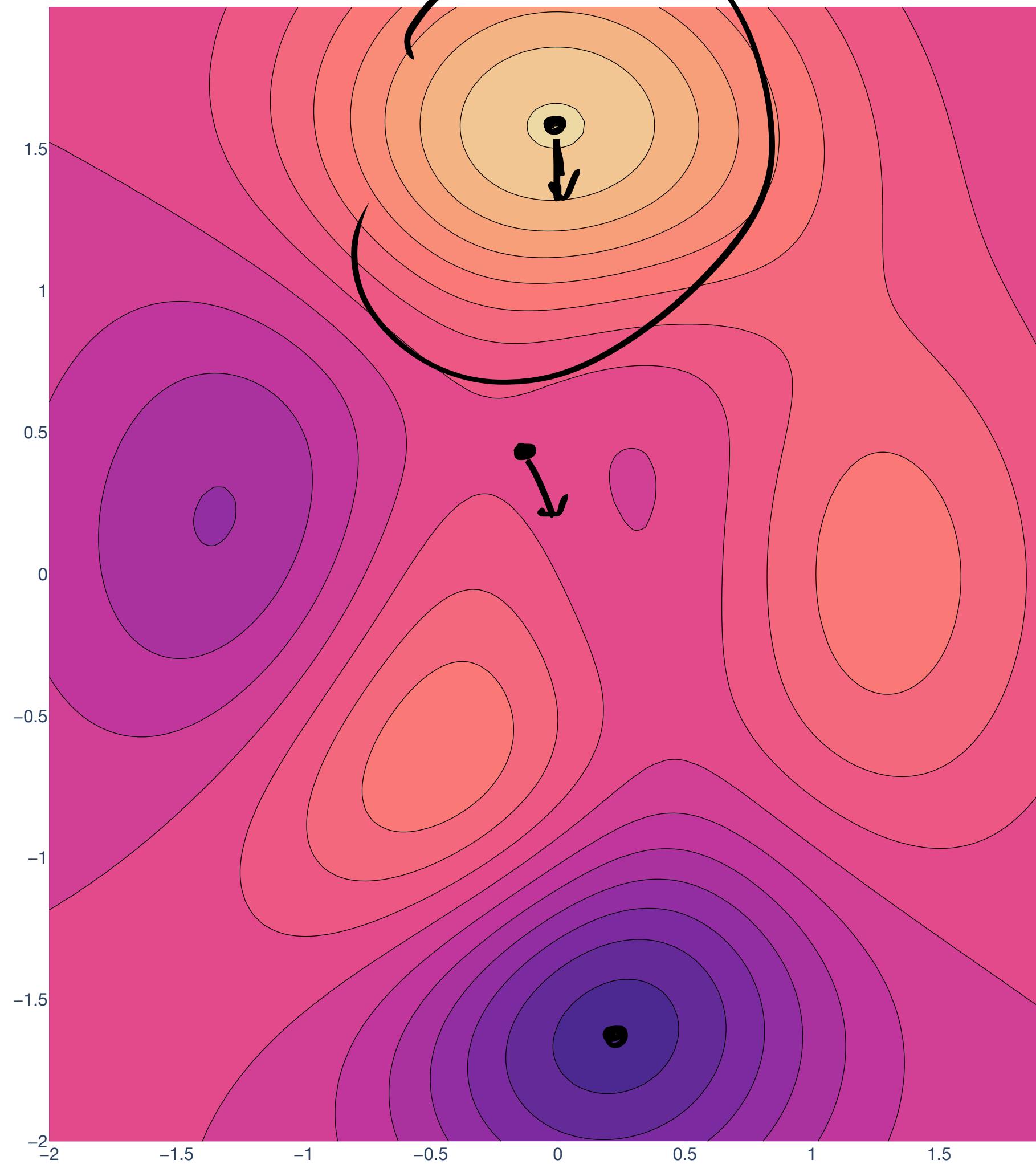
**Intermediary goal:** Find the *local minima*.

*Derivatives give us the direction of steepest descent!*



# Motivation

## Optimization in multi-variable calculus



# **Single-variable Differentiation**

Review of (some) single-variable calculus

# Single-variable Differentiation

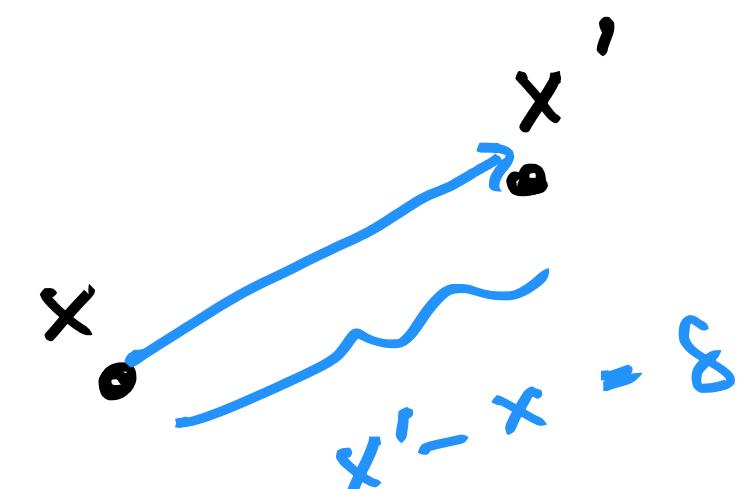
## Difference quotient

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \quad \delta$$

For a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the **difference quotient** computes the slope between two points  $x$  and  $x + \delta$ :  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta x} := \frac{f(x + \delta) - f(x)}{\delta}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x = 2 \\ x' = 3 \\ x + \delta = x' \end{array} \right\} \delta = x' - x = 1.$$



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Difference quotient

For a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the ***difference quotient*** computes the slope between two points  $x$  and  $x + \delta$ :

$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta x} := \frac{f(x + \delta) - f(x)}{\delta}$$

Throughout,  $\delta$  denotes “change in the inputs.” For any two points  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , we can write  $\delta = y - x$ .

For a linear function, this is the slope *everywhere*.

# Single-variable Differentiation

## Difference quotient

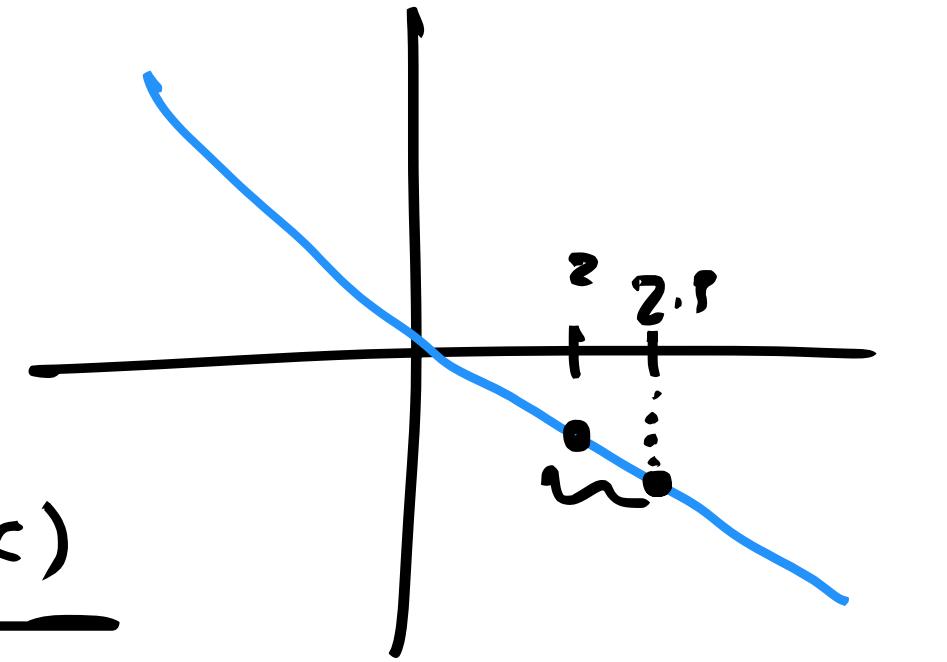
**Example.**  $f(x) = -2x$

$$x = 2$$

$$\delta = 0.5$$

$$x' = x + \delta = 2.5$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{f(x+\delta) - f(x)}{\delta} \\ &= \frac{-5 - (-2 \times 2)}{0.5} = -\frac{1}{0.5} = \underline{\underline{-2}} \end{aligned}$$

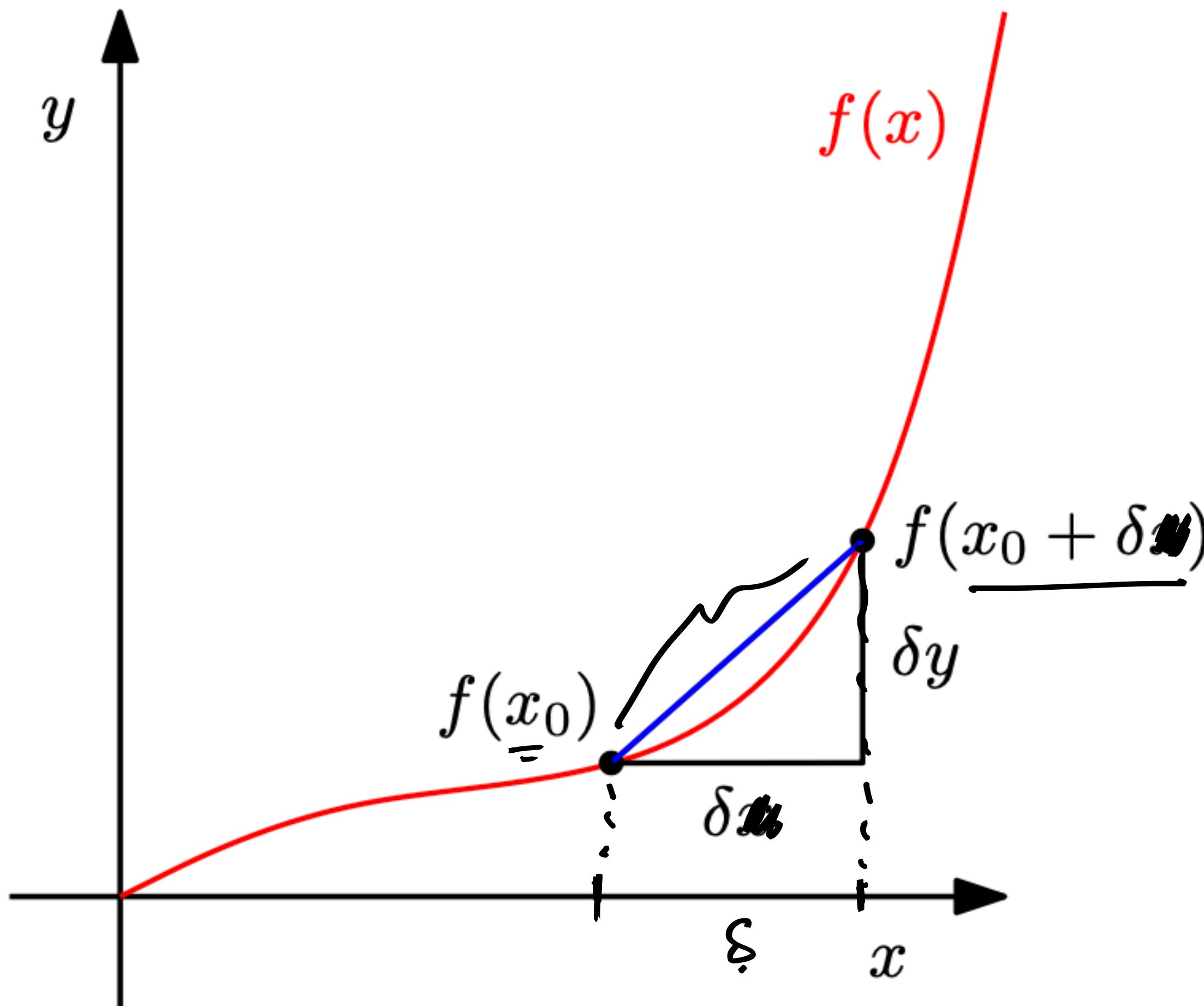


**Example.**  $f(x) = \underline{\underline{x^2 - 2x + 1}}$

# Single-variable Differentiation

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta x} := \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x}$$



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Definition of the derivative

For a function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the **derivative** of  $f$  at the point  $x$  is the value

$$\boxed{\frac{df}{dx}} := \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta) - f(x)}{\delta},$$

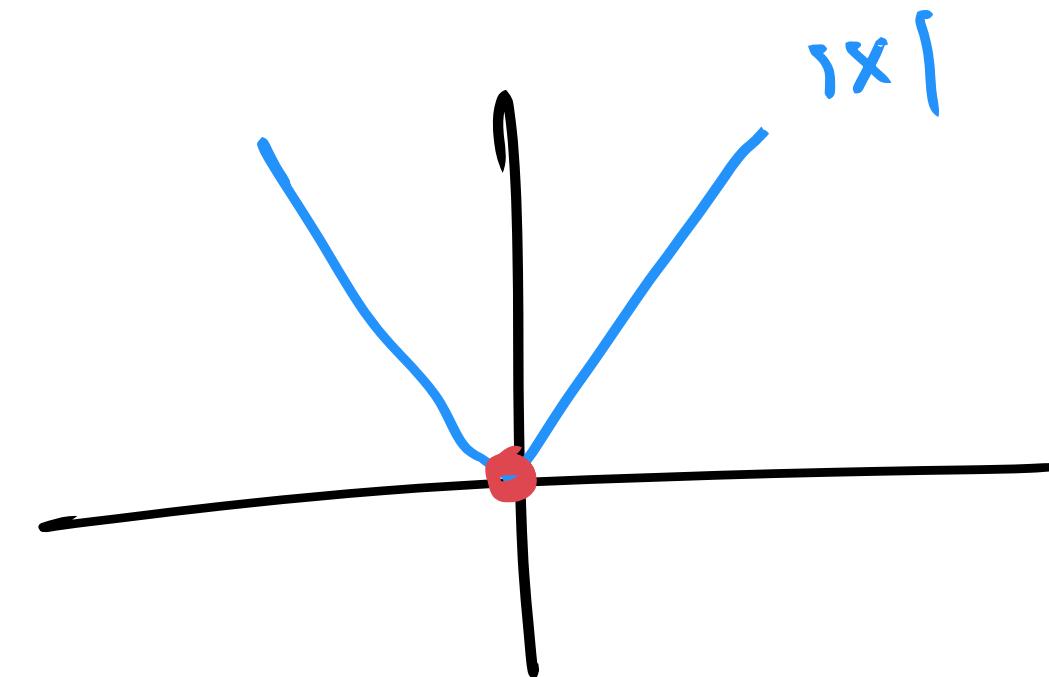
if the limit exists.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= x^2 \\ f'(x) &= 2x \\ x = 1 &\quad f'(1) = 2 \\ x = 2 &\quad f'(2) = 4 \\ \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta) - f(x)}{\delta} \end{aligned}$$

In this lecture, we will assume that all functions are *everywhere differentiable*. Not always the case, e.g.  $f(x) = |x|$ .  $\rightarrow$  corners; sharp edges.

We will also denote this as  $\boxed{f''(x)}$  or  $\boxed{\nabla f(x)}$ . *inabla*

**Important:** The derivative is defined at a point!



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Definition of the derivative

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$$\frac{df}{dx} := \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta x}{\delta y} = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta) - f(x)}{\delta},$$

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# Single-variable Differentiation

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# Single-variable Differentiation

## Definition of the derivative

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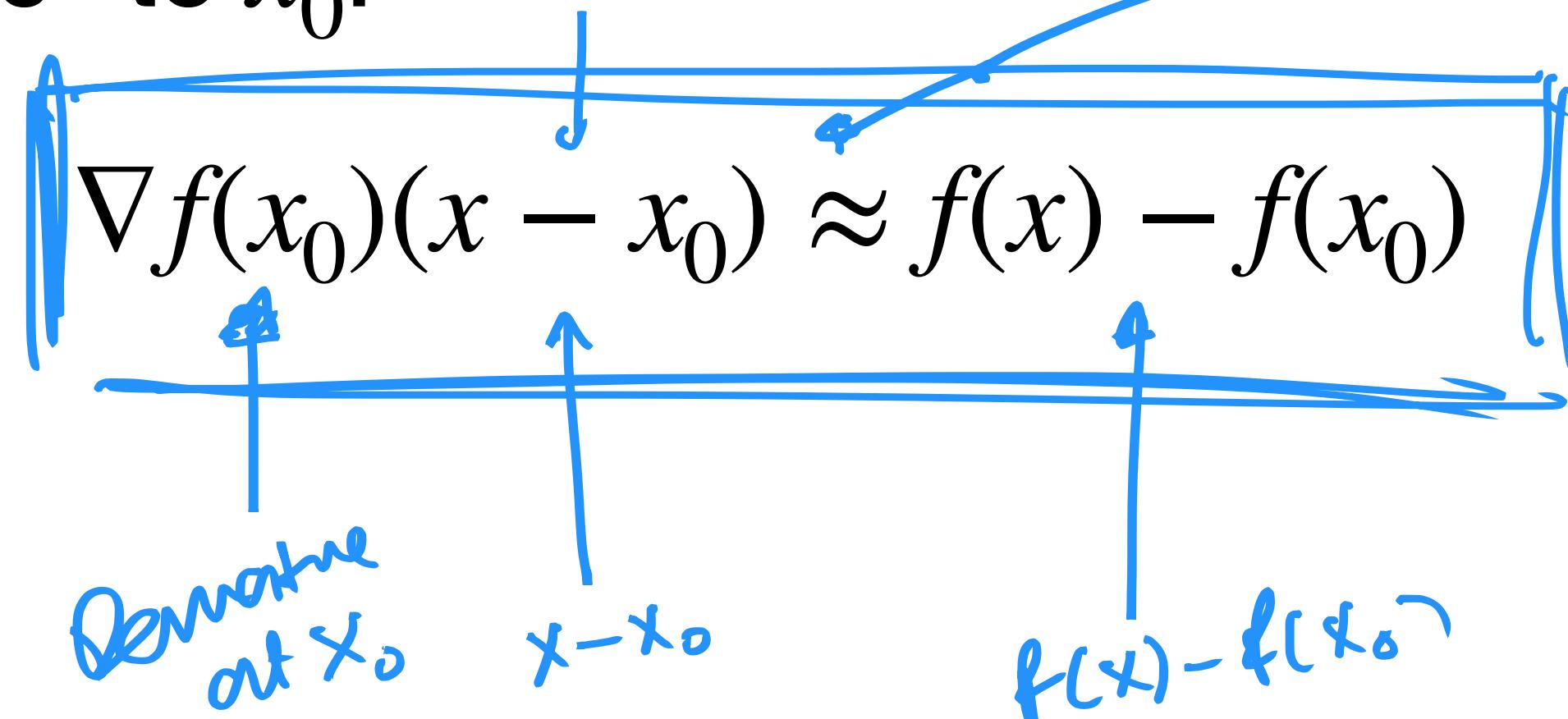
$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+\delta) - f(x)}{\delta} &= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2(x+\delta) + 2x}{\delta} \\ &\Rightarrow \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2x - 2\delta + 2x}{\delta} \\ &= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2\delta}{\delta} = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} -2 = \boxed{-2}. \end{aligned}$$

**Example.**  $f(x) = x^2 - 2x + 1$

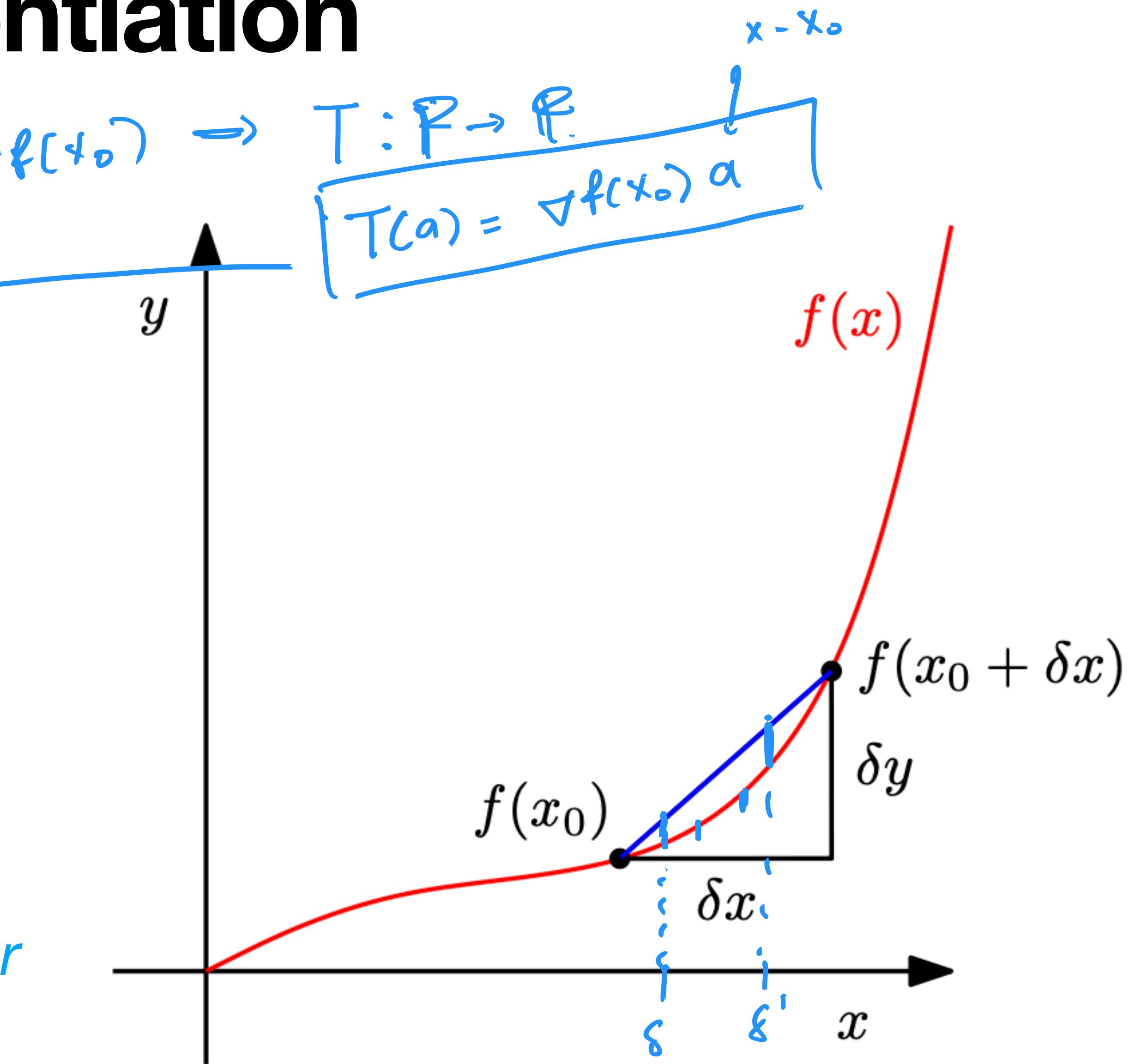
# Single-variable Differentiation

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Get used to thinking, for all  $x$  that are “close” to  $x_0$ :



The derivative gives a good local, linear approximation to the change in  $f(x)$ .



# Single-variable Differentiation

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

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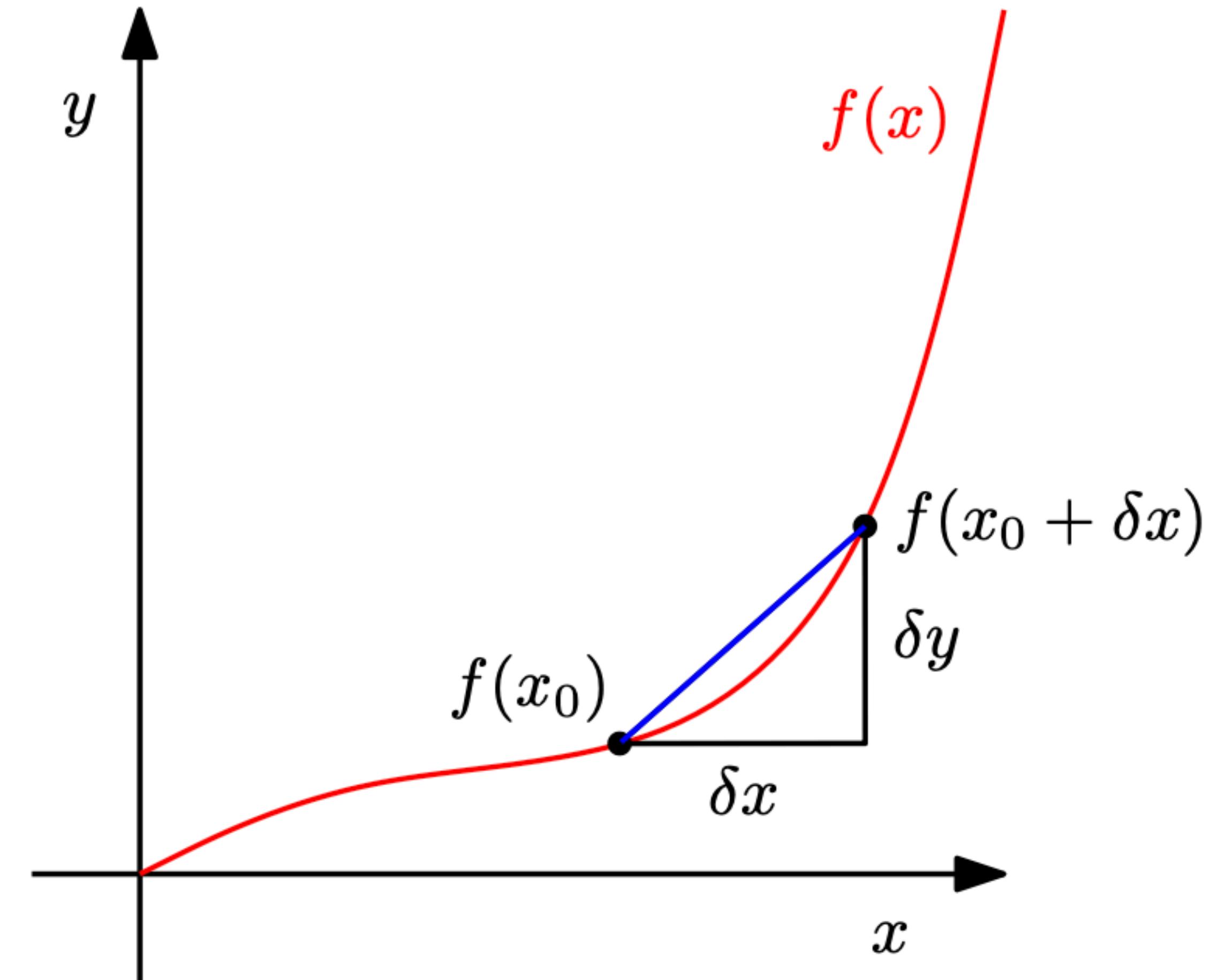
$$\nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

We can always write the “target point” as

$$x = x_0 + \delta.$$

$$\nabla f(x_0) \cdot \delta \approx f(x_0 + \delta) - f(x_0)$$

*The derivative gives a good local, linear approximation to the change in  $f(x)$ .*



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Review: basic derivative rules

Product rule:

$$\nabla(f(x)g(x)) = g(x)\nabla f(x) + f(x)\nabla g(x)$$

Quotient rule:

$$\nabla\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{g(x)\nabla f(x) - f(x)\nabla g(x)}{g(x)^2}$$

Sum rule:

$$\nabla(f(x) + g(x)) = \nabla f(x) + \nabla g(x)$$

Chain rule:

$$\nabla(g(f(x))) = \nabla(g \circ f)(x) = \nabla g(f(x))\nabla f(x)$$

# Linearity

## Review from linear algebra

Linearity is the central property in linear algebra. Cooking is linear.

Bacon, egg, cheese (on roll)

1 egg

1 slice of cheese

1 slice bacon

1 Kaiser roll

0 cream cheese

0 slices of lox

0 bagel

Bacon, egg, cheese (on bagel)

1 egg

1 slice of cheese

1 slice bacon

0 Kaiser roll

0 cream cheese

0 slices of lox

1 bagel

Lox sandwich

0 egg

0 slice of cheese

0 slice bacon

0 Kaiser roll

1 cream cheese

2 slices of lox

1 bagel

# Linearity

## Review from linear algebra

Linearity is the central property in linear algebra. A function (“transformation”)  $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is linear if  $T$  satisfies these two properties for any two vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$T(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = T(\mathbf{a}) + T(\mathbf{b})$$

$$T(c\mathbf{a}) = cT(\mathbf{a}) \text{ for any } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

# Linearity

## Review from linear algebra

$$A(v+w) = Av + Aw$$

Linearity is the central property in linear algebra. A function (“transformation”)  $T : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is linear if  $T$  satisfies these two properties for any two vectors  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$T(a + b) = T(a) + T(b)$$

$$T(ca) = cT(a) \text{ for any } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

# Single-variable Differentiation

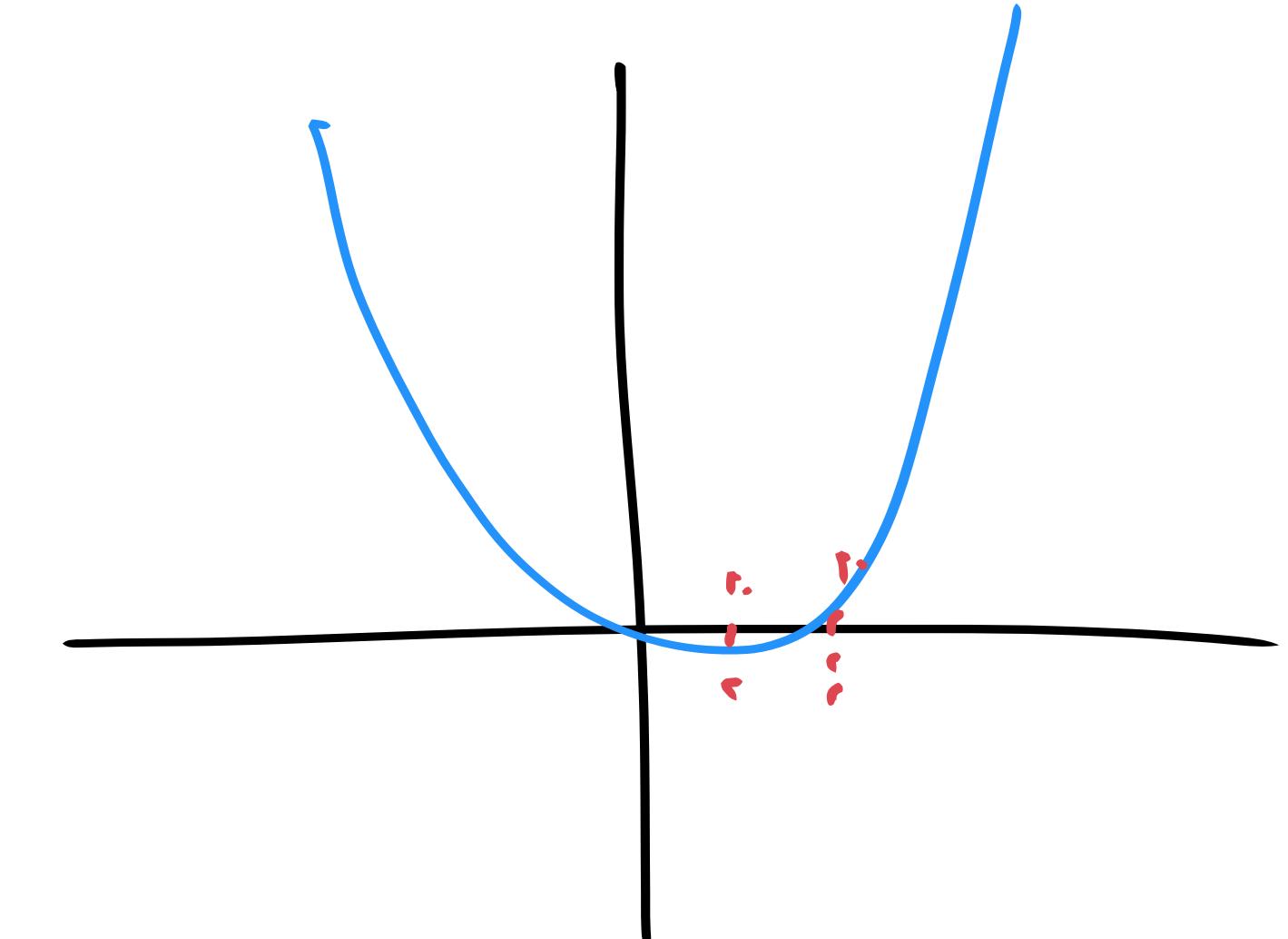
## Linearity and differentiation

Why do we like linear transformations?

$$\nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

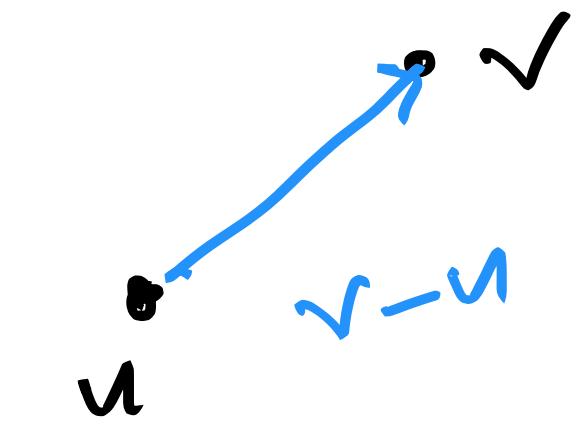
Recall:  $T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$  and  $T(cx) = cT(x)$ .

} Derivative exploits the fact that, on small scales, things behave linearly!



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Linearity and differentiation



The derivative is a linear transformation that maps changes in  $x$  to changes in  $y$ . We like linear transformations!

=

$T : \text{change in } x \rightarrow \text{change in } y$

$$\nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

*Beside*  $\nabla f(x_0)$   $x - x_0$   $\in \mathbb{R}$

Derivative



Linear Transformation.

$$A \rightarrow T_A : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$T_A(\vec{x}) = \vec{Ax}$$

$$f'(x_0) \rightarrow \boxed{T_{\nabla f(x_0)} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}}$$
$$T(a) = \nabla f(x_0) a$$

# Single-variable Differentiation

## Linearity and differentiation

- I want to approx.  $x$   
 $f(x)$
  - I have defined at  $x_0$   
 $\nabla f(x_0)$
- $$\delta = x - x_0$$

The derivative is a linear transformation that maps changes in  $x$  to changes in  $y$ . We like linear transformations!

$$T : \text{change in } x \rightarrow \text{change in } y$$

$$\nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$ . The derivative of  $f$  at  $x = 1$  is  $\nabla f(1) = 2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla f(x) &= 2x \\ \nabla f(1) &= 2 \\ T_{\nabla f(1)}(a) &= 2a \end{aligned}$$

The derivative is nothing more than a  $1 \times 1$  matrix in single-variable differentiation:

$$\nabla f(1) = [2]. \leftarrow$$

A goal of differential calculus, for us, is to replace nonlinear functions with linear approximations!

# Single-variable Differentiation

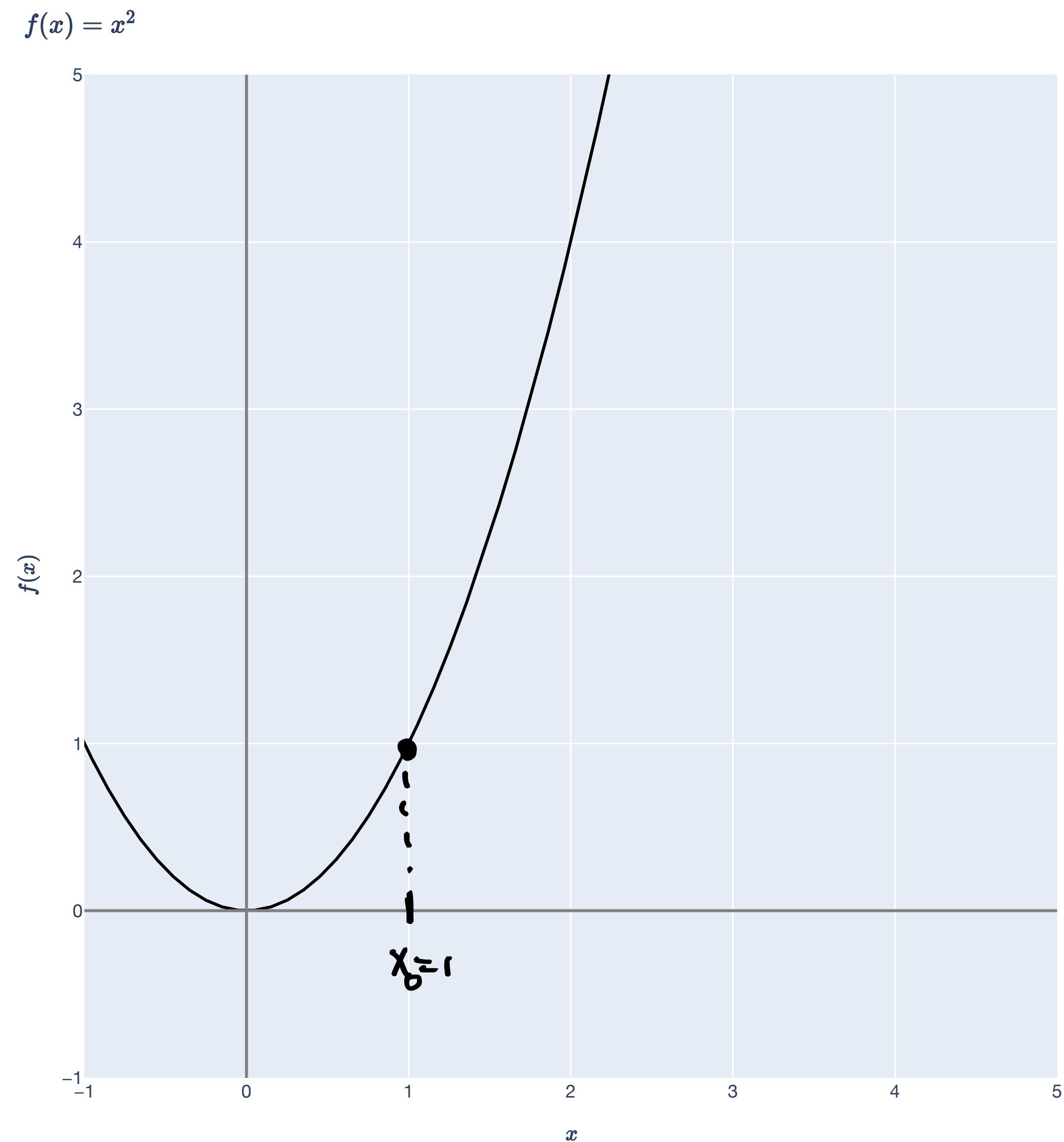
## Linearity and differentiation

Calculate some examples of

$$\nabla f(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$ .  $\nabla f(x) = 2x$

The derivative of  $f$  at  $x = 1$  is  $\nabla f(1) = 2$ .



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Linearity and differentiation

Calculate some examples of

$$\nabla f(1) \cdot (x - 1).$$

$$T_{\nabla f(1)}(x - 1) = z(x - 1)$$

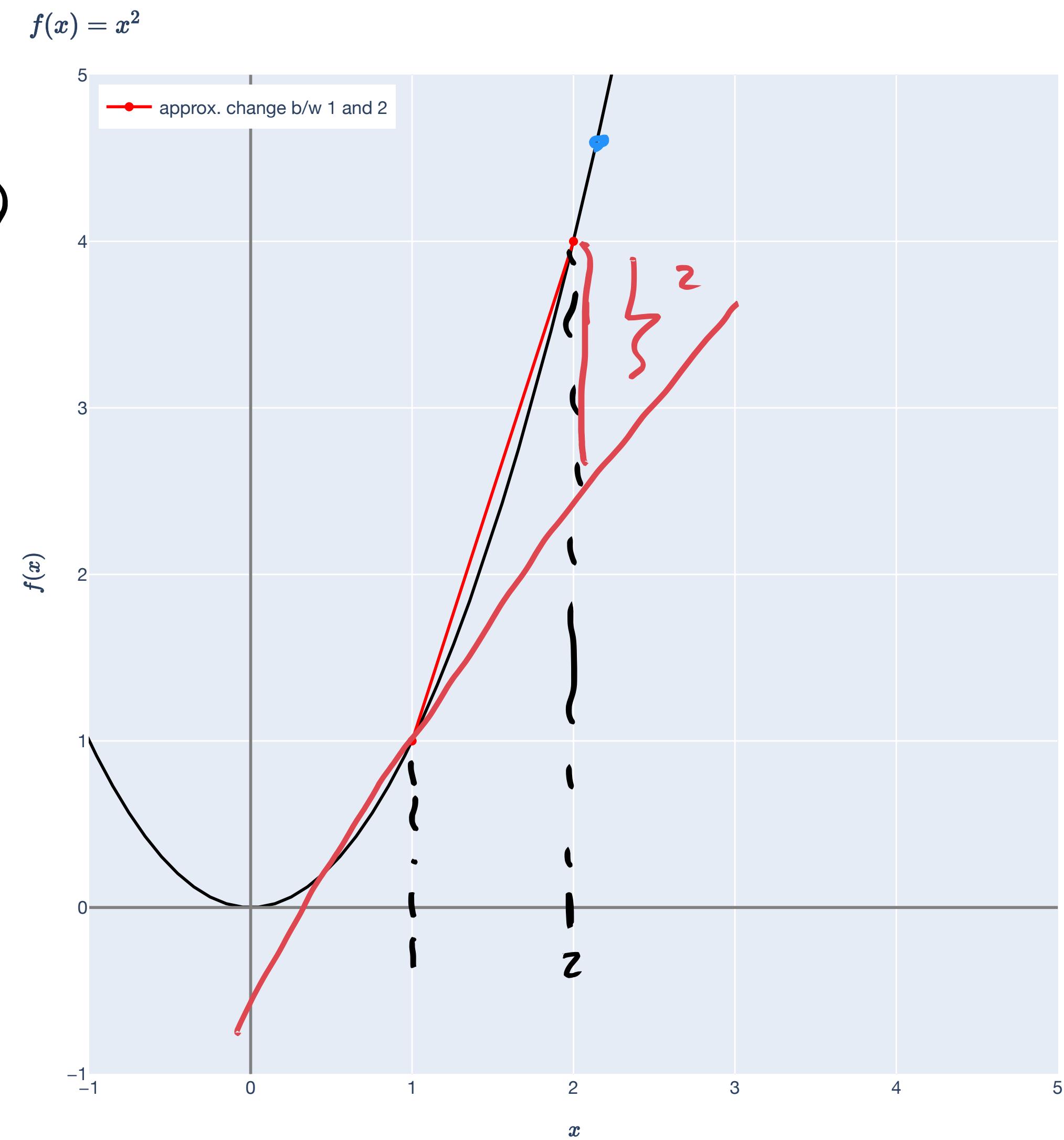
Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$ .

The derivative of  $f$  at  $x = 1$  is  $\nabla f(1) = 2$ .

$$\nabla f(1)(2 - 1) = [2](2 - 1) = 2 \approx \text{change in } f(x) \text{ between 1 and 2}$$

$\nabla f(1)(z - 1) = 2$

$$f(z) = z^2 - 4$$
$$f(z) - f(1) = 4 - 1 = 3$$



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Linearity and differentiation

Calculate some examples of  
 $\nabla f(1) \cdot (x - 1)$ .

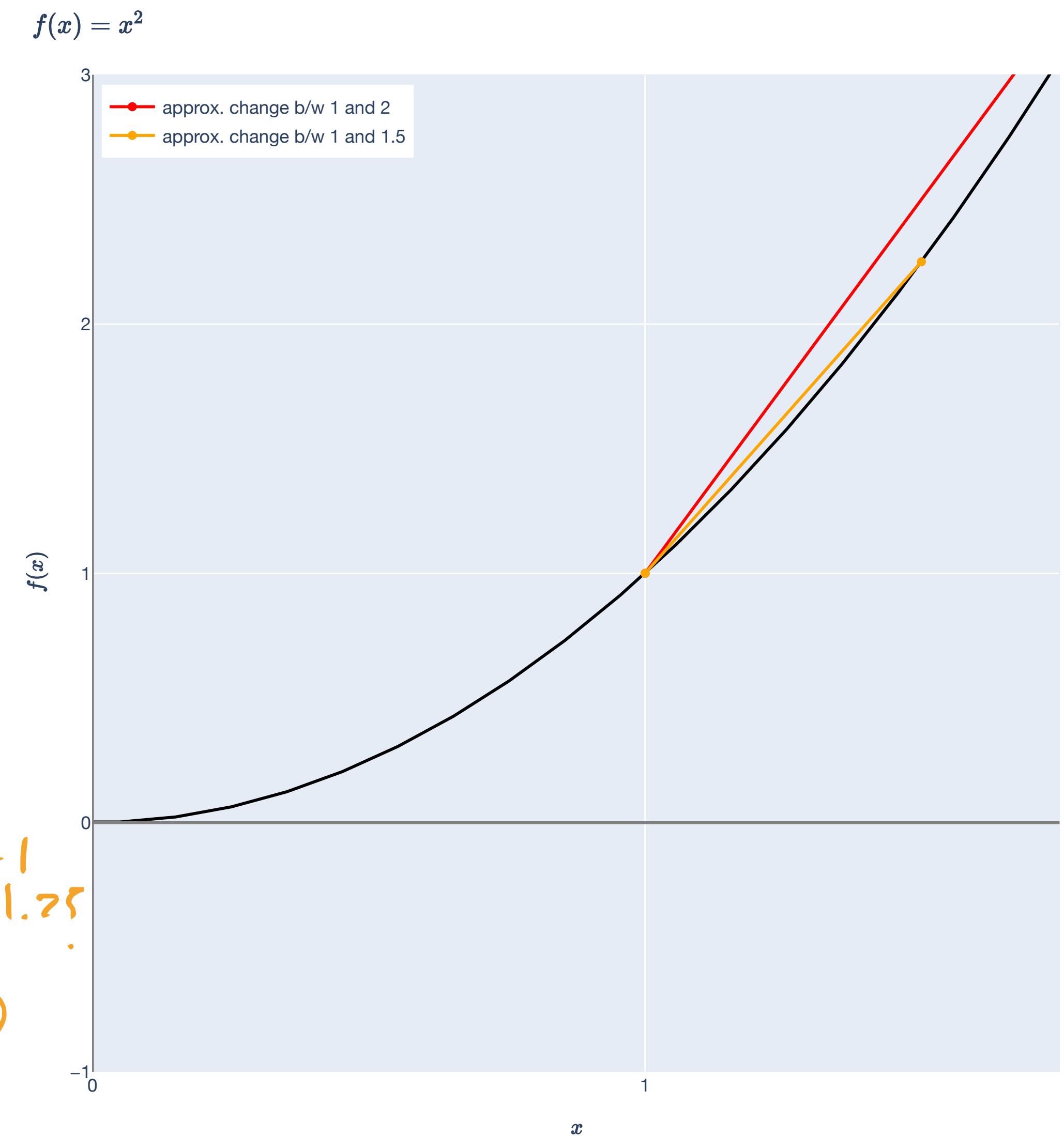
Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$ .

The derivative of  $f$  at  $x = 1$  is  $\nabla f(1) = 2$ .

$\nabla f(1)(2 - 1) = [2](2 - 1) = 2 \approx \text{change in } f(x) \text{ between 1 and 2}$

$\nabla f(1)(1.5 - 1) = [2](\underline{1.5} - 1) = 1 \approx \text{change in } f(x) \text{ between 1 and 1.5}$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(1)(1.5 - 1) &= [1] \\ f(1.5) &= 2.25 \\ f(1) &= 1 \\ f(1.5) - f(1) &= 1.25\end{aligned}$$



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Linearity and differentiation

Calculate some examples of  $\nabla f(1) \cdot (x - 1)$ .

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$ .

The derivative of  $f$  at  $x = 1$  is  $\nabla f(1) = 2$ .

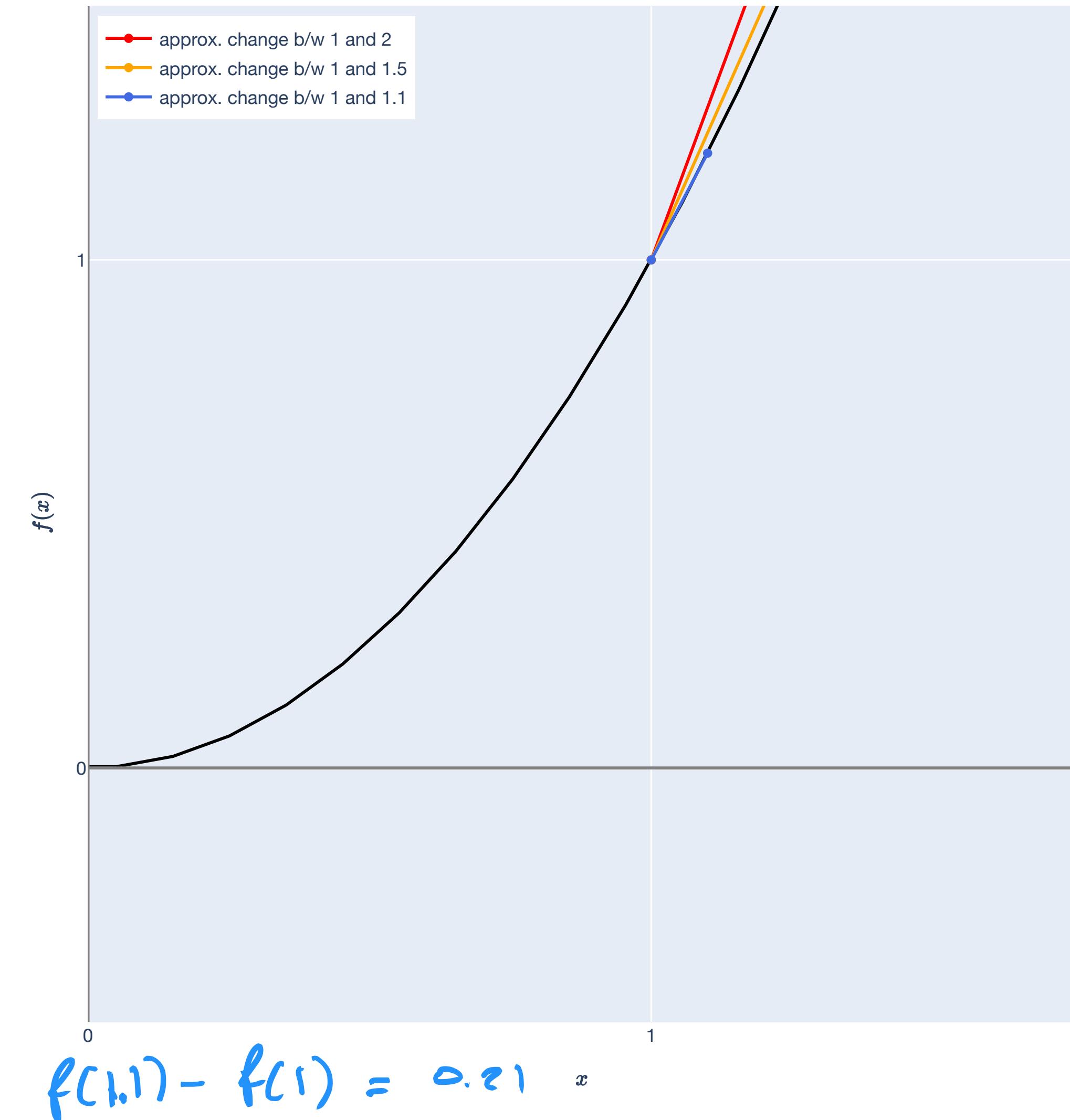
$$\nabla f(1)(2 - 1) = [2](2 - 1) = 2 \approx \text{change in } f(x) \text{ between 1 and 2}$$

$$\nabla f(1)(1.5 - 1) = [2](1.5 - 1) = 1 \approx \text{change in } f(x) \text{ between 1 and 1.5}$$

$$\nabla f(1)(1.1 - 1) = [2](1.1 - 1) = 0.2 \approx \text{change in } f(x) \text{ between 1 and 1.1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(1)(1.1 - 1) &= 0.2 \\ f(1.1) &= 1.1^2 - 1 = 1.21 - 1 = 0.21\end{aligned}$$

$$f(x) = x^2$$



# Single-variable Differentiation

## Linearity and differentiation

The derivative is a linear transformation that maps changes in  $x$  to changes in  $y$ .  
We like linear transformations!

$T$  : change in  $x \rightarrow$  change in  $y$

$$\nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

The derivative is nothing more than a  $1 \times 1$  matrix in single-variable differentiation.

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Review of multivariable notions of derivative

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Scalar-valued vs. vector-valued functions

$f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a scalar-valued multivariable function,  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector-valued multivariable function.

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}_0), \dots, f_n(\mathbf{x}_0))$$

$$f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$f(\vec{v}) = \|\vec{v} - \vec{y}\|^2$$

vector-valued.

But  $\mathbf{f}$  is just made up of  $n$  scalar-valued functions.

**Upshot:** Just treat vector-valued functions as a collection of  $n$  scalar-valued functions, and deal with each coordinate individually.

# Multivariable Differentiation

**Big picture: total, partial, and directional derivatives.**

The **total derivative** (or just derivative) of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is a linear transformation  $D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ .

The **gradient** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is the vector  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  associated with the total derivative of a scalar-valued  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

The **Jacobian** of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is the  $n \times d$  matrix  $\nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$  associated with the total derivative of a vector-valued  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ .

The **directional derivative** of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  in the direction  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is the derivative applied to  $\mathbf{v}$ :

$$\underbrace{\nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)}_{n \times d} \underbrace{\mathbf{v}}_{d \times 1}, \text{ via matrix-vector multiplication.}$$

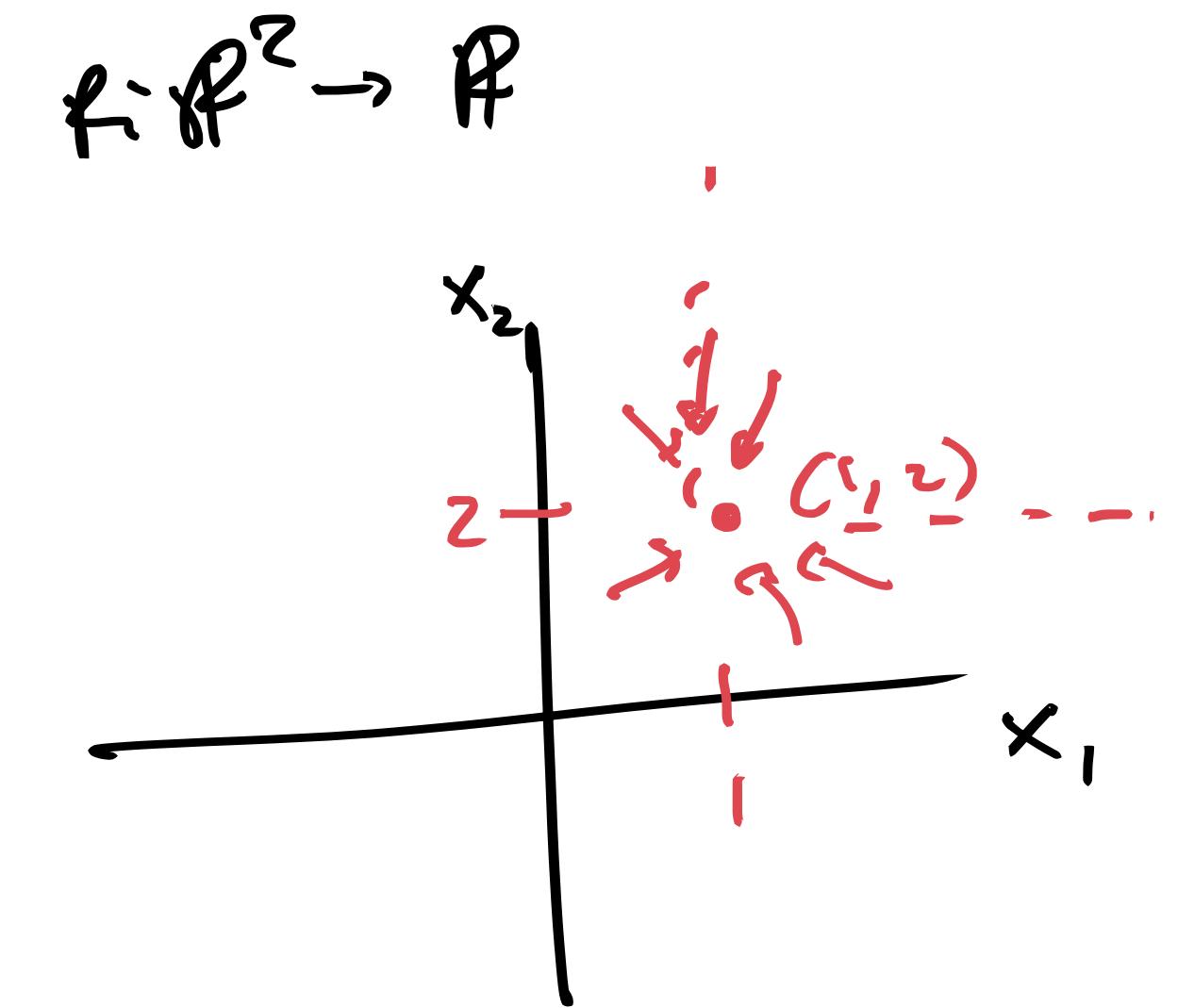
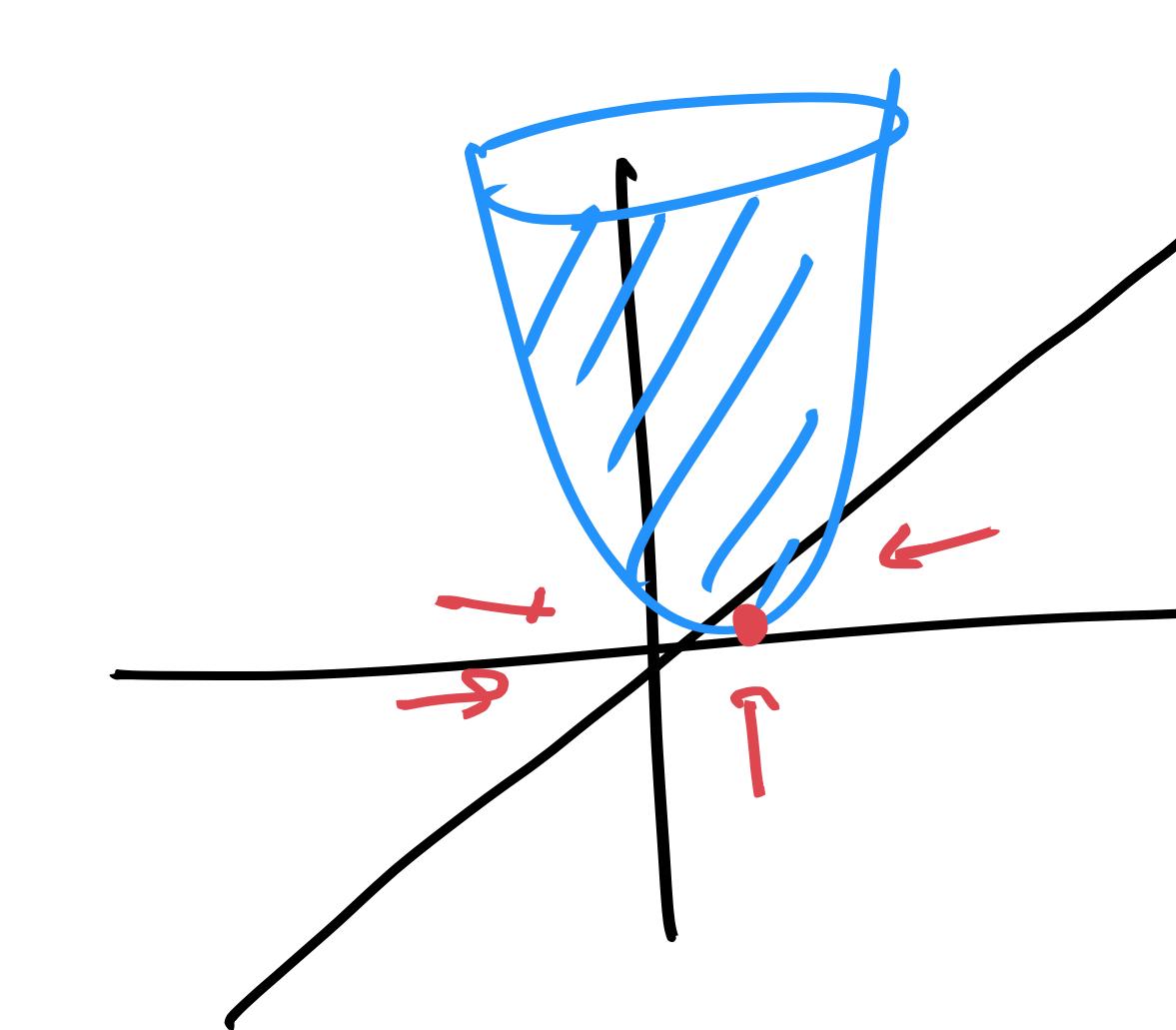
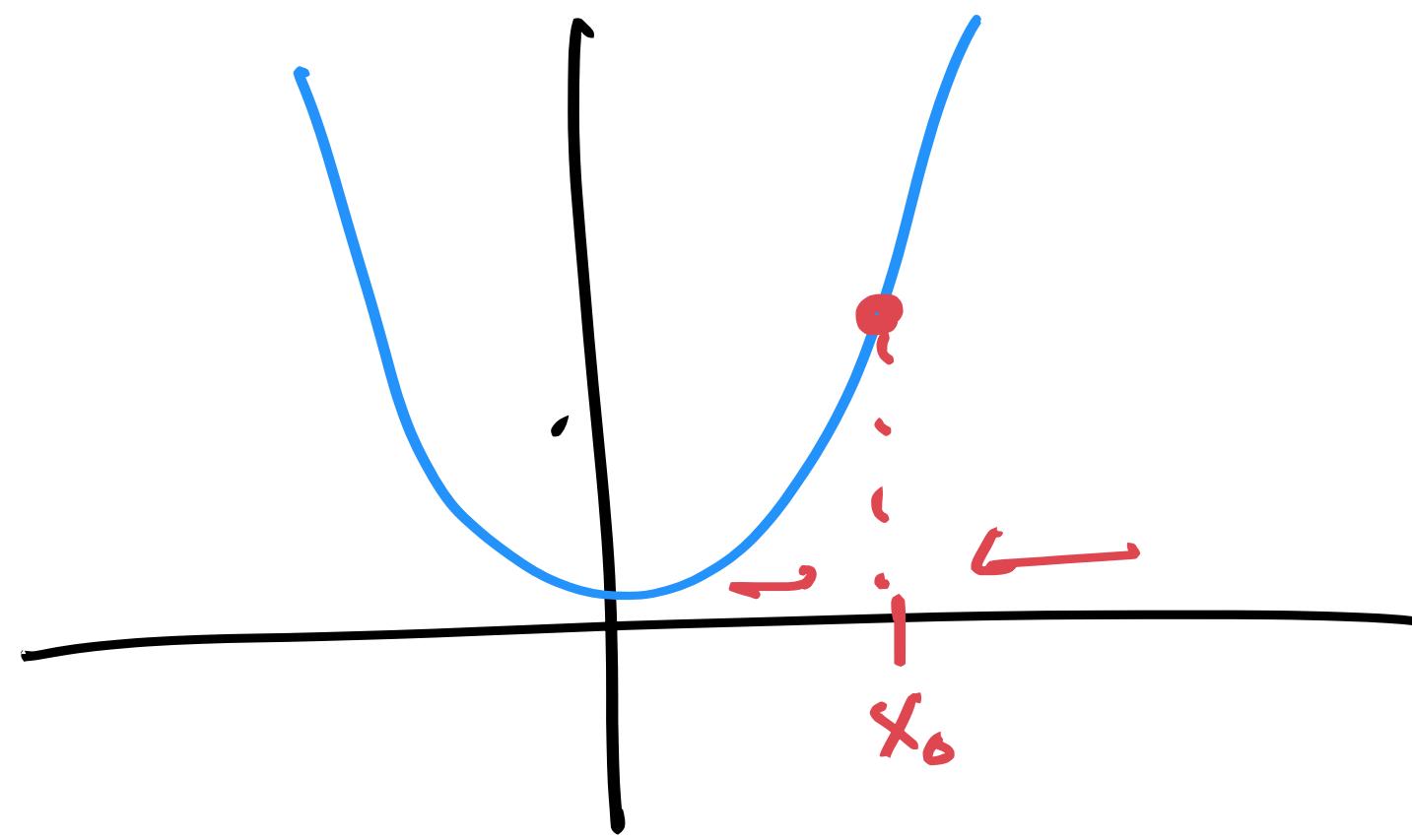
The ***i*'th partial derivative** of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is the directional derivative in the unit basis direction  $\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ .

# Multivariable Differentiation

Why is multivariable differentiation harder to pin down than single-variable differentiation?

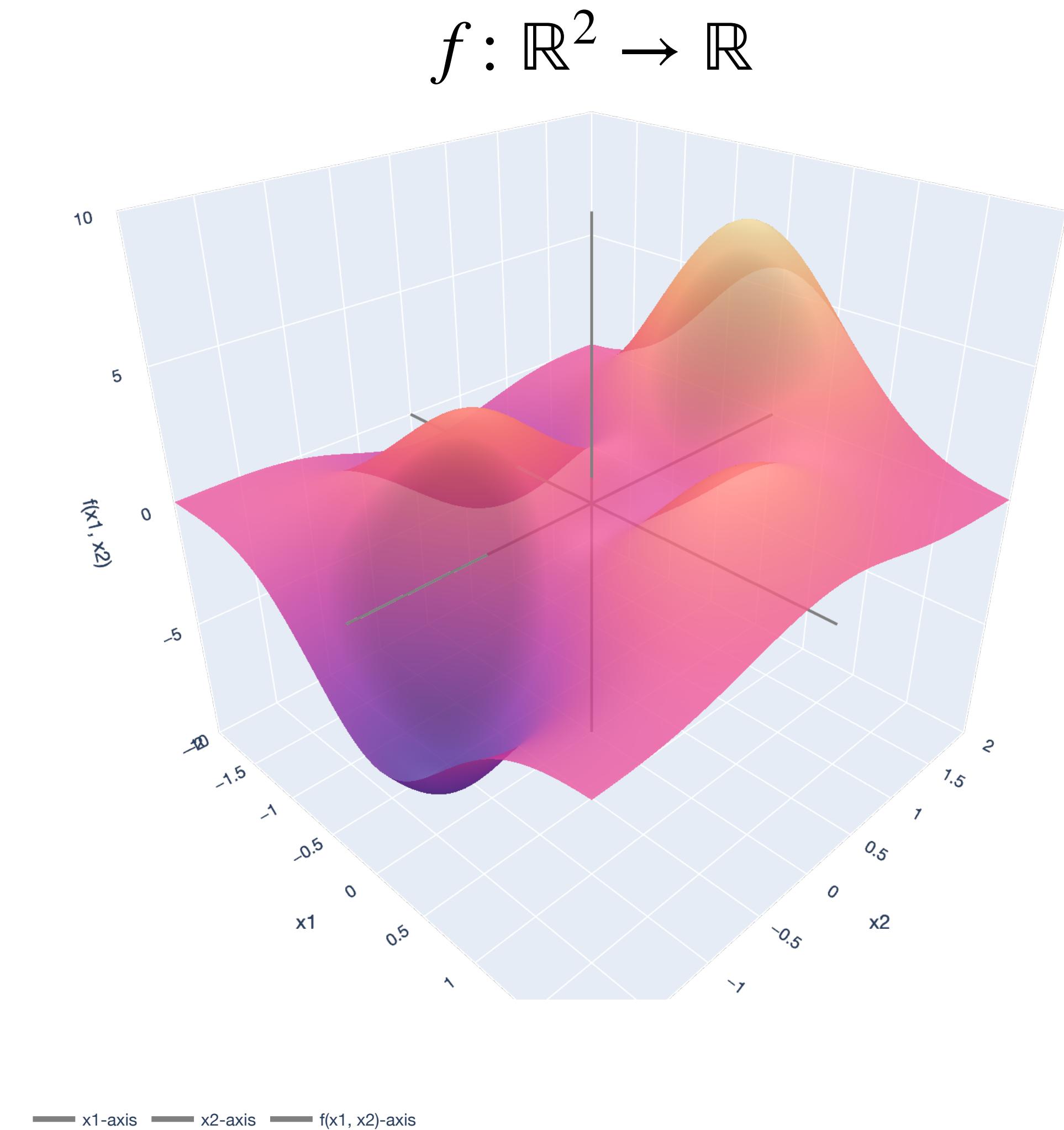
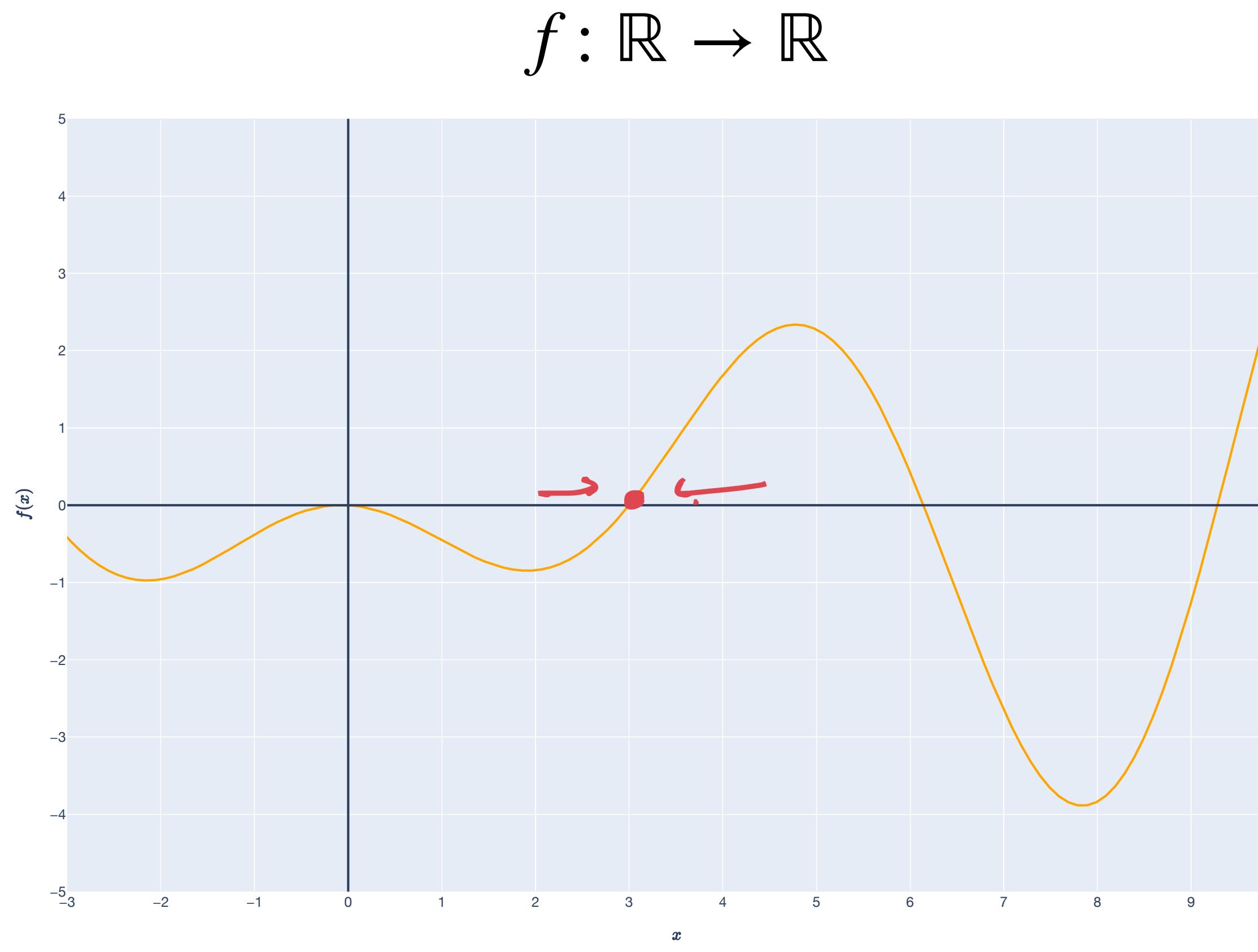
In  $\mathbb{R}$ , there are only two directions from which we can approach  $x_0$  (on a standard Cartesian plane, the “left” and the “right”).

In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we can approach  $\mathbf{x}_0$  from infinitely many directions!



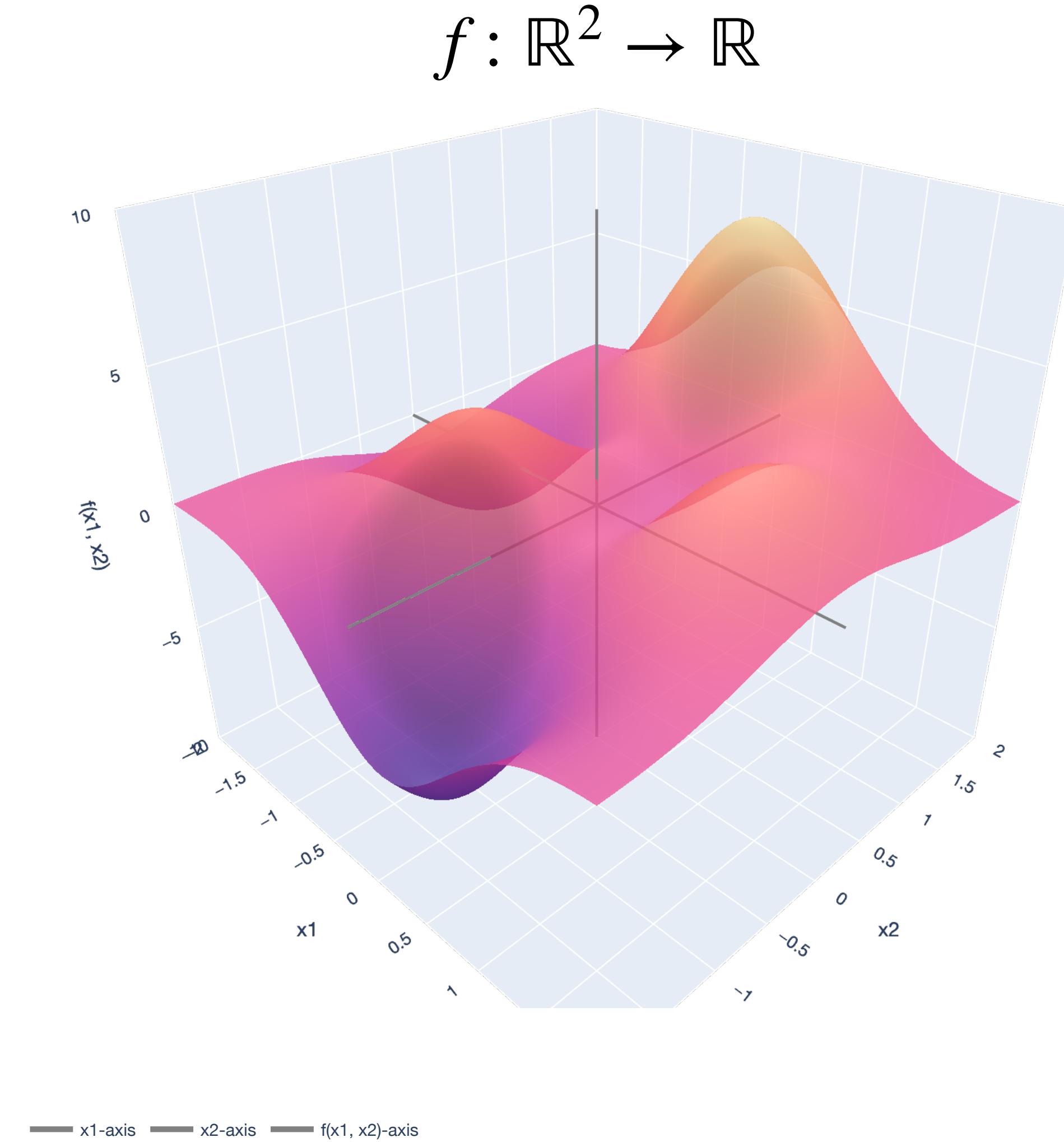
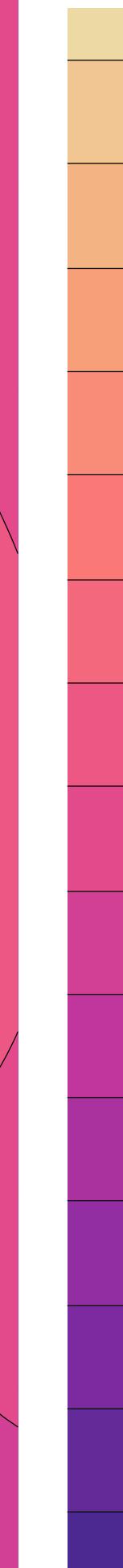
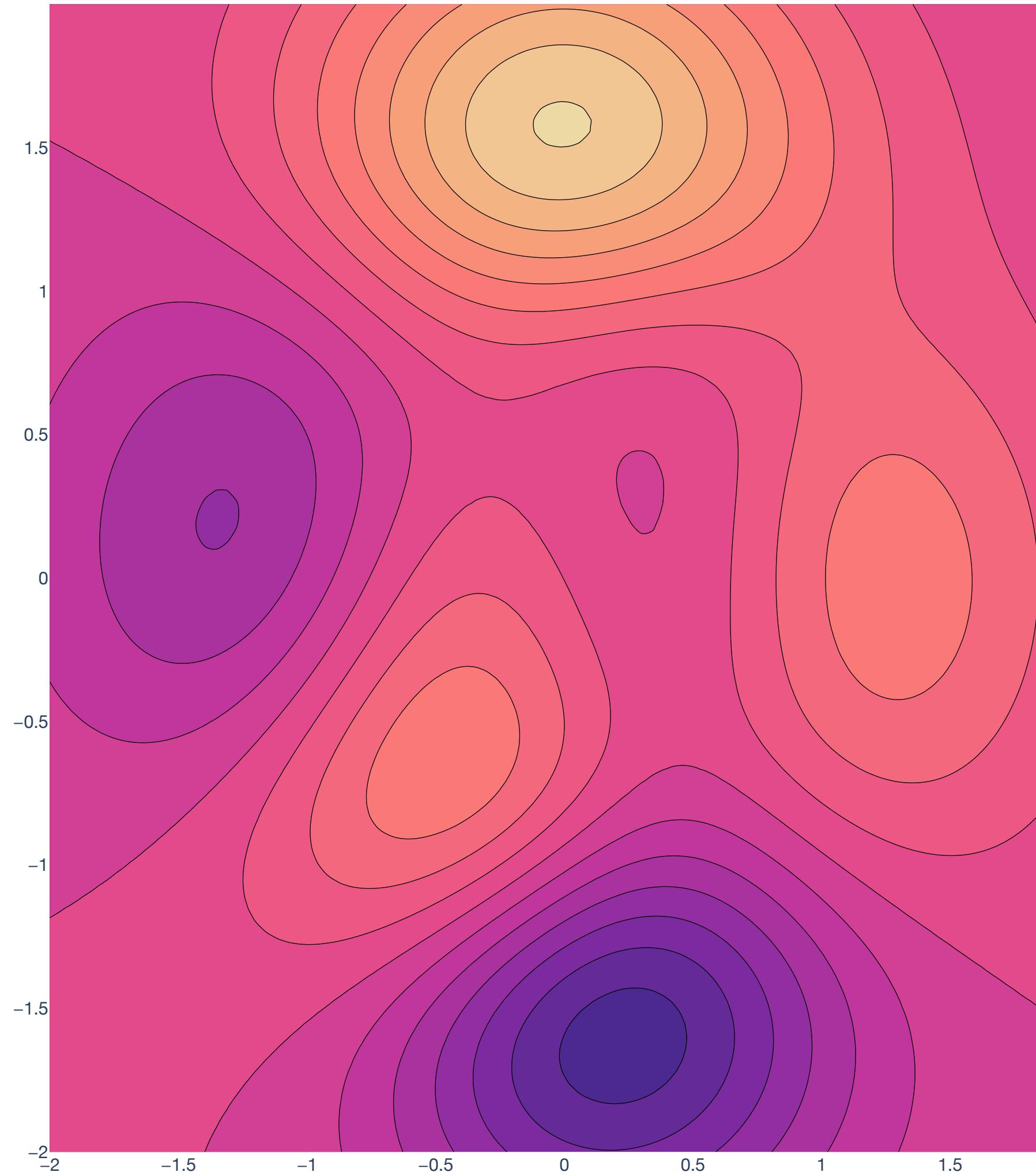
# Multivariable Differentiation

## Approach directions



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Approach directions



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Directional and partial derivatives

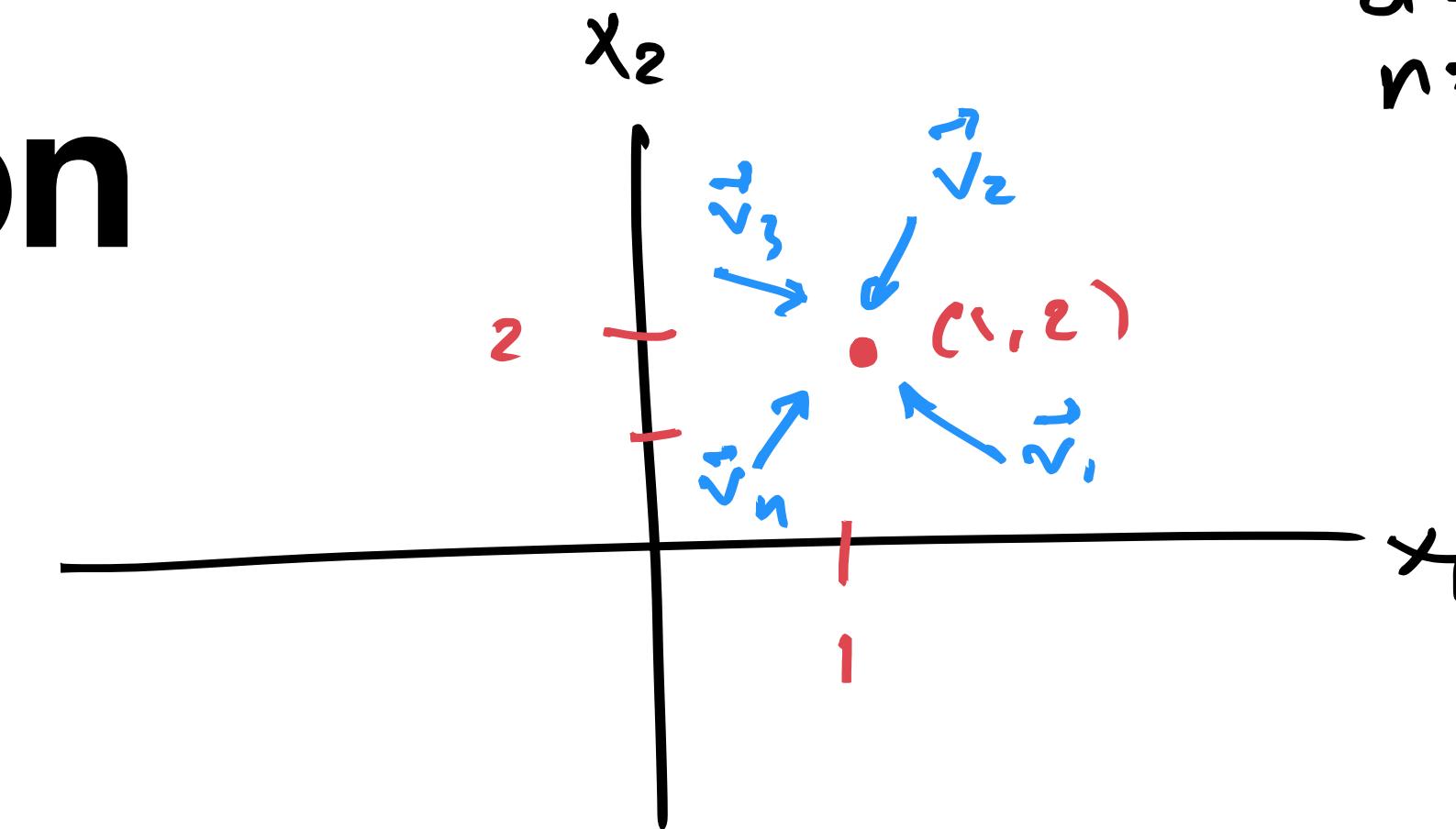
$$d=2$$

$$n=1$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Directional and partial derivatives

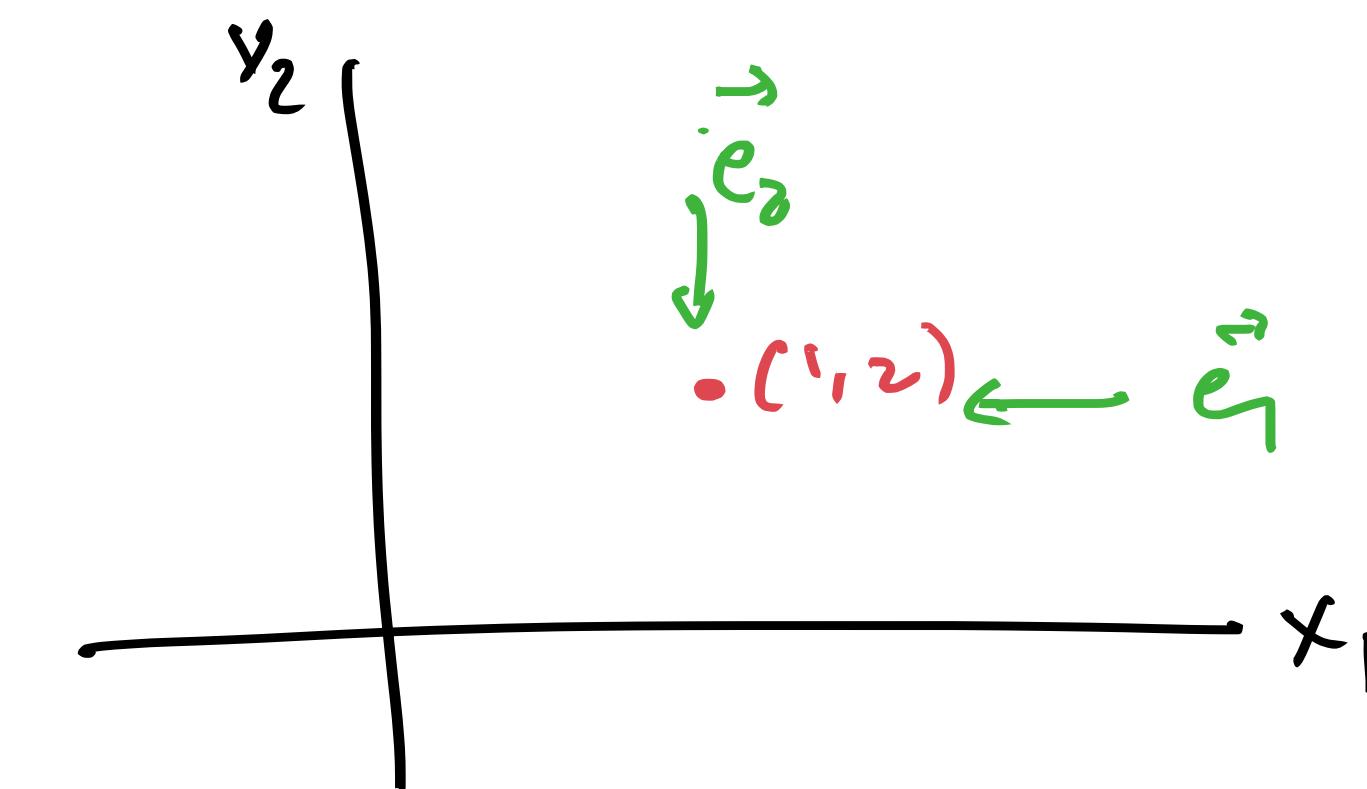
For  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and point  $\underline{x_0}$ ...



The **directional derivative** is change in  $f$  when we approach  $\underline{x_0}$  from the direction defined by some vector  $\mathbf{v}$ .

The **ith partial derivative** is change in  $f$  when we approach  $\underline{x_0}$  from the standard basis direction  $e_i$ .

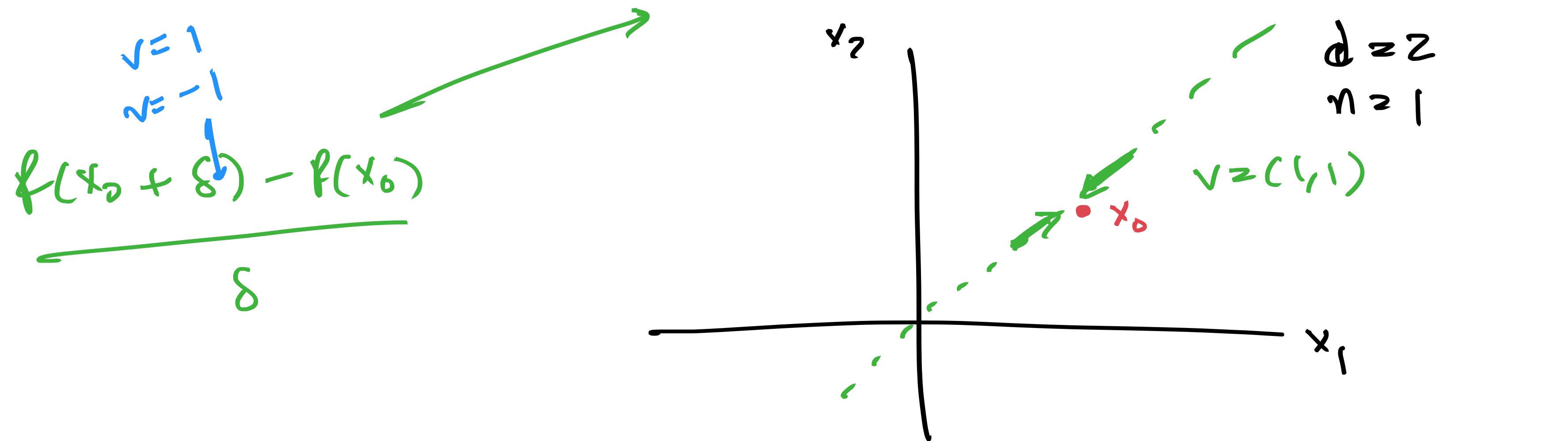
$\approx$



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Directional derivative

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a function. The directional derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$  in the direction  $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is



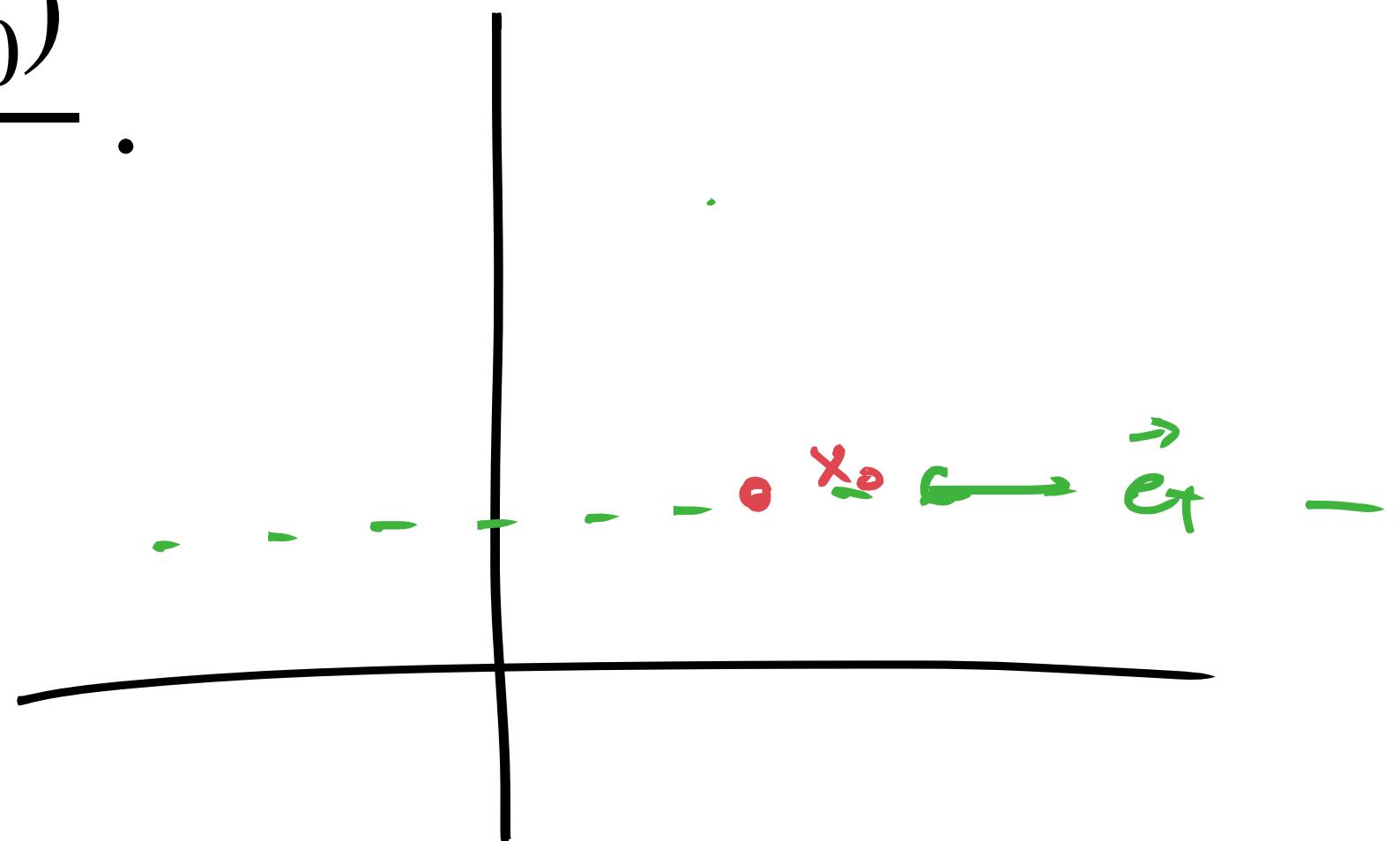
# Multivariable Differentiation

## Partial derivative

Let  $\mathbf{e}_i$  be the  $i$ th standard basis vector in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

The ***ith partial derivative*** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is the directional derivative in the direction  $\mathbf{e}_i$ , also written as:

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_0 + \delta \mathbf{e}_i) - f(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\delta}.$$



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Partial derivative

The *ith partial derivative* of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  can also be written:

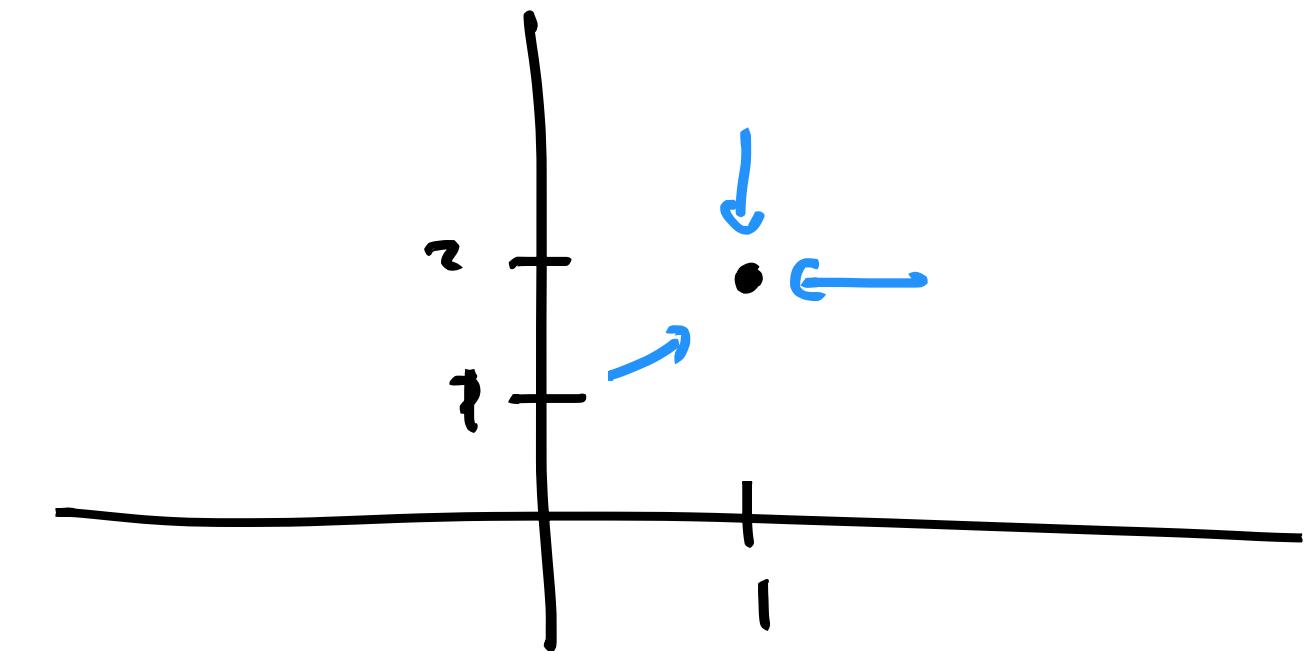
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}_0) := \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \delta \mathbf{e}_i) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\delta} = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}(x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,i} + \delta, \dots, x_{0,n}) - \mathbf{f}(x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,i}, \dots, x_{0,n})}{\delta}$$

*Mechanically:* take the derivative of variable  $x_i$  while keeping all the others constant.

# Multivariable Differentiation

Example:  $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y + y^2$

Example. Compute the partial derivatives of  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y + y^2$ . What are the partial derivatives at  $(1, 2)$ ?



\* TAKE DERIVATIVE w.r.t.  $x$ , hold  $y$  constant (vice versa)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{e}_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 3x^2 + 2xy$$

$$\underline{\text{At } (1, 2)} \Rightarrow 3 + 4 = \boxed{7}$$

Partial in  $\vec{e}_1$   
direction at  $(1, 2)$

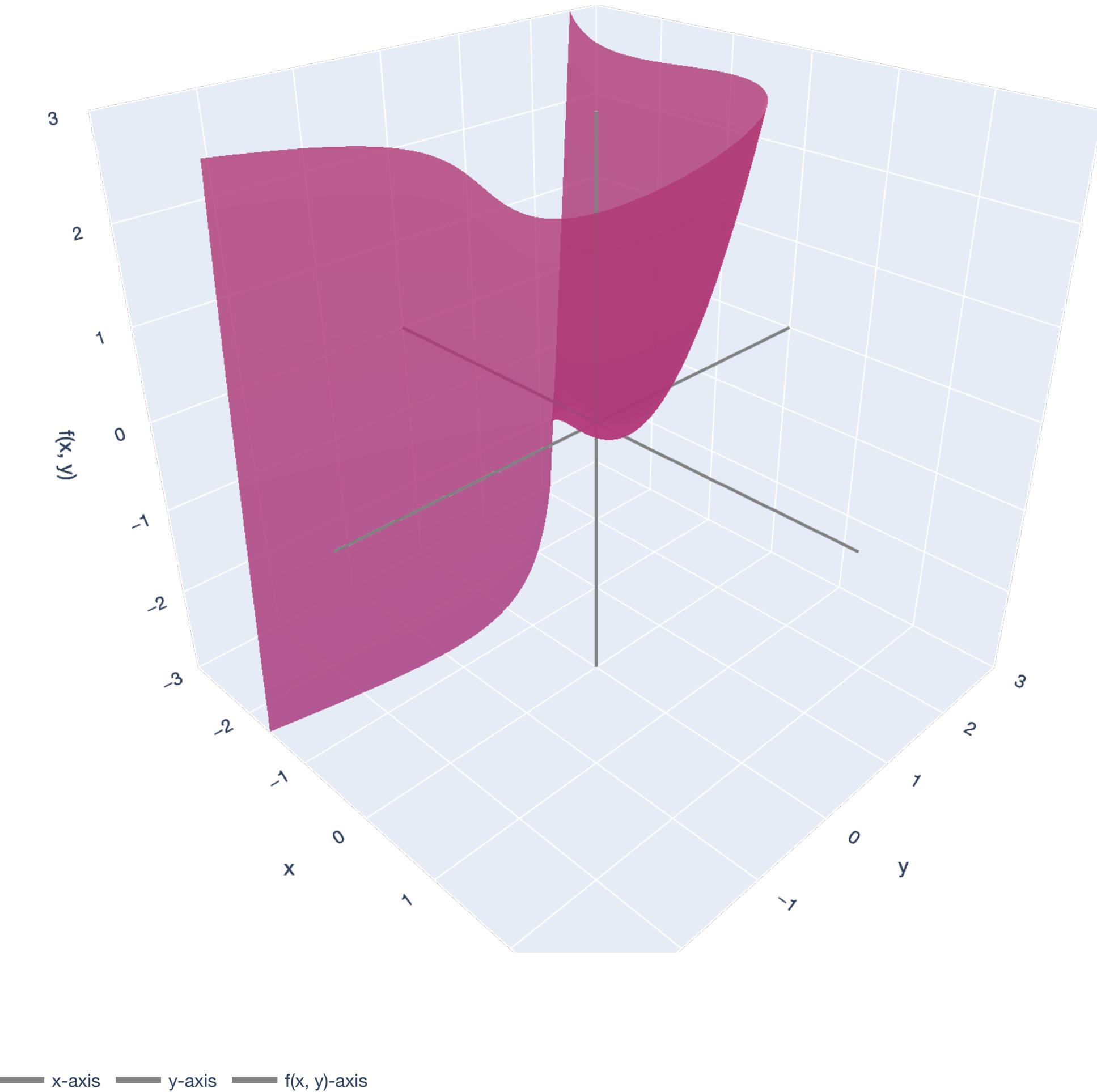
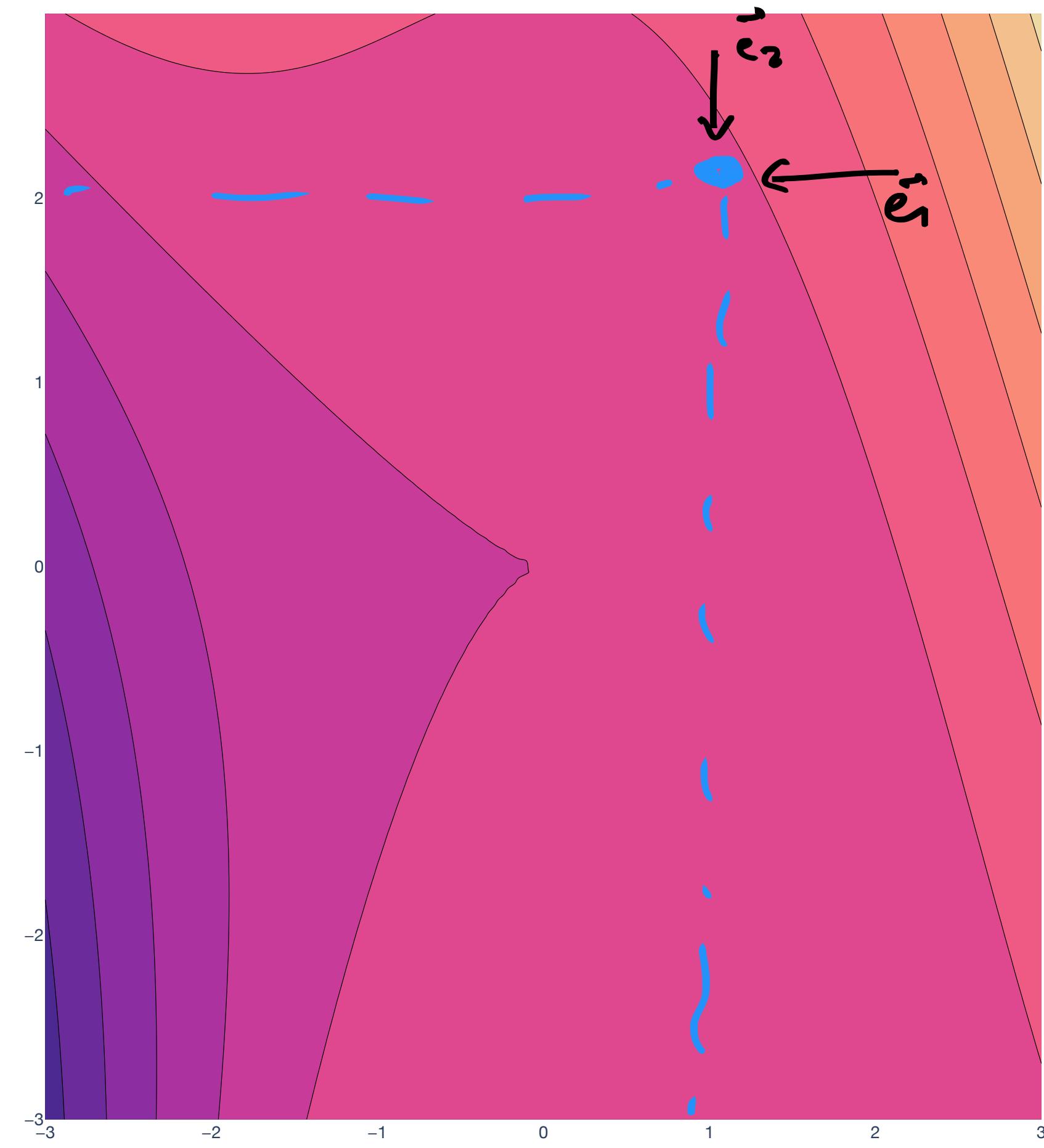
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{e}_2} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2 + 2y$$

$$\underline{\text{At } (1, 2)} \Rightarrow 1 + 4 = \boxed{5}$$

Partial in  $\vec{e}_2$   
direction at  $(1, 2)$

# Multivariable Differentiation

Example:  $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y + y^2$



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Examples

**Example.** Compute the partial derivatives of  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by  $f(x, y) = (x^2y, \cos y)$ . What are the partial derivatives at  $(1, 2)$ ?

$$\begin{array}{c} f_1 \\ f_2 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \vec{e}_1} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} = 2xy \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \vec{e}_2} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} = x^2$$

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} = -\sin y.$$

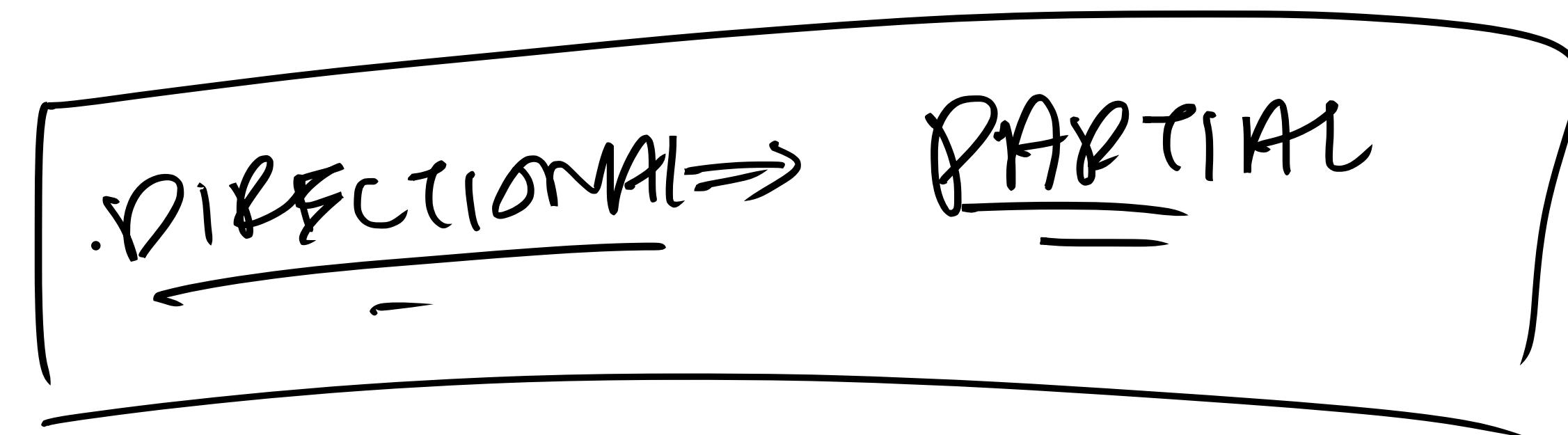
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2xy \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{at } (1,2)} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\vec{e}_1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x^2 \\ -\sin y \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{at } (1,2)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\sin 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\vec{e}_2$

TOTAL  
DERIVATIVE



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Total derivatives

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Jacobian and gradient idea

The **gradient** is the vector in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  that contains the partial derivatives of  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as each entry.

The **Jacobian**  $n \times d$  matrix that contains the partial derivatives of  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , collected column-by-column.

$\xrightarrow{\text{vector-valued}}$

(vectors)

Viewing  $\mathbf{f}$  as a collection of  $n$  functions  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ , the Jacobian is also what we get by “stacking” all the gradients top-to-bottom in a matrix.

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Gradient

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function. The **gradient** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is the vector  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  composed of all the partial derivatives of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ :

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) := \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}_0) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}(\mathbf{x}_0) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial e_1}(\vec{x}_0) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial e_d}(\vec{x}_d) \end{array}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Gradient

**Example.** What's a formula for the gradient of  $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y + y^2$ ?

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 3x^2 + 2xy$$

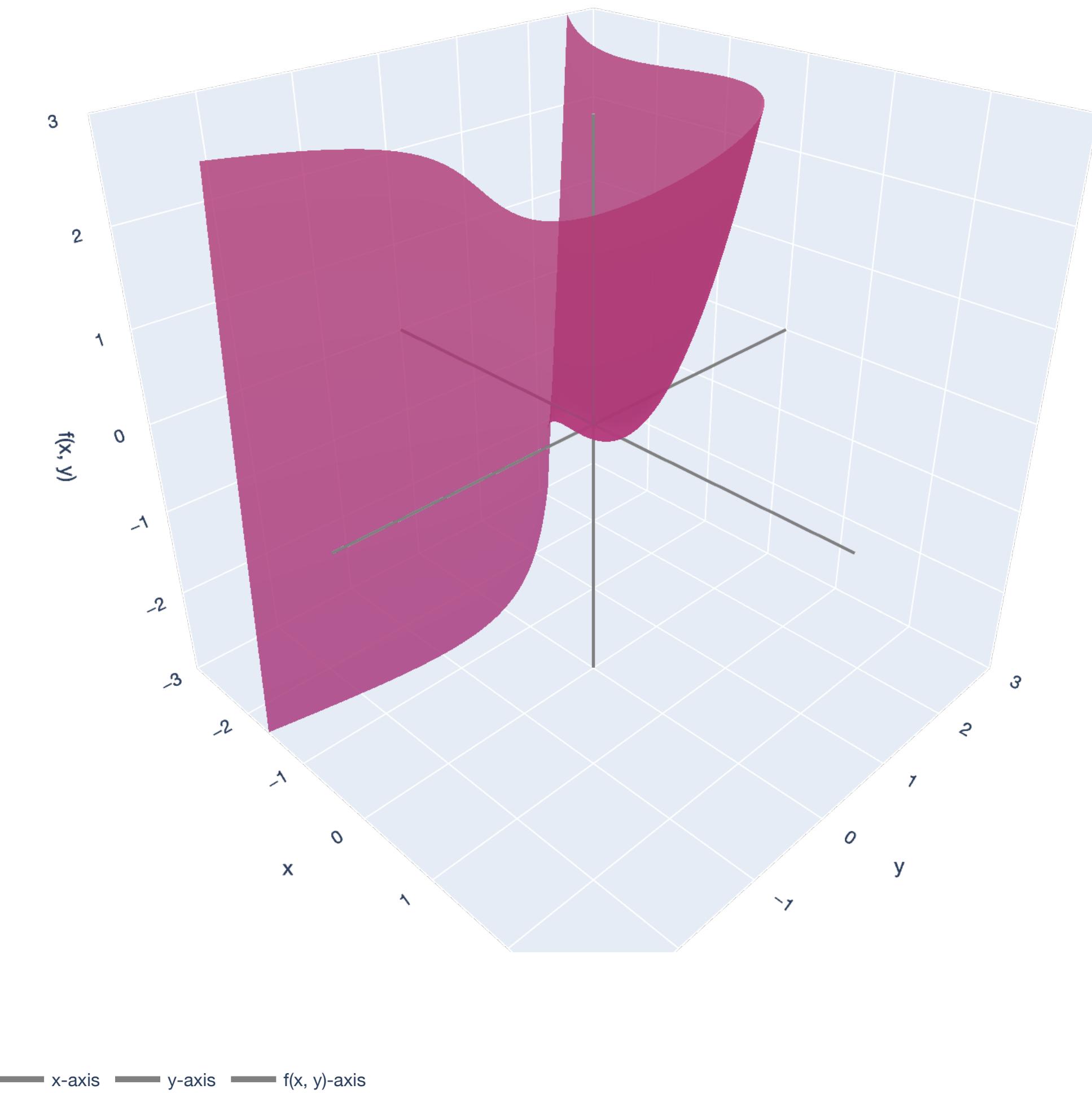
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2 + 2y$$

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 3x^2 + 2xy \\ x^2 + 2y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\nabla f(1, 2) = \begin{bmatrix} 3+4 \\ 1+4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

**Example:**  $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y + y^2$



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Jacobian

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a function. The **Jacobian** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is the  $n \times d$  matrix composed of all the partial derivatives of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ :

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) := \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}_0) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_d}(\mathbf{x}_0) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}_0) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_d}(\mathbf{x}_0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \xleftarrow{} \nabla f_1(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \xrightarrow{} \\ \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \\ \xleftarrow{} \nabla f_n(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \xrightarrow{} \end{bmatrix}$$

Jacobian of scalar-valued f.  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .  $n=1$ .  $\boxed{1 \times d \text{ matrix}}$

$$[ \xleftarrow{} \nabla f(\vec{x}_0)^T \xrightarrow{} ]$$

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (\underline{f_1(\vec{x})}, \dots, \underline{f_n(\vec{x})})$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Jacobian

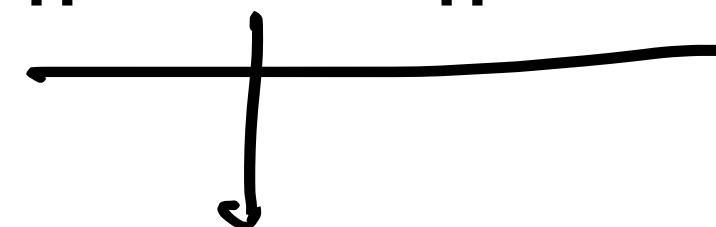
**Example.** What's the Jacobian of  $f(x, y) = (x^2y, \cos y)$ ?

# “Local” to a Point

## Definition of an open ball/neighborhood

Let  $\underline{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be a point. For some real value  $\delta > 0$ , the open ball or neighborhood of radius ( $\delta$ ) around  $\mathbf{x}$  is the set of all points:

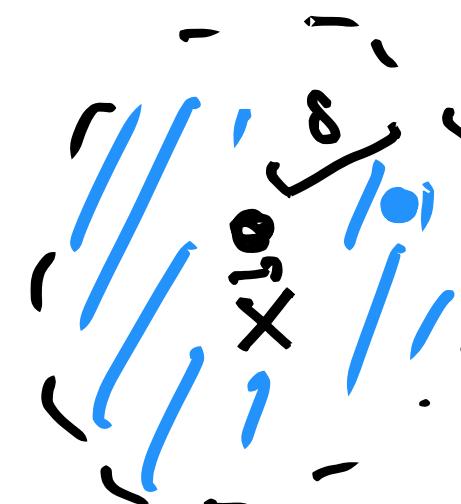
$$B_\delta(\mathbf{x}) := \{\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}\| < \delta\}.$$



$$\sqrt{(x_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_d - a_d)^2} < \delta$$



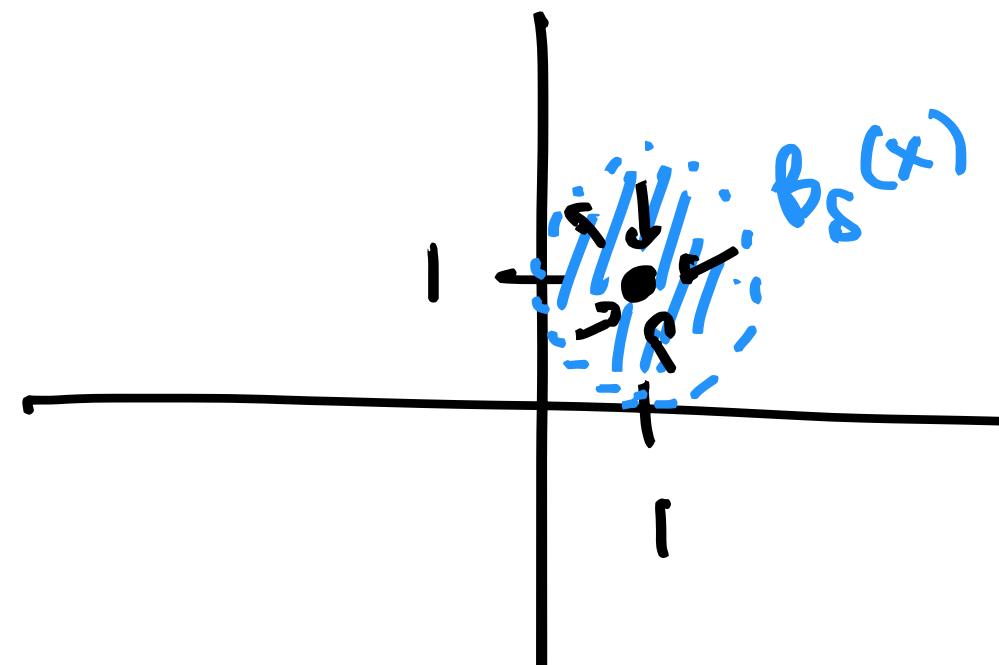
$$(x_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_d - a_d)^2 < \delta^2$$



# “Local” to a Point

## Definition of an open ball/neighborhood

**Example.** Consider  $\mathbf{x} = (1,1) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . What is the open ball of radius  $\delta = 1$  around  $\mathbf{x}$ ?



$$\begin{aligned} B_\delta(\vec{x}) &= B_1(\vec{x}) \\ &= \left\{ \vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \| \vec{x} - \vec{a} \| < 1 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{(x_1 - a_1)^2 + (x_2 - a_2)^2} < 1 \right\} \\ &= \boxed{\left\{ \vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (a_1 - 1)^2 + (a_2 - 1)^2 < 1 \right\}} \end{aligned}$$

# “Local” to a Point

## Definition of an open ball/neighborhood

**Example.** Consider  $\mathbf{x} = (1,1) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . What is the open ball of radius  $\delta = 1$  around  $\mathbf{x}$ ?

An open ball lets us approach  $\mathbf{x}$  from all directions.

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Total Derivative

The **total derivative** is the linear transformation that “best approximates” the local change in  $\mathbf{f}$  at a point  $\overline{\mathbf{x}_0}$ .

The total derivative, like the univariate derivative, takes “change in  $\mathbf{x}$ ” and outputs “change in  $\mathbf{y}$ .”

Recall:  $\nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$  ] single var.

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Total Derivative

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a function and let  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be a point. If there exists a linear transformation  $Df_{x_0} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\lim_{\vec{\delta} \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\|\vec{\delta}\|_2} \left( \underbrace{\left( f(x_0 + \vec{\delta}) - f(x_0) \right)}_{\text{real functions}} - \underbrace{Df_{x_0}(\vec{\delta})}_{\text{lin. transformation.}} \right) = 0,$$

then  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $x_0$  and has the unique **(total) derivative**  $Df_{x_0}$ .

As we get closer to  $x_0$  from any direction  $\vec{\delta}$ , the change  $f(x_0 + \vec{\delta}) - f(x_0)$  can be approximated by  $Df_{x_0}$ .

$$\underline{Df_{x_0}(\vec{\delta})} (x - x_0) \approx f(x) - f(x_0)$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Total Derivative

**Good news:** in many cases, we don't have to deal with the clunky expression

$$\lim_{\vec{\delta} \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\|\vec{\delta}\|_2} \left( \left( \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \vec{\delta}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right) - \underbrace{D\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{x}_0}(\vec{\delta})}_{\text{Jacobian/gradient}} \right) = \mathbf{0},$$

because we can replace  $D\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{x}_0}$  by the Jacobian/gradient for all “nice” functions (the functions we usually care about)!

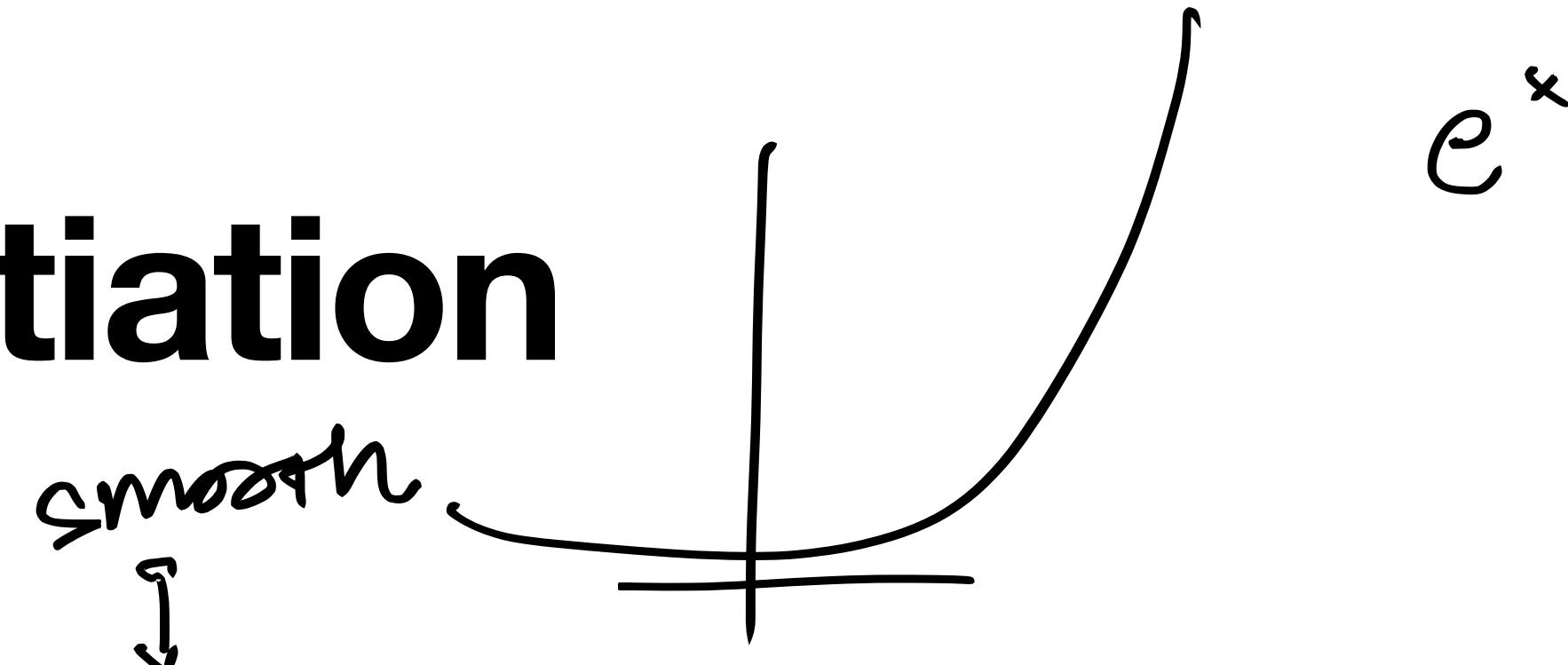
The “nice” functions is the class of **continuously differentiable (smooth)** functions.

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Smoothness and consequences

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Smoothness



A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is continuously differentiable if all of the partial derivatives of  $f$  exist and are continuous. → draw graph n/s lifting pencil.

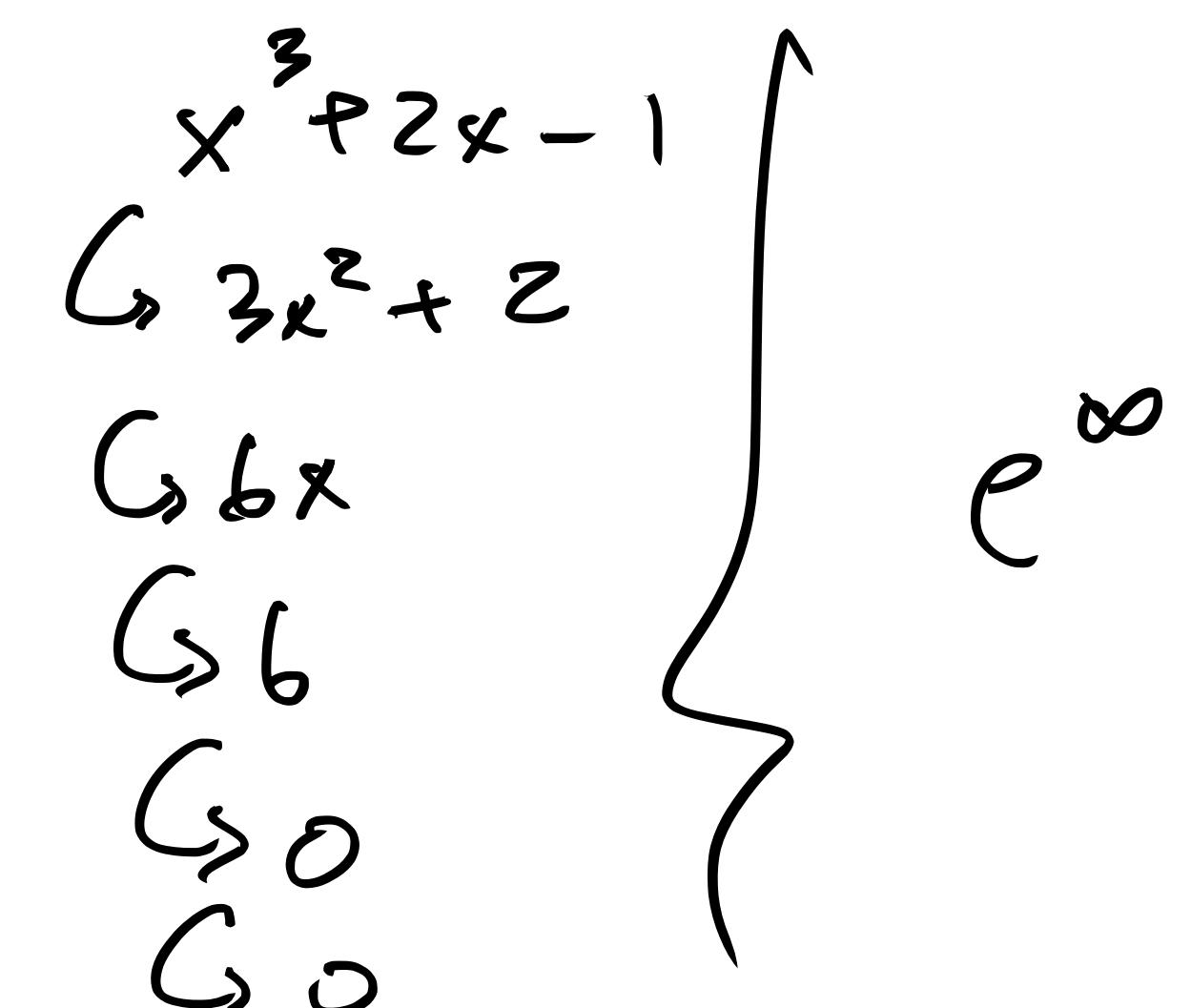
AKA:  $\mathcal{C}^1$  functions, and the collection of all such functions are the class  $\mathcal{C}^1$ .

Generally,  $\mathcal{C}^p$  for some  $p \geq 1$  are the  $p$ -times continuously differentiable functions.

$\mathcal{C}^2 = 2^{\text{nd}}$  derivatives exist + continuous

$\mathcal{C}^3 = 3^{\text{rd}}$  derivatives exist + continuous

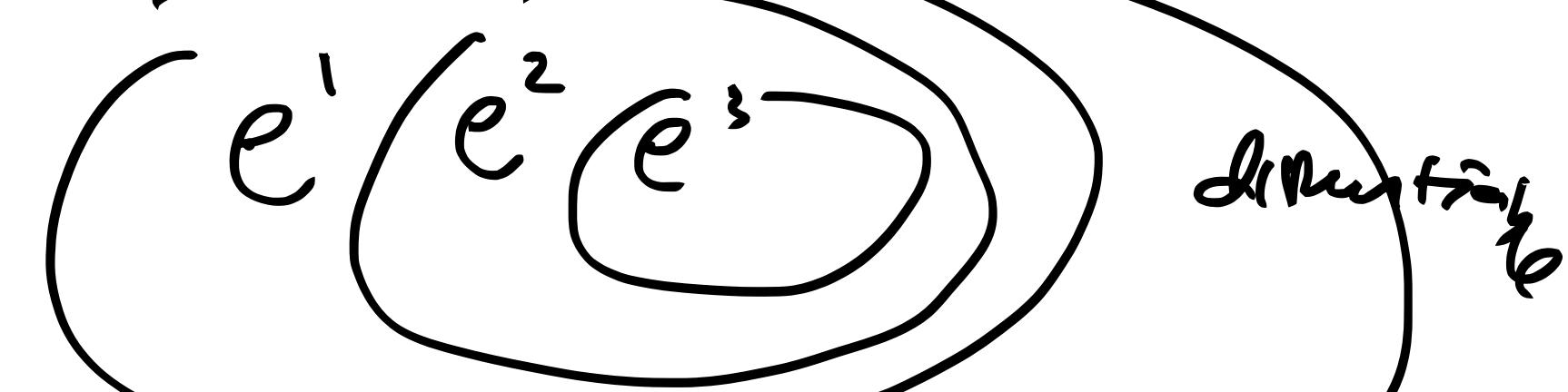
⋮



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Smoothness

**Theorem (Sufficient criterion for differentiability).** If  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a  $C^1$  function, then  $f$  is differentiable, and its total derivative is equal to its Jacobian matrix.



# Multivariable Differentiation

## Directional derivatives from total derivative

**Theorem (Computing directional derivatives).** If  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is differentiable with  $n \times d$  Jacobian matrix  $\nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ , the directional derivative of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  in the direction  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is given by the matrix-vector product:

$$\underbrace{\nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)}_{n \times d} \underbrace{\mathbf{v}}_{d \times 1} .$$

Remember from our linear algebra lectures: multiplying a vector by a matrix is applying a *linear transformation* to that vector!

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Gradient as direction of steepest ascent

**Theorem (Gradient and direction of steepest ascent).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . If  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is a *unit* vector making angle  $\theta$  with the gradient  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$ , then:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^\top \mathbf{v} = \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\| \cos \theta.$$

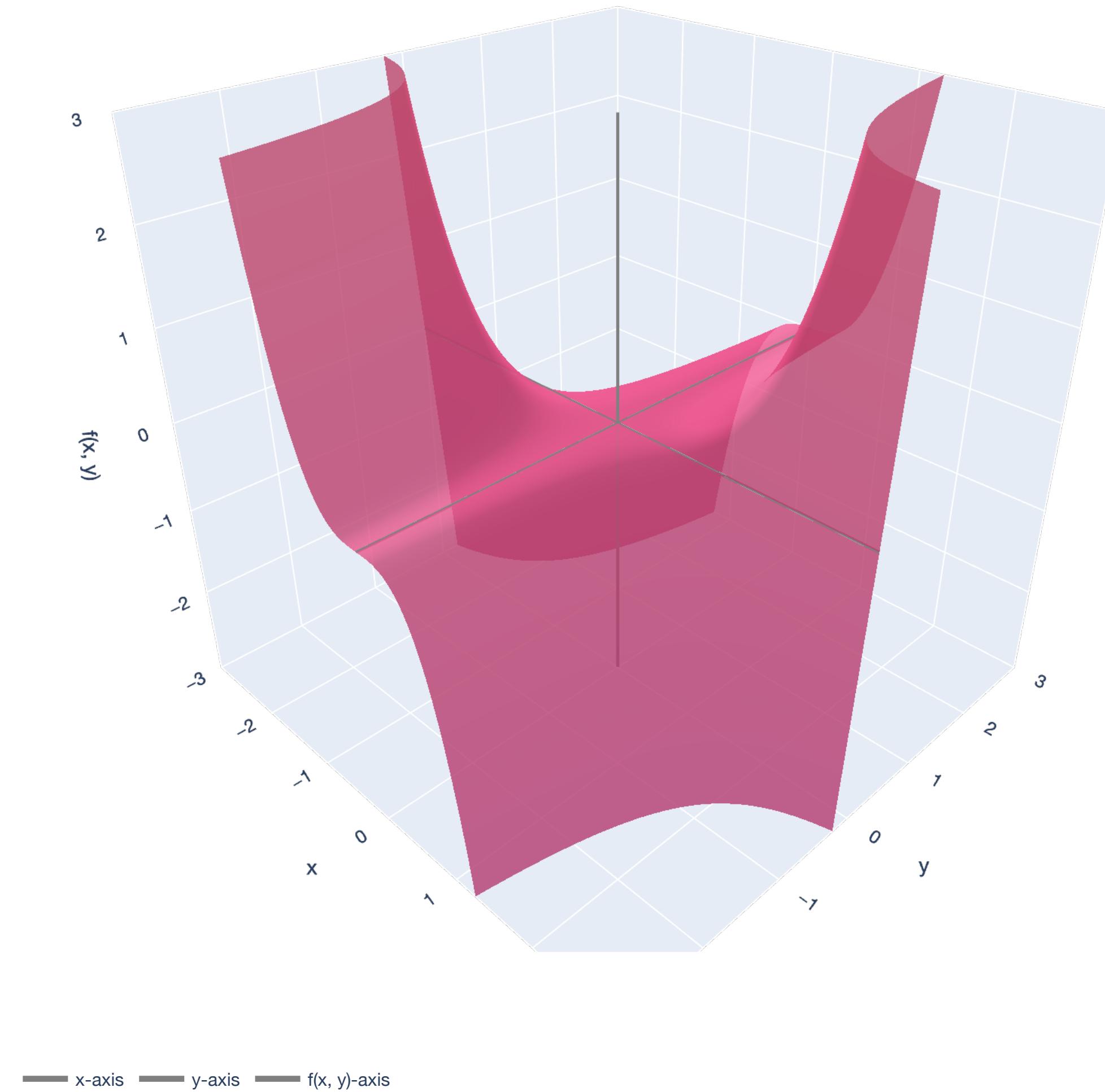
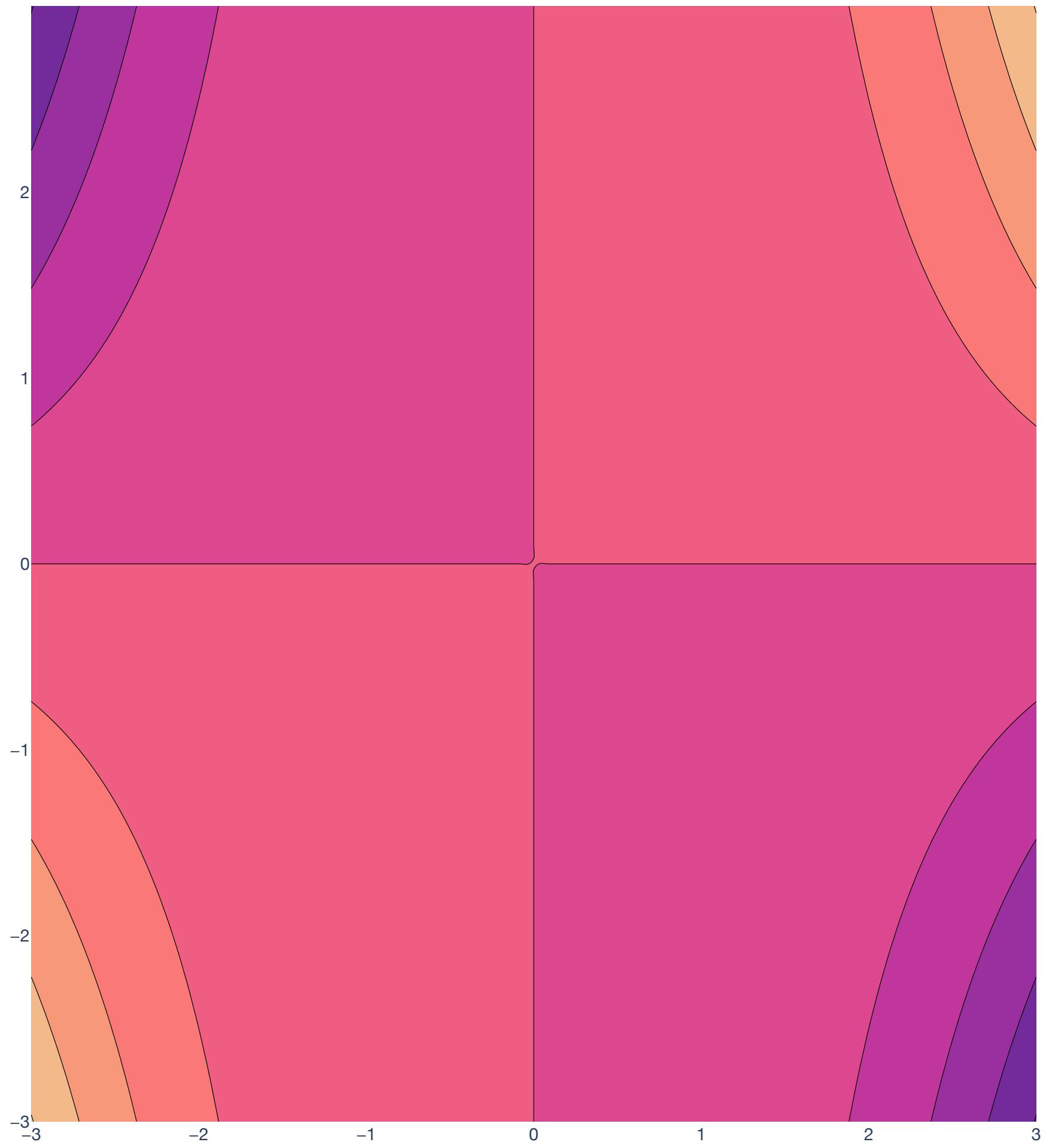


$$\leq 1$$

Gradient is the direction of steepest ascent at the rate  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\|$ !

# Multivariable Differentiation

**Example:**  $f(x, y) = (1/2)x^3y$



# Multivariable Differentiation

**Big picture: how do all these objects connect?**

The **total derivative** is a linear transformation that maps “changes in inputs” to “changes in outputs.”

*When we apply a total derivative to a vector, think of mapping the “change” represented by that vector to a “change” in output space.*

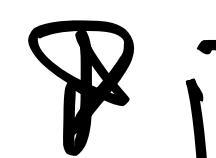
The **partial derivative** tells us how our function changes in each basis vector direction. The **directional derivative** tells us change in any direction.

For all the “smooth” **continuously differentiable** functions we care about, the total derivative is given by the **Jacobian** matrix (the **gradient** for scalar-valued functions).

*Applying the Jacobian/gradient to a vector is the same as matrix-vector multiplication!*

# Multivariable Differentiation

Big picture: how do all these objects connect?



$\mathcal{C}^1$  function

$\Rightarrow$  total derivative = Jacobian/gradient

Partial derivatives

$\Rightarrow$  all directional/partial derivatives from matrix-vector product!

$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{v}$  for Jacobian ( $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ )  $\leftarrow$  directional

$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \mathbf{v}$  for gradient ( $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ )  $\leftarrow$  directional

$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \vec{e}_i \leftarrow$  partial

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

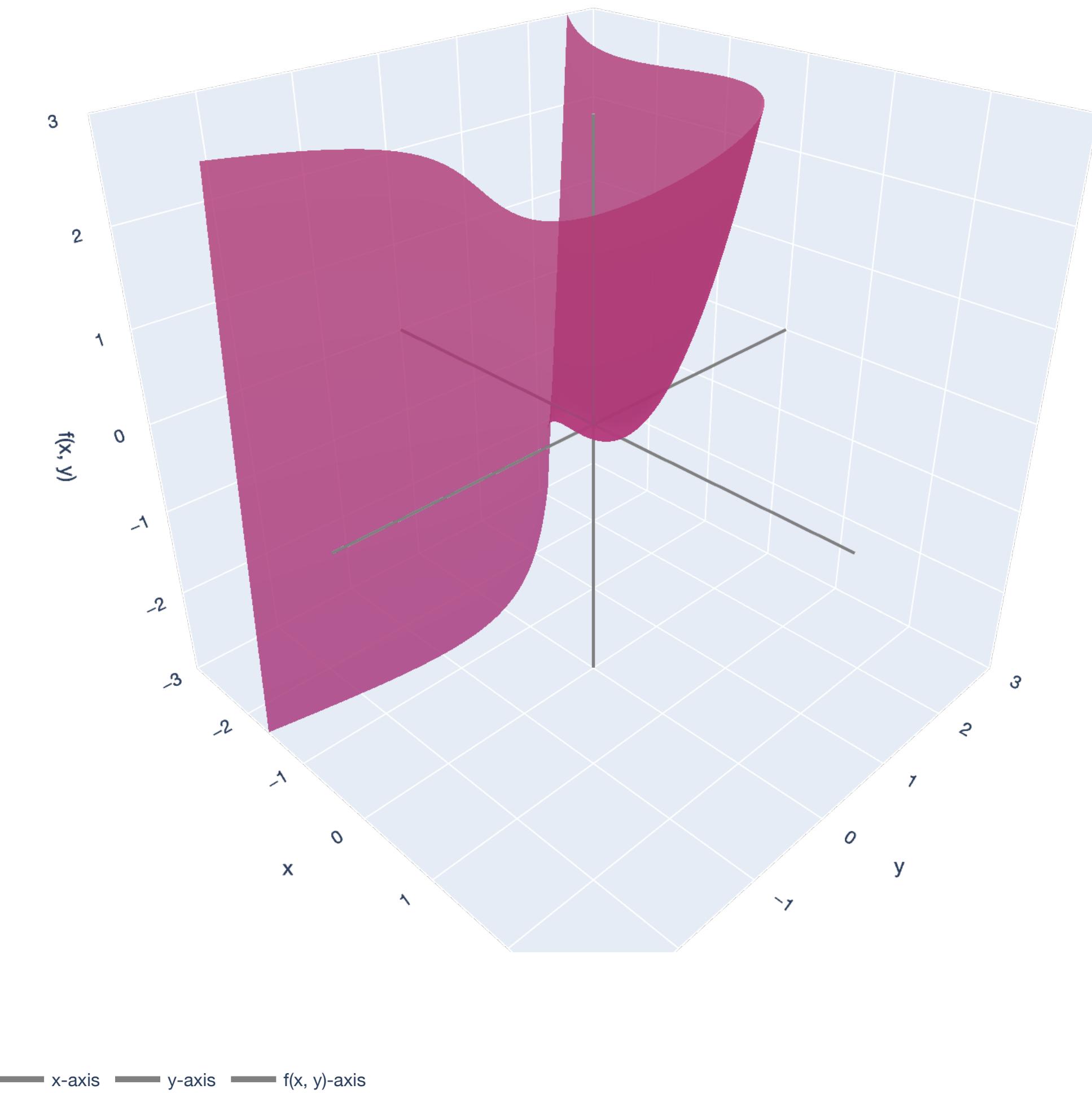
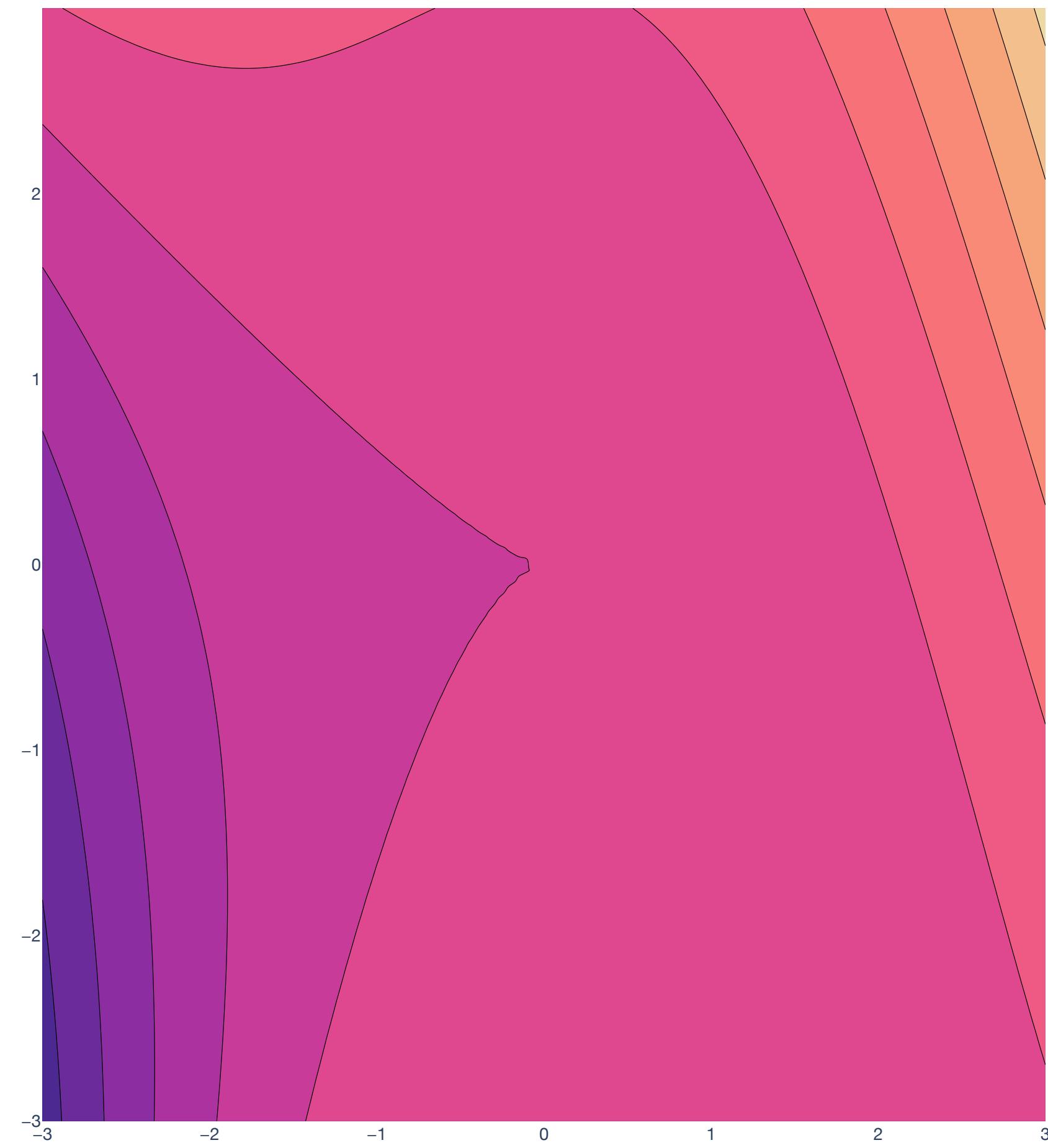
Jacobian:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

**Example:**  $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y + y^2$



# Multivariable Differentiation

## The Hessian and the “Second Derivative”

# Multivariable Differentiation: Hessian

## Hessian matrix

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \xrightarrow{\nabla f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^d} \quad \nabla^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

The **Hessian** is the “second derivative” for scalar-valued multivariable functions. It is a matrix. For *really* smooth functions, it is symmetric.

The Hessian contains the local “second-order” information, or *curvature* of the function. It describes how “bowl-shaped” the function is around a point.

**Note:** The Hessian is only defined for scalar-valued functions  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

# Multivariable Differentiation: Hessian

## Hessian matrix for $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

The **Hessian** matrix for  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the  $2 \times 2$  matrix of all second-order partial derivatives:

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} \end{bmatrix} \underset{d \times d}{=} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \cdot \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \quad f \right) \right)$$

$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}$  is the second partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x_i$ .

$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$  is the partial derivative from differentiating w.r.t.  $x_j$  first and then differentiating w.r.t.  $x_i$ .

# Multivariable Differentiation: Hessian

Hessian matrix for  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

The **Hessian** matrix for  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the  $\underline{n \times n}$  matrix of all second-order partial derivatives.

# Multivariable Differentiation: Hessian

## Equality of mixed partials

**Theorem (Equality of mixed partials).** If  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a twice continuously differentiable function (i.e., in class  $\mathcal{C}^2$ ), then, for all pairs  $(i, j)$ :

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}.$$

$\mathcal{C}^2 = \text{second derivatives}$   
 $+ \text{continuous}$

This means that for  $\mathcal{C}^2$  functions, the Hessian is a symmetric matrix.

$\mathcal{C}^2$ , the class of twice continuously differentiable functions, is the collection of all functions whose second-order partial derivatives all exist and are continuous.

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Wrap-up example

Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$f(x, y) := \left( \frac{1}{2}x^3y, 2x^2y^2, xy \right).$$

Is  $f$  smooth (i.e. in  $\mathcal{C}^1$ )? How about  $\mathcal{C}^2$ ? What does that tell us?

$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} 4y^2 & 8xy \\ 8xy & 4x^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hessian

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= 4xy^2 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= 4x^2y \end{aligned} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 4y^2 \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 4x^2 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y \partial x} &= 8xy \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x \partial y} &= 8xy \end{aligned}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Wrap-up example

Consider the function  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$\mathbf{f}(x, y) := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}x^3y & 2x^2y^2 & xy \end{pmatrix}.$$

What's the *formula for* the Jacobian of  $\mathbf{f}$ ?

What's the *formula for* the gradient of  $f_1(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}x^3y$ ? What is the Jacobian/gradient at  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (1, 2)$ ?

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Wrap-up example

Consider the function  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$\mathbf{f}(x, y) := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}x^3y & 2x^2y^2 & xy \end{pmatrix}.$$

What's the total derivative of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (1, 0)$ ?

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Wrap-up example

Consider the function  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$\mathbf{f}(x, y) := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}x^3y & 2x^2y^2 & xy \end{pmatrix}.$$

What's the directional derivative of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  in the direction  $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1)$ ?

How about in the direction  $\mathbf{e}_1$ ?

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Common Derivative Rules

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Basic derivative rules

Same as single-variable differentiation rules, but we need to “type-check” dimensions.

Let  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$  be the differentiation “operator.”

Derivatives of  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  from reasoning about each scalar-valued  $f_1, \dots, f_n$ .

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Sum Rule

For  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}}(f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Product Rule

For  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}}(f(\mathbf{x})g(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}}g(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{x})\frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Chain Rule

For  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}}(g \circ f)(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}}g(f(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Example of chain rule

**Example.** Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined as  $g(y_1, y_2) = y_1^2 + 2y_2$ . Let  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be defined as  $\mathbf{f}(x_1, x_2) := (\sin(x_1) + \cos(x_2), x_1 x_2^3)$ .

We can also write this as:

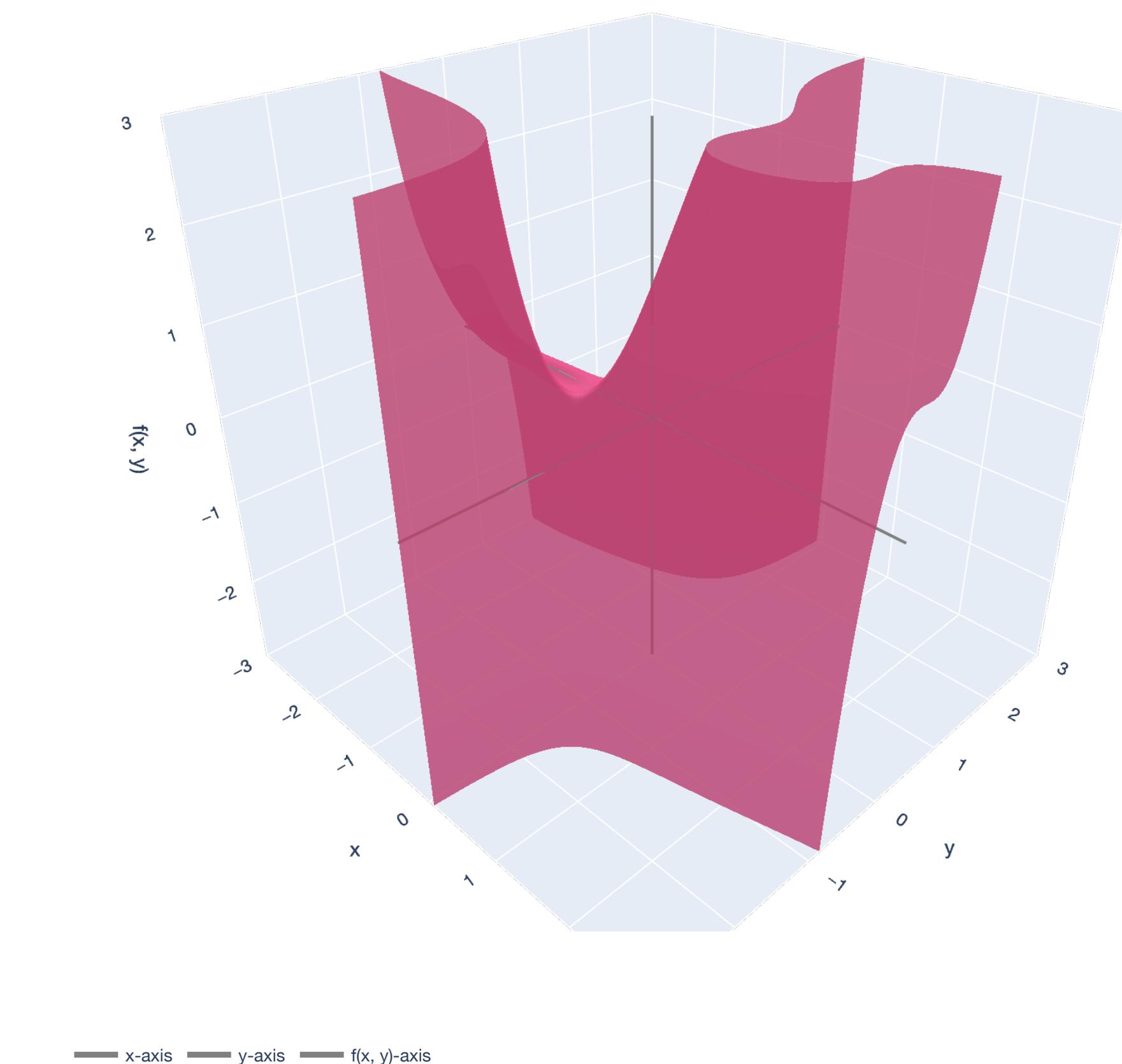
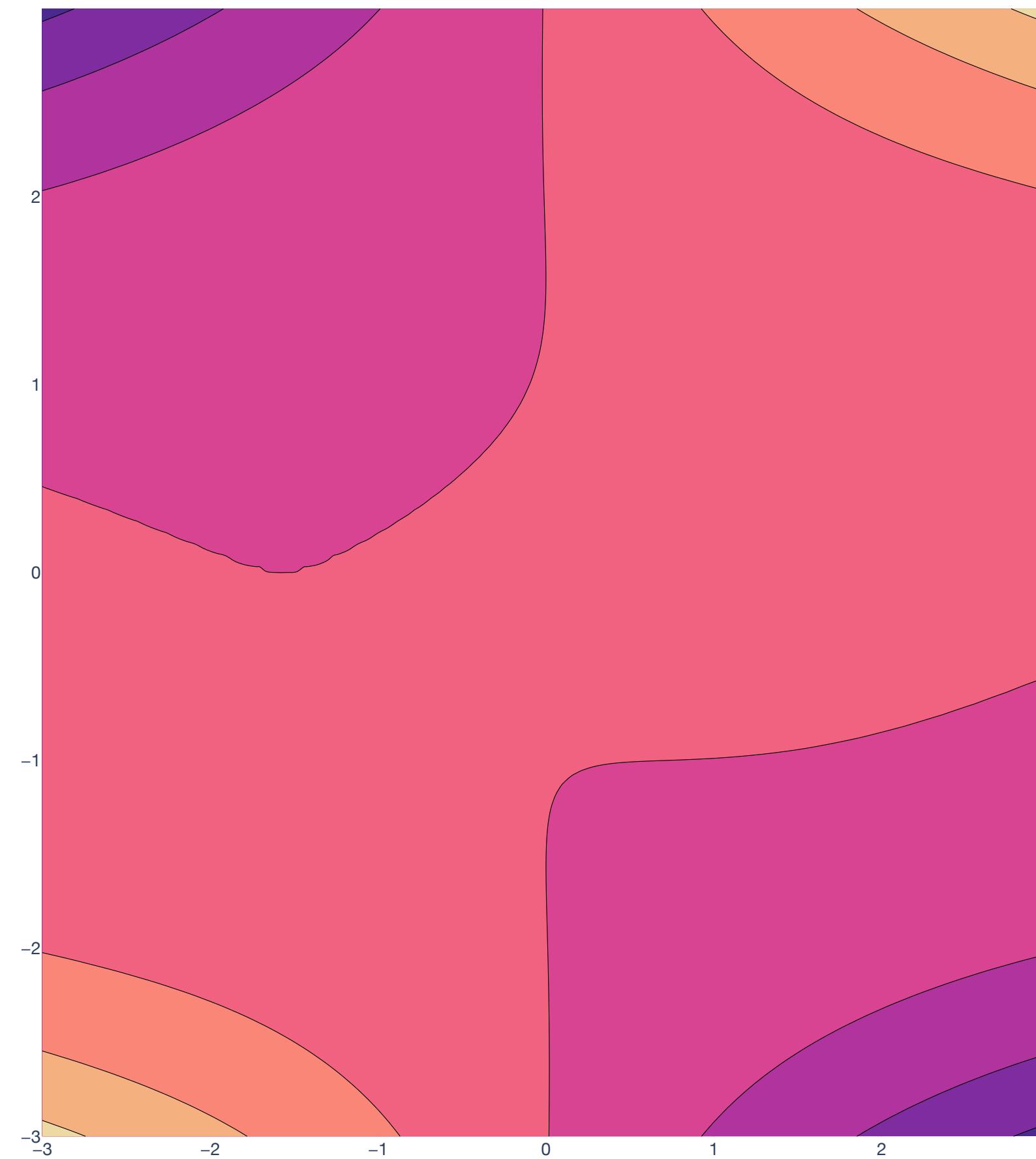
$$g(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = (g \circ \mathbf{f})(x_1, x_2) = (\sin(x_1) + \cos(x_2))^2 + 2(x_1 x_2^3)$$

What is  $\frac{\partial(g \circ \mathbf{f})}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$ ?

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Example of chain rule

$$g(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = (g \circ \mathbf{f})(x_1, x_2) = (\sin(x_1) + \cos(x_2))^2 + 2(x_1 x_2^3)$$



# “Matrix Calculus”

## Useful identities in machine learning

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T)\mathbf{x}$$

$$\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d  
A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$$

$$f(y) = 3x  
f'(x) = 3$$

$$f(x) = 5x^2  
f'(x) = 10x.  
= 2 \cdot (5x).$$

$$A \text{ symmetric } A^T = A$$

$$2A\vec{x}$$

More in *The Matrix Cookbook* (Petersen and Pederson, 2012).

# “Matrix Calculus”

## Example

Why  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$ ?

Why do we get  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$  “for free?”

# Least Squares

## Optimization Perspective

# Regression Setup

**Observed:** Matrix of *training samples*  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and vector of *training labels*  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_d \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \leftarrow & \mathbf{x}_1^\top & \rightarrow \\ & \vdots & \\ \leftarrow & \mathbf{x}_n^\top & \rightarrow \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Unknown:** *Weight vector*  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  with weights  $w_1, \dots, w_d$ .

**Goal:** For each  $i \in [n]$ , we predict:  $\hat{y}_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i = w_1 x_{i1} + \dots + w_d x_{id} \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Choose a weight vector that “fits the training data”:  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $y_i \approx \hat{y}_i$  for  $i \in [n]$ , or:

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \approx \mathbf{y}.$$

# Regression Setup

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$$\mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \approx \mathbf{y}.$$

To find  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ , we follow the *principle of least squares*.

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

# Least Squares

## OLS Theorem

**Theorem (Ordinary Least Squares).** Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be the least squares minimizer:

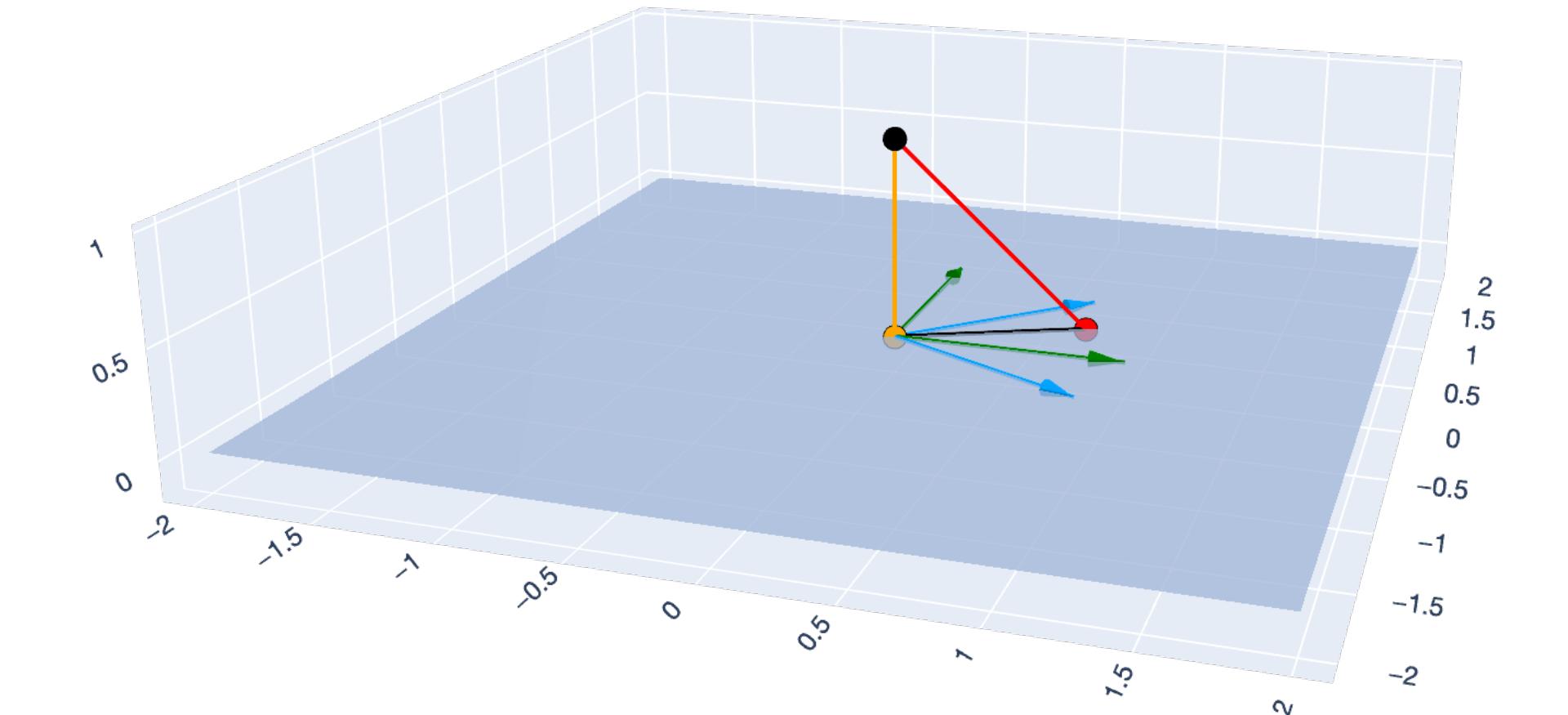
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

If  $n \geq d$  and  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = d$ , then:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

To get predictions  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$



Legend:  
x1 x2 u1 u2 y - ^y ~y - ^y ~y - y y ^y ~y

# Least Squares

## OLS Theorem

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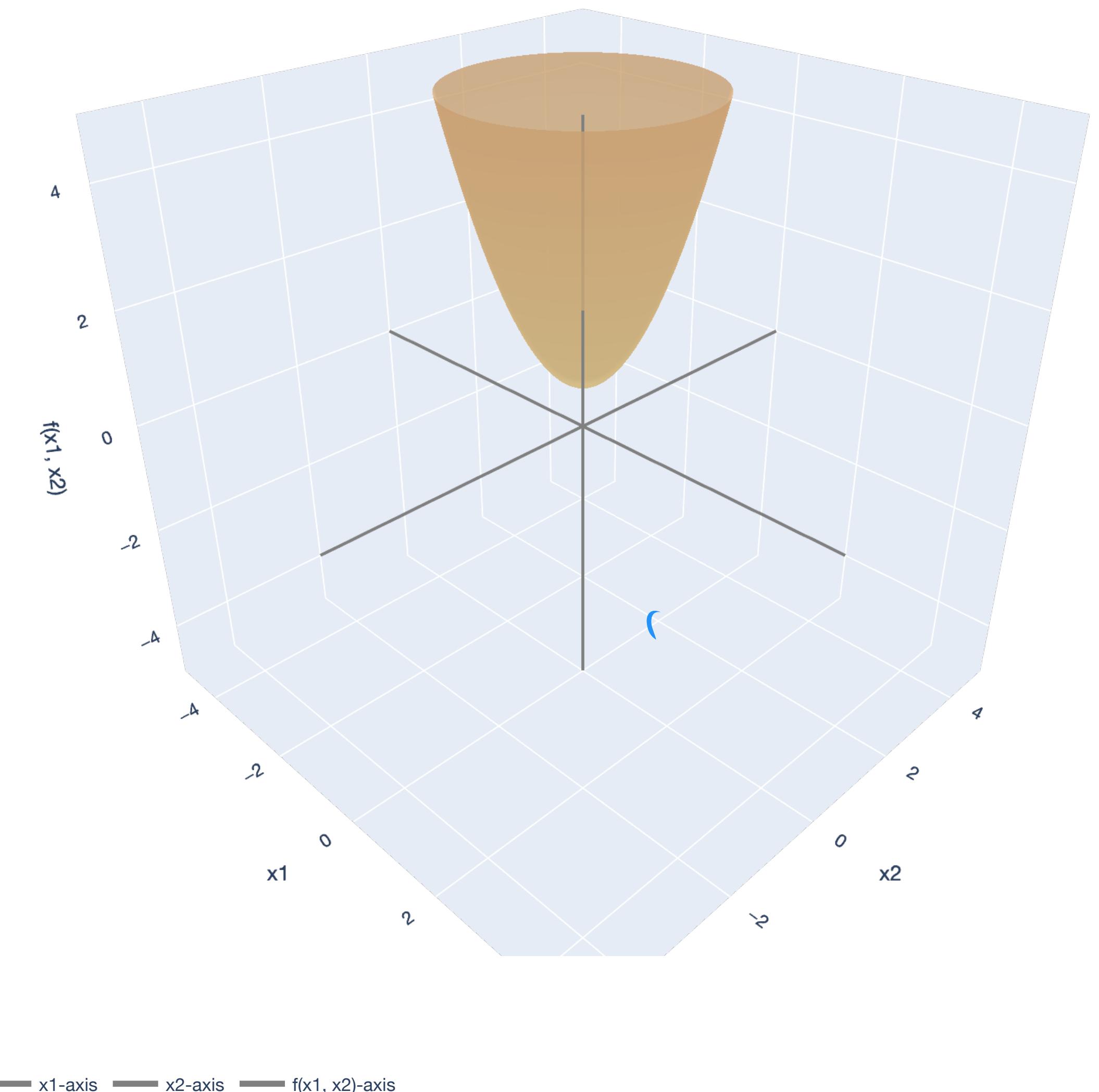
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# Least Squares Optimization Problem

Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be the least squares minimizer:

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*What if we consider this as an optimization problem instead?*

# Least Squares Optimization Problem

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*What if we consider this as an optimization problem instead?*

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

OBJECTIVE  
FUNCTION

# Least Squares Optimization Problem

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective

Before, we called this the squared error or sum of squared residuals...

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

We can also consider this the *objective function* of an optimization problem:  
the least squares objective.

# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}$

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \implies f(w) = \|w\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}$

Consider the dataset  $\mathbf{x} = (1, -1)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (3, -3)$ , where  $n = 2, d = 1$ .

$$f(w) = \|w\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

$$f(w) = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} w - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2$$

$$= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} w \\ -w \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2$$

$$= \left\| (w-3, 3-w) \right\|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (w-3)^2 + (3-w)^2 = \frac{w^2 - 6w + 9 + 9 - 6w + w^2}{2w^2 - 12w + 18} \\ &= \boxed{2w^2 - 12w + 18} \end{aligned}$$

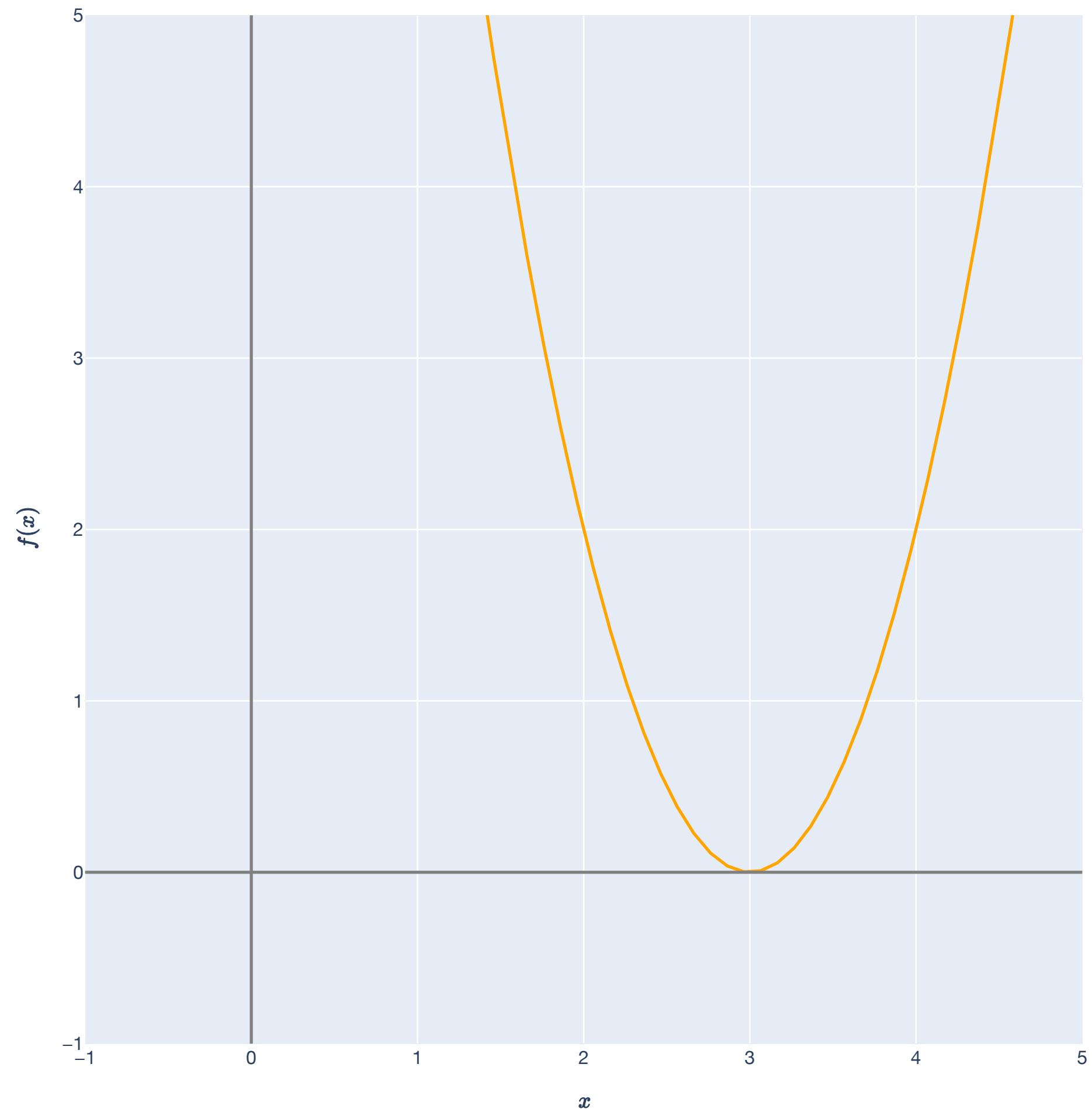
# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}$

Consider the dataset  $\mathbf{x} = (1, -1)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (3, -3)$ , where  $n = 2, d = 1$ .

$$f(w) = \|w\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

$$f(w) = (w - 3)^2 + (3 - w)^2$$



# Least Squares

Least Squares Objective in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}^2$

Consider the dataset  $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $n = 2, d = 2$ .

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

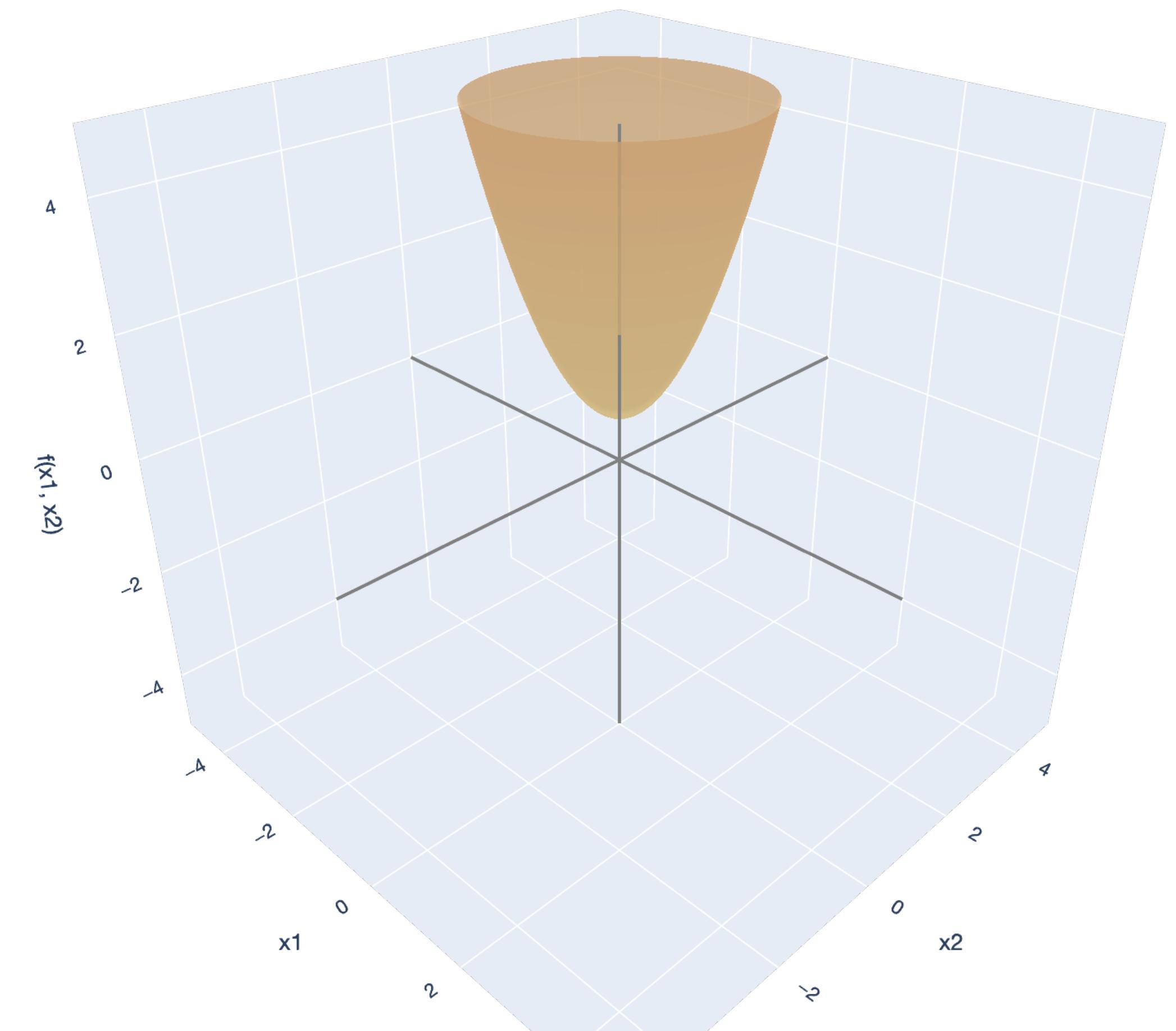
# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}^2$

Consider the dataset  $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } \underline{n = 2}, \underline{d = 2}.$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$



— x1-axis — x2-axis — f(x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>)-axis

# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}^2$

Consider the dataset  $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $n = 2, d = 2$ .

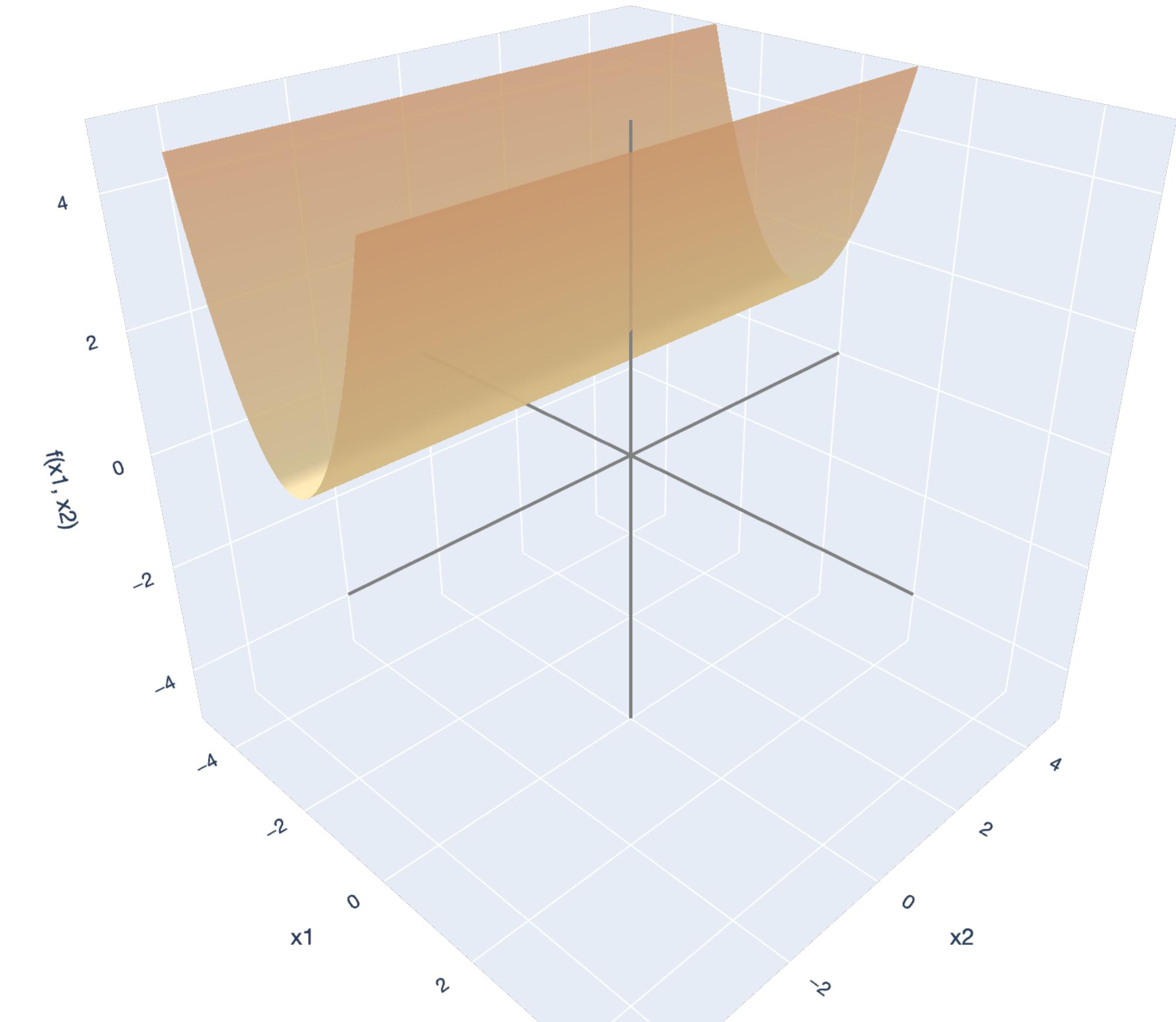
$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

# Least Squares

## Least Squares Objective in $\mathbb{R}^2$

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and  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $n = 2, d = 2$ .

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$



— x1-axis — x2-axis — f(x1, x2)-axis

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

**Theorem (Ordinary Least Squares).** Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be the least squares minimizer:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

If  $n \geq d$  and  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = d$ , then:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

Theorem (Full rank and eigenvalues). Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  be a square matrix with all real eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\text{rank}(A) = d \iff \lambda_i > 0 \text{ for all } i \in [d].$$

PD.

# Least Squares

**Review: How did we optimize in 1D?**

Recall from single variable calculus: how did we optimize a function like:

$$f(w) = 4w^2 - 4w + 1?$$

# Least Squares

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# Least Squares

**Review: How did we optimize in 1D?**

Recall from single variable calculus: how did we optimize a function like:

$$f(w) = 4w^2 - 4w + 1?$$

**First derivative test.** Take the derivative  $f'(w)$  and set equal to 0 to find candidates for optima,  $\hat{w}$ .

**Second derivative test.** Check  $f''(\hat{w}) > 0$  for minimum; check  $f''(\hat{w}) < 0$  for maximum.

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

Expand the squared norm:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{w}) &= \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \\ &= (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\top (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) \\ &= \boxed{\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$

Annotations:

- A blue bracket groups the entire expression  $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$ .
- A red oval highlights the term  $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}$ , with a red arrow pointing to it labeled  $d \times d$ .

# Quadratic Forms

## Review

A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a **quadratic form** if it is a polynomial with terms of all degree two:

$$f(x) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2.$$

We can rewrite this in matrix form:

$$f(x, y) = [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \underline{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{x}$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

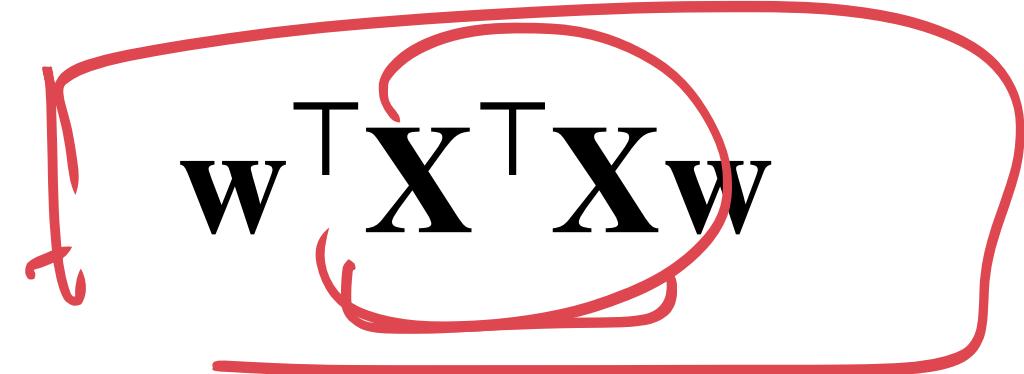
Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

Expand the squared norm:

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

This is a quadratic function, with the quadratic form:

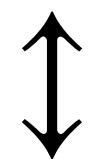

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}$$

# Positive Semidefinite (PSD) Matrices

## Review

A square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is positive semidefinite (PSD) if...

there exists  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  such that  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$ .



all eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  are nonnegative:  $\lambda_1 \geq 0, \dots, \lambda_d \geq 0$ .



$\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq 0$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

Expand the squared norm:

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

This is a quadratic function, with the quadratic form:

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}$$

We know that  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  is PSD.

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

Expand the squared norm:

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

positive def.  
quadratic  
form.

This is a quadratic function, with the quadratic form:

$$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}$$

Even better: rank( $\mathbf{X}$ ) =  $d$ , so rank( $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$ ) =  $d$  and therefore  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d > 0$  and  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  is positive definite!

# “Matrix Calculus”

## Useful identities in machine learning

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T)\mathbf{x} \end{array} \right.$$

More in *The Matrix Cookbook* (Petersen and Pederson, 2012).

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

“First derivative test.” Take the gradient.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ (sum rule)}$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

“First derivative test.” Take the gradient.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ (sum rule)}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} \text{ because } \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^\top)\mathbf{x} \stackrel{\text{symmetric } A}{=} 2\mathbf{A}\vec{x}$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

“First derivative test.” Take the gradient.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ (sum rule)}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} \text{ because } \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^\top) \mathbf{x}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) = 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ because } \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$$

$\mathbf{x}$        $\mathbf{a}$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

“**First derivative test.**” Take the gradient.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ (sum rule)}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} \text{ because } \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^\top) \mathbf{x}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) = 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ because } \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

**“First derivative test.”** Take the gradient.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ (sum rule)}$$

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$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}) = 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} \text{ because } \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0$$

$$\implies \boxed{\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}}$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

“First derivative test.” Take the gradient.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

Set it equal to 0.

$$2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0 \implies \boxed{\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}}$$

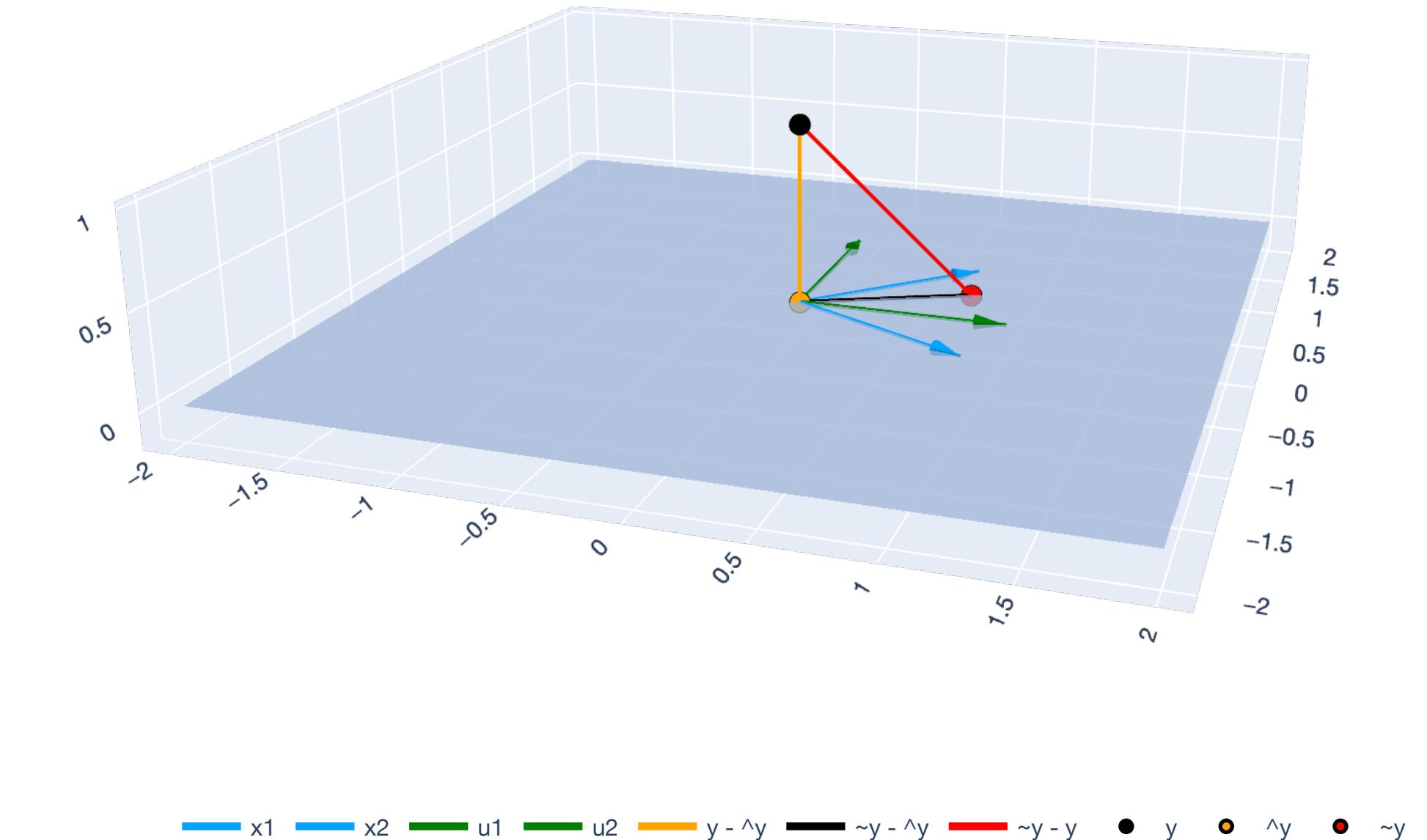
We have again obtained the ***normal equations!***

# Least Squares

## Obtaining normal equations from linear algebra

Because  $\hat{y} - y$  is perpendicular to  $\text{span}(\text{col}(X))$ , we obtain the *normal equations*:

$$X^T X \hat{w} = X^T y.$$



# Least Squares

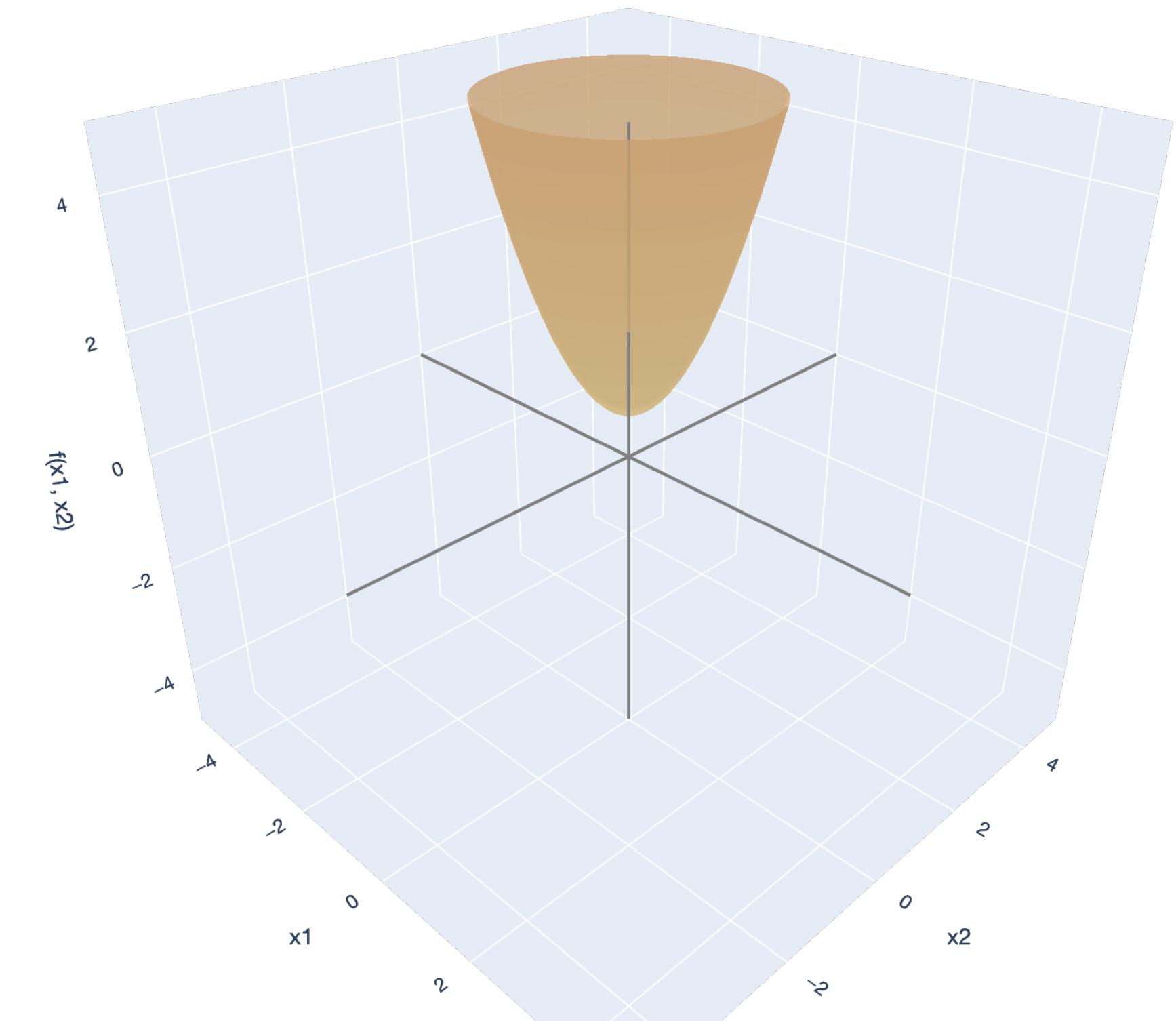
## Obtaining normal equations from optimization

Because the gradient is

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y},$$

setting it equal to  $\mathbf{0}$ , we obtain the *normal equations*:

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}.$$



— x1-axis — x2-axis — f(x1, x2)-axis

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

“First derivative test.” Take the gradient.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

Set it equal to 0.

$$2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0 \implies \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

Because rank( $\mathbf{X}$ ) = d, we know rank( $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$ ) = d and  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  is invertible. Solve the normal equations to get a *candidate* for the minimizer:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

**Objective:**  $f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$

**Gradient:**  $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$

**Candidate minimizer:**  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

$$\frac{d \underline{A}x}{dx} = \cdot A.$$

**Objective:**  $f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$

**Gradient:**  $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$

**Candidate minimizer:**  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$

“Second derivative test.” Take the *Hessian* of  $f(\mathbf{w})$ .

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}^2 f(\mathbf{w}) = 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}.$$

# Least Squares

## OLS from Optimization

**Objective:**  $f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y}$

**Gradient:**  $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$

**Candidate minimizer:**  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$

**“Second derivative test.”** Take the *Hessian* of  $f(\mathbf{w})$ .

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}^2 f(\mathbf{w}) = 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}.$$

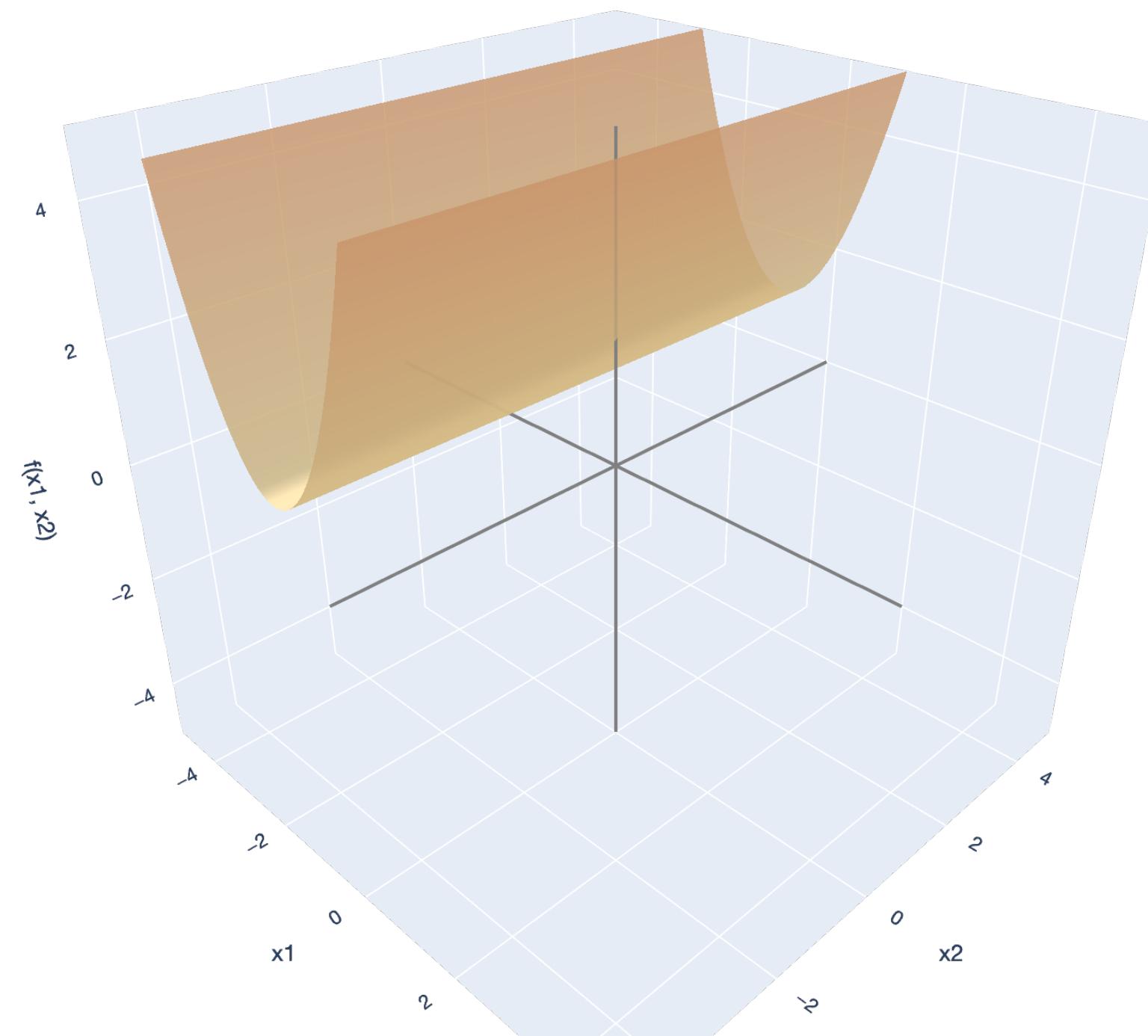
$$\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = d \implies \text{rank}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}) = d \implies \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d > 0$$

$\implies \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  is positive definite!

# PSD and PD Quadratic Forms

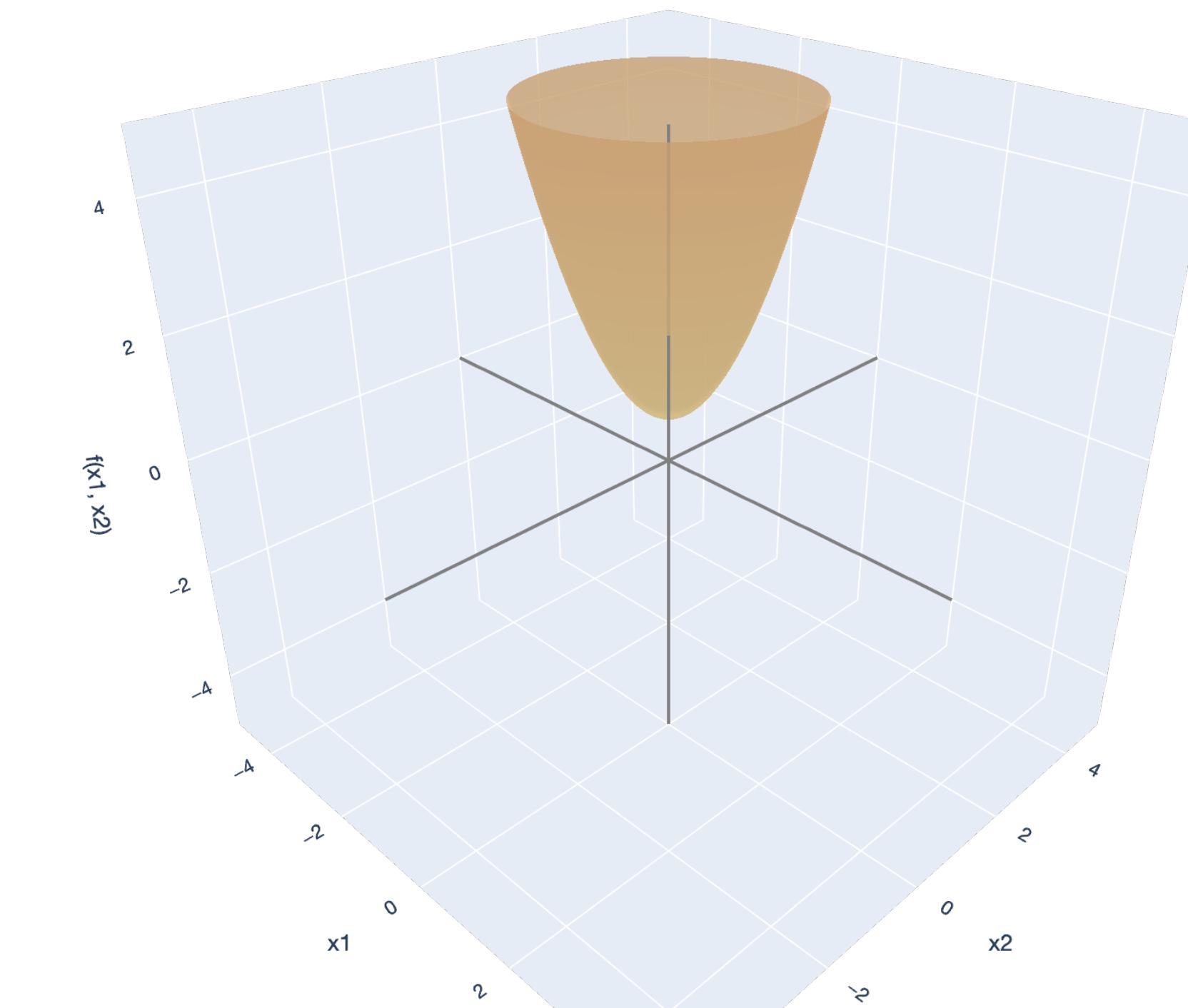
“Proof by graph”

$$x^T A x \rightarrow \lambda_i = 0 \Rightarrow v^T A v = v^T (A v) = \lambda v^T v = 0.$$



— x1-axis — x2-axis — f( $x_1, x_2$ )-axis

$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d \geq 0$$



— x1-axis — x2-axis — f( $x_1, x_2$ )-axis

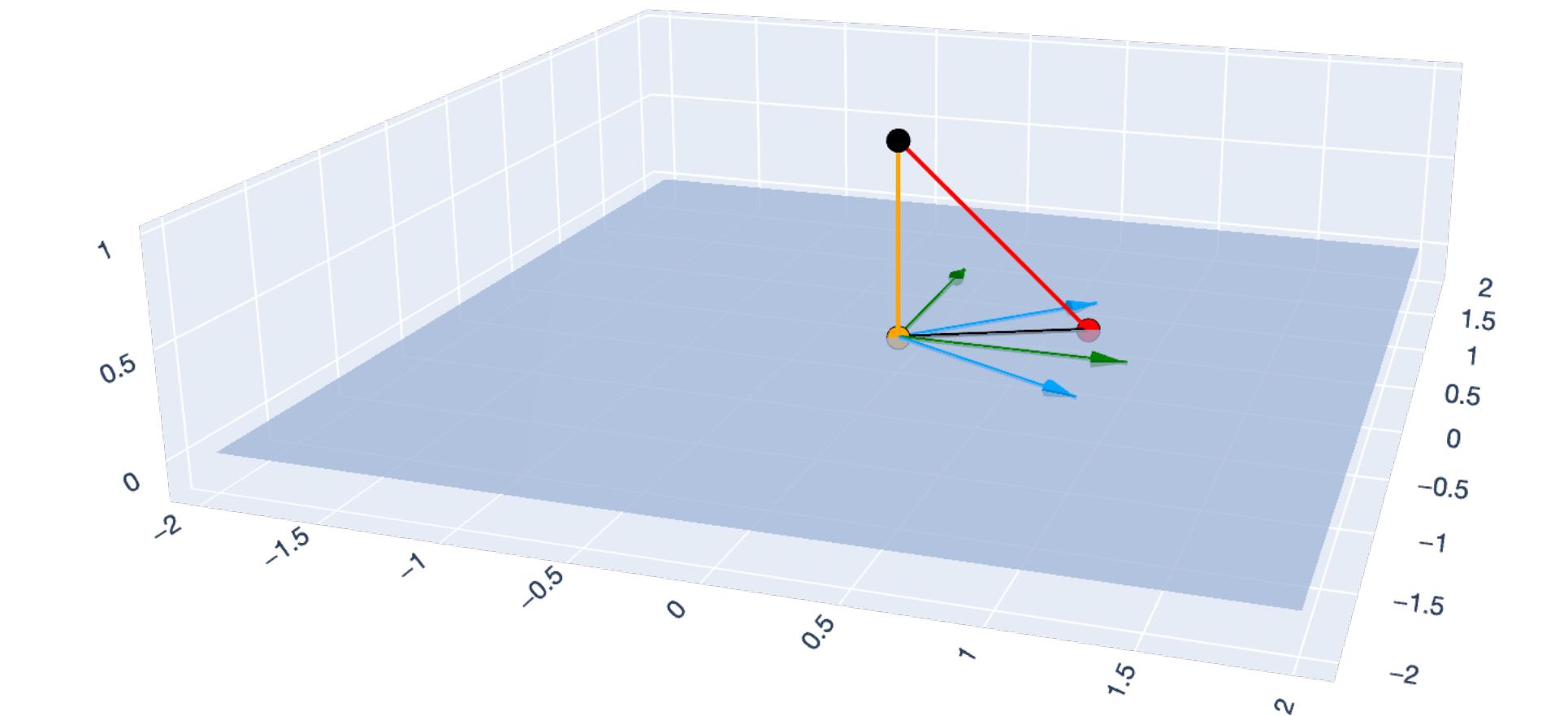
$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d > 0$$

# Least Squares

Showing  $\hat{w}$  is the minimizer from linear algebra

By Pythagorean Theorem, any other vector  
 $\tilde{y} \in \text{span}(\text{col}(X))$  gives a larger error:

$$\|\hat{y} - y\|^2 \leq \|\tilde{y} - y\|^2.$$



Legend:  $x_1$   $x_2$   $u_1$   $u_2$   $y - \hat{y}$   $\hat{y} - \tilde{y}$   $\sim y - \hat{y}$   $\sim y - y$   $\bullet$   $y$   $\circ$   $\hat{y}$   $\bullet$   $\sim y$

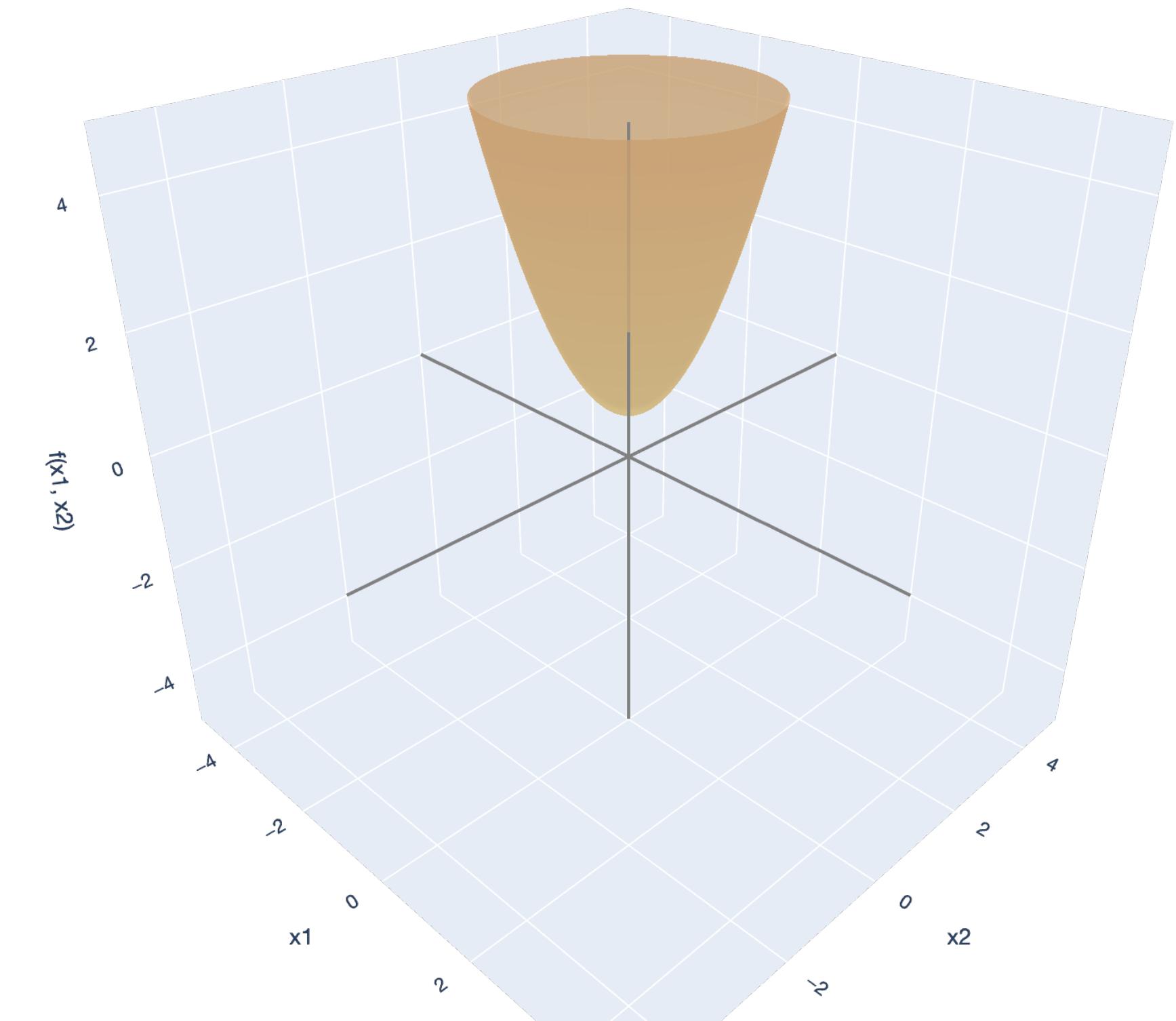
# Least Squares

Showing  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$  is the minimizer from optimization

Because the Hessian of  $f(\mathbf{w})$  is

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}^2 f(\mathbf{w}) = 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X},$$

and we assumed  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = d$ , the matrix  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  must be positive definite, and  $f(\mathbf{w})$  therefore has a “positive” second derivative (Hessian).



— x1-axis — x2-axis —  $f(x_1, x_2)$ -axis

# Least Squares

## OLS Theorem

**Theorem (Ordinary Least Squares).** Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be the least squares minimizer:

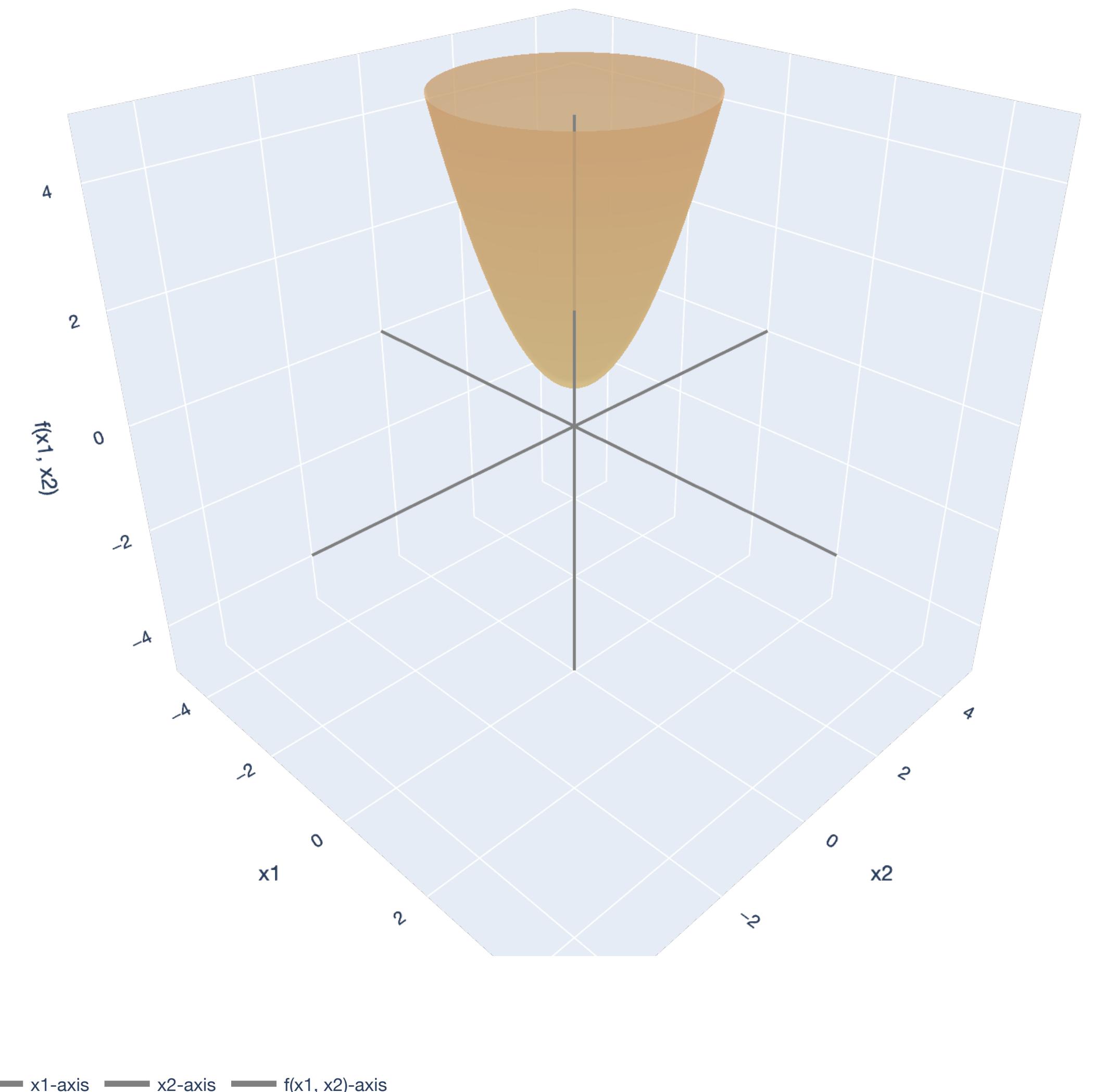
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

If  $n \geq d$  and  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = d$ , then:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

To get predictions  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$



# **Gradient Descent**

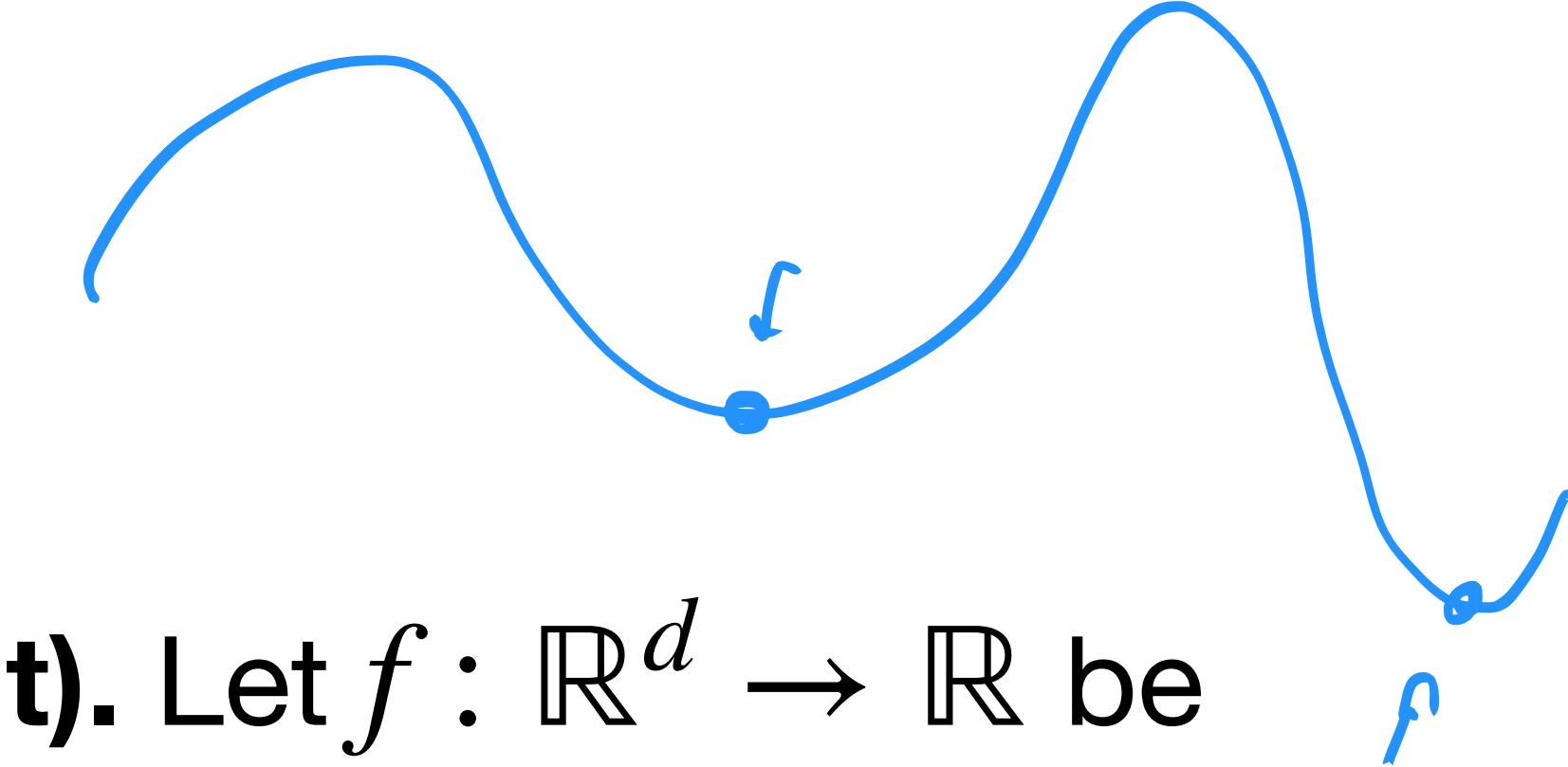
## Preview of the Algorithm

# Multivariable Differentiation

## Gradient as direction of steepest ascent

**Theorem (Gradient and direction of steepest ascent).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . If  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is a *unit* vector making angle  $\theta$  with the gradient  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$ , then:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^\top \mathbf{v} = \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\| \cos \theta.$$



Gradient is the direction of steepest ascent at the rate  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\|$ !

# Gradient Descent Algorithm

**Input:** Function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Initial point  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Step size  $\eta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

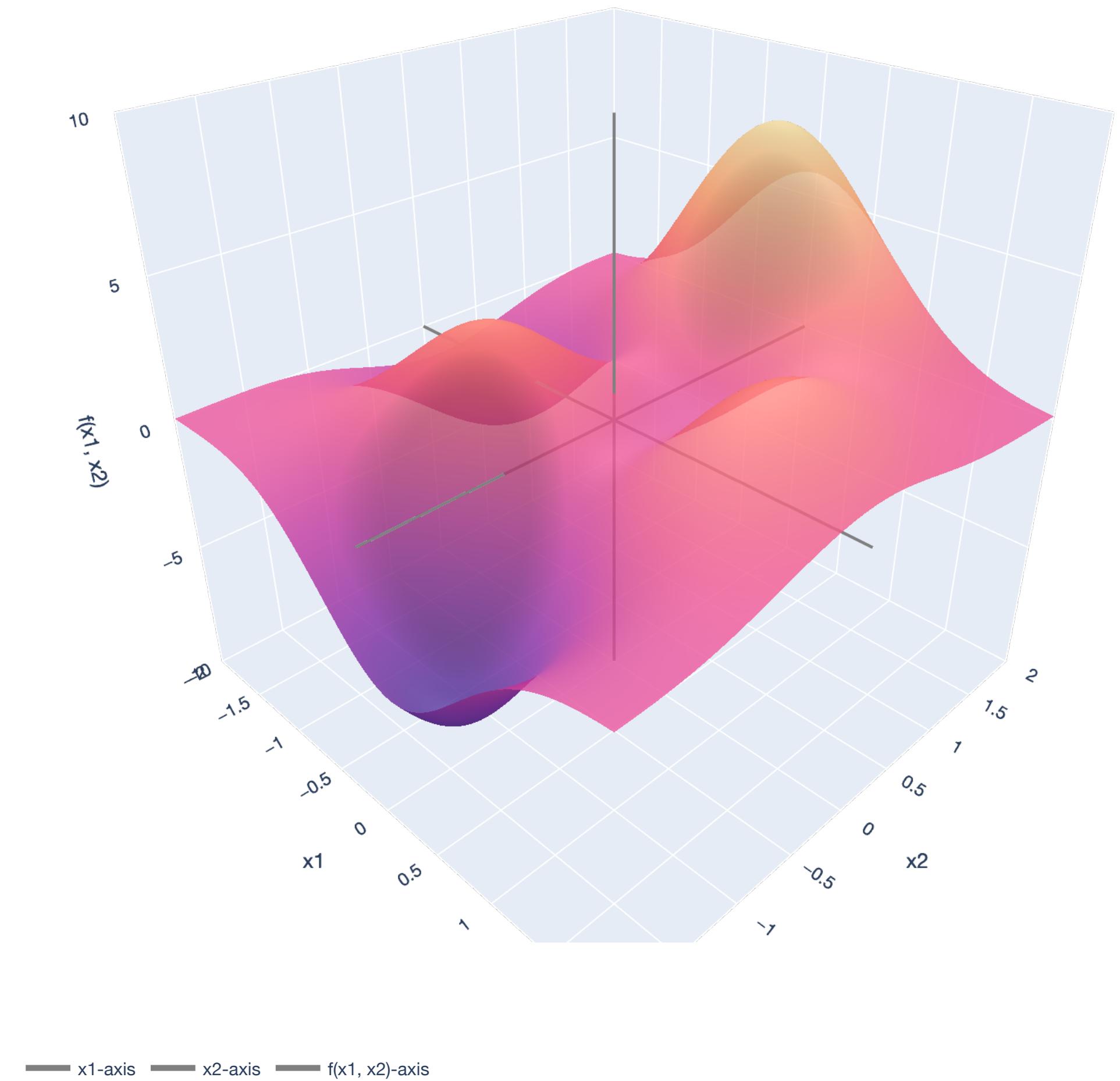
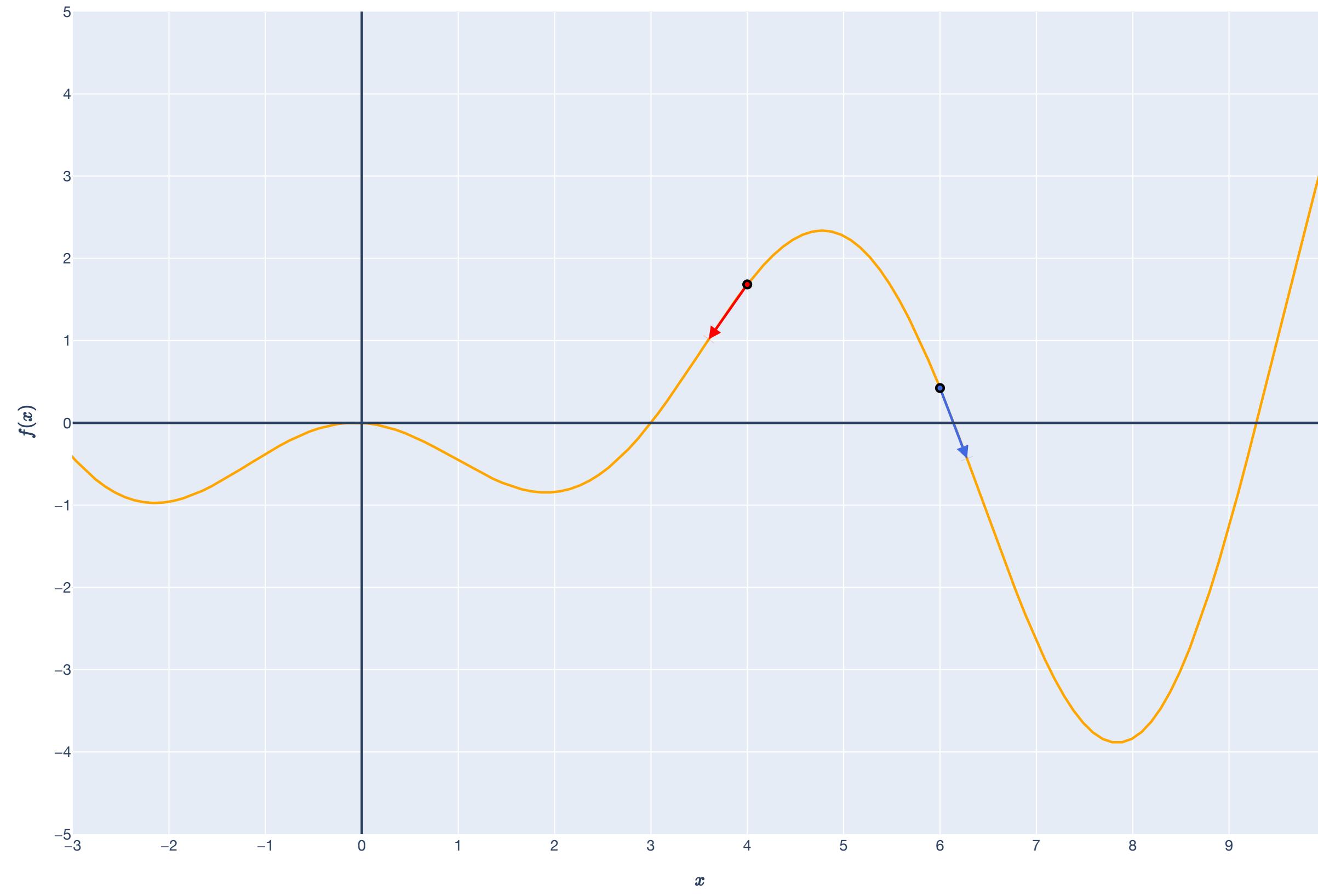
For  $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Compute:  $\mathbf{x}_t \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})$ .

If  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t) = 0$  or  $\mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{x}_{t-1}$  is sufficiently small, then **return**  $f(\mathbf{x}_t)$ .

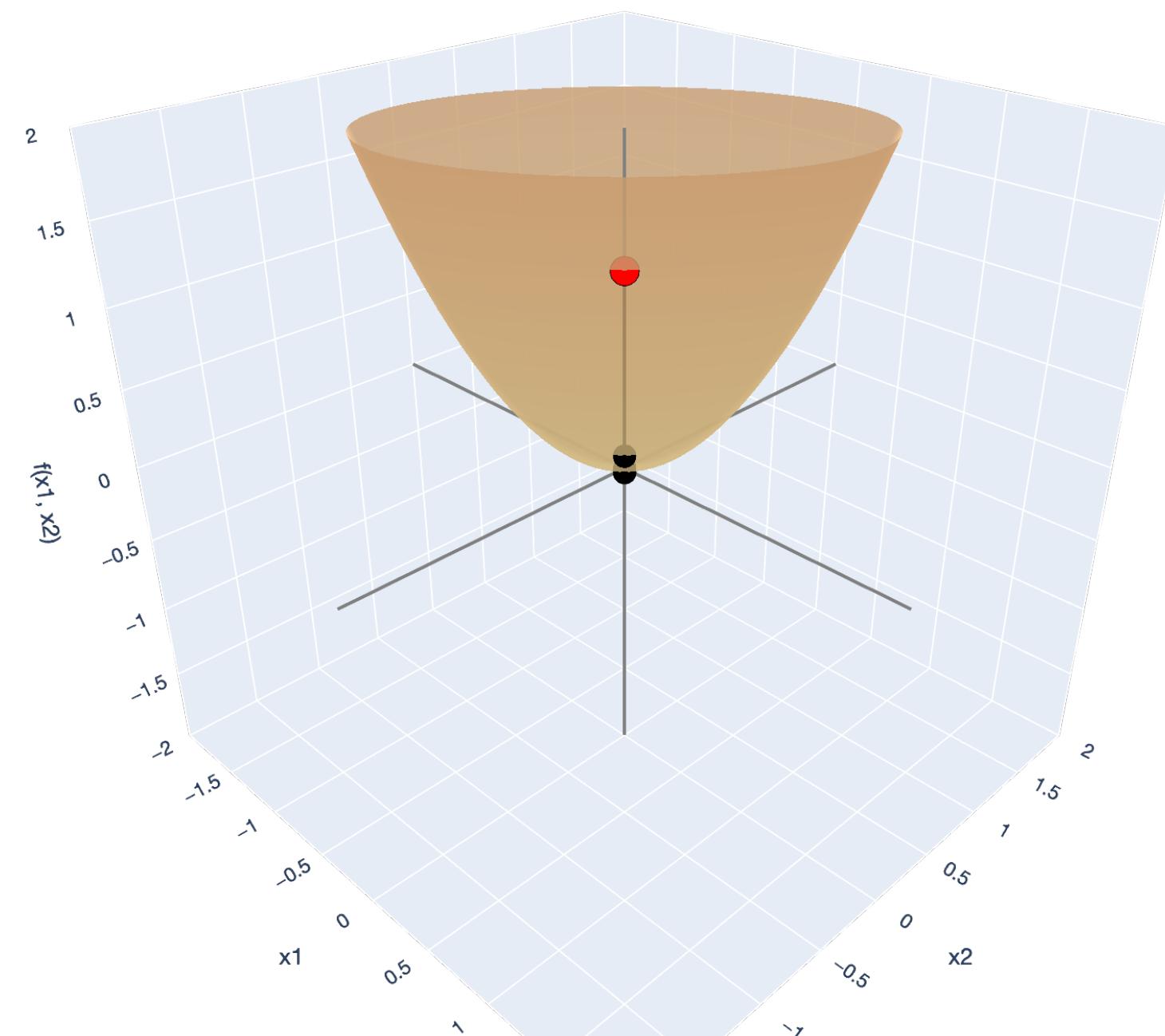
# Gradient Descent

## Preview

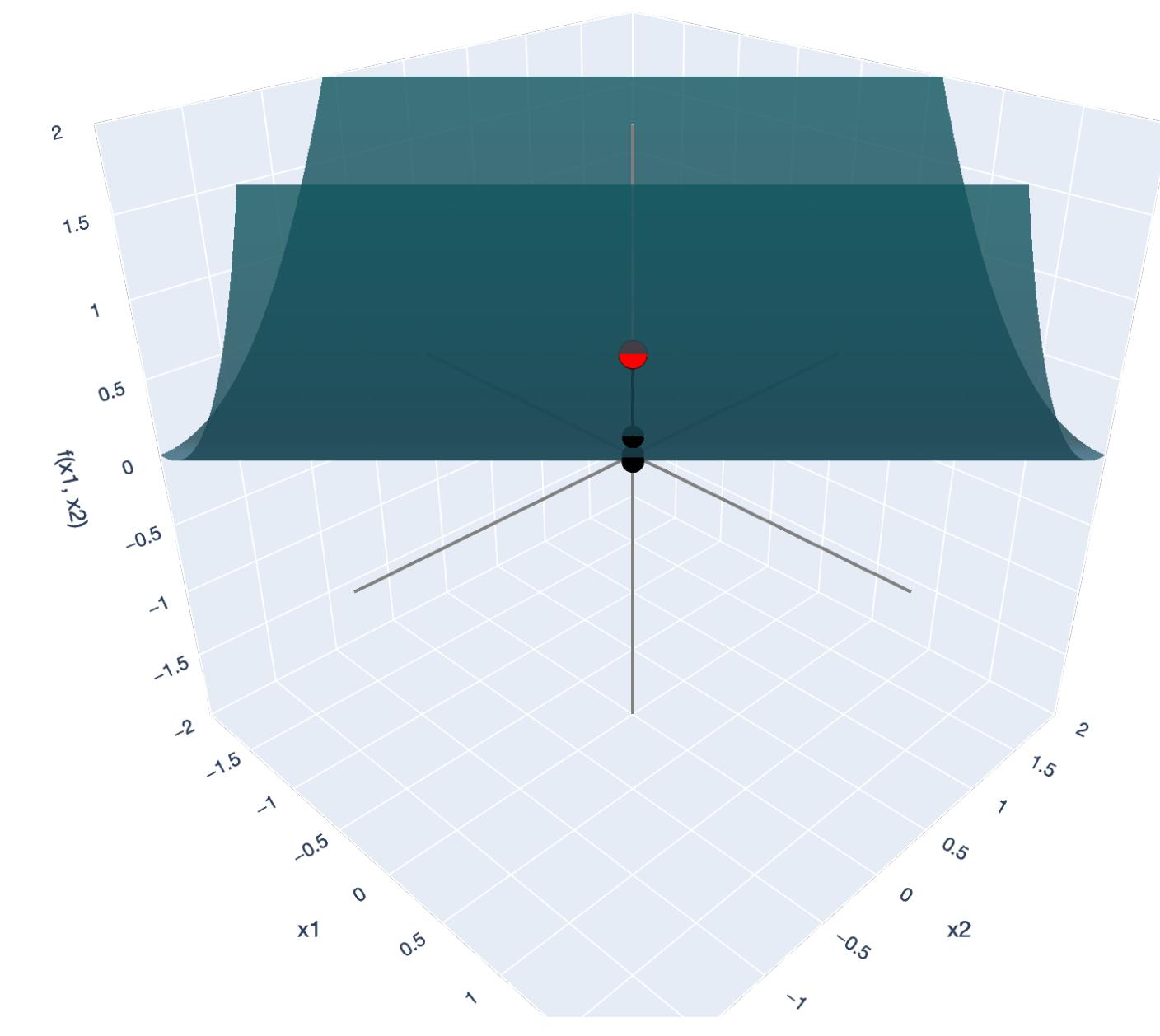


# Gradient Descent

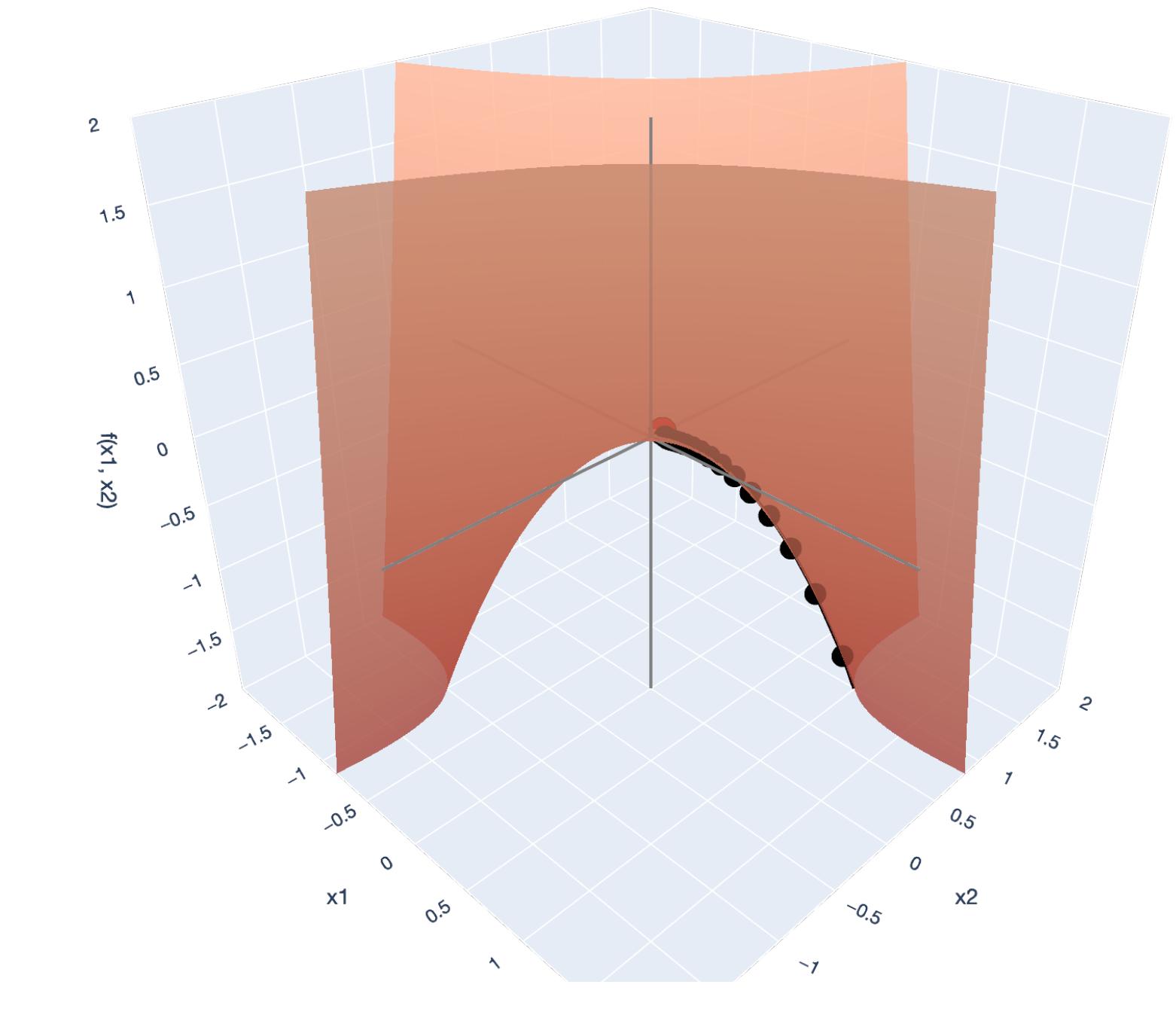
## Preview



— x1-axis — x2-axis —  $f(x_1, x_2)$ -axis ● descent ● start



— x1-axis — x2-axis —  $f(x_1, x_2)$ -axis ● descent ● start



— x1-axis — x2-axis —  $f(x_1, x_2)$ -axis ● descent ● start

# Lesson Overview

**Motivation for differential calculus.** We ultimately want to solve *optimization problems*, which require finding *global minima*.

**Single-variable differentiation review.** In single-variable differentiation, the [derivative](#) is still a  $1 \times 1$  “matrix” mapping change in input to change in output.

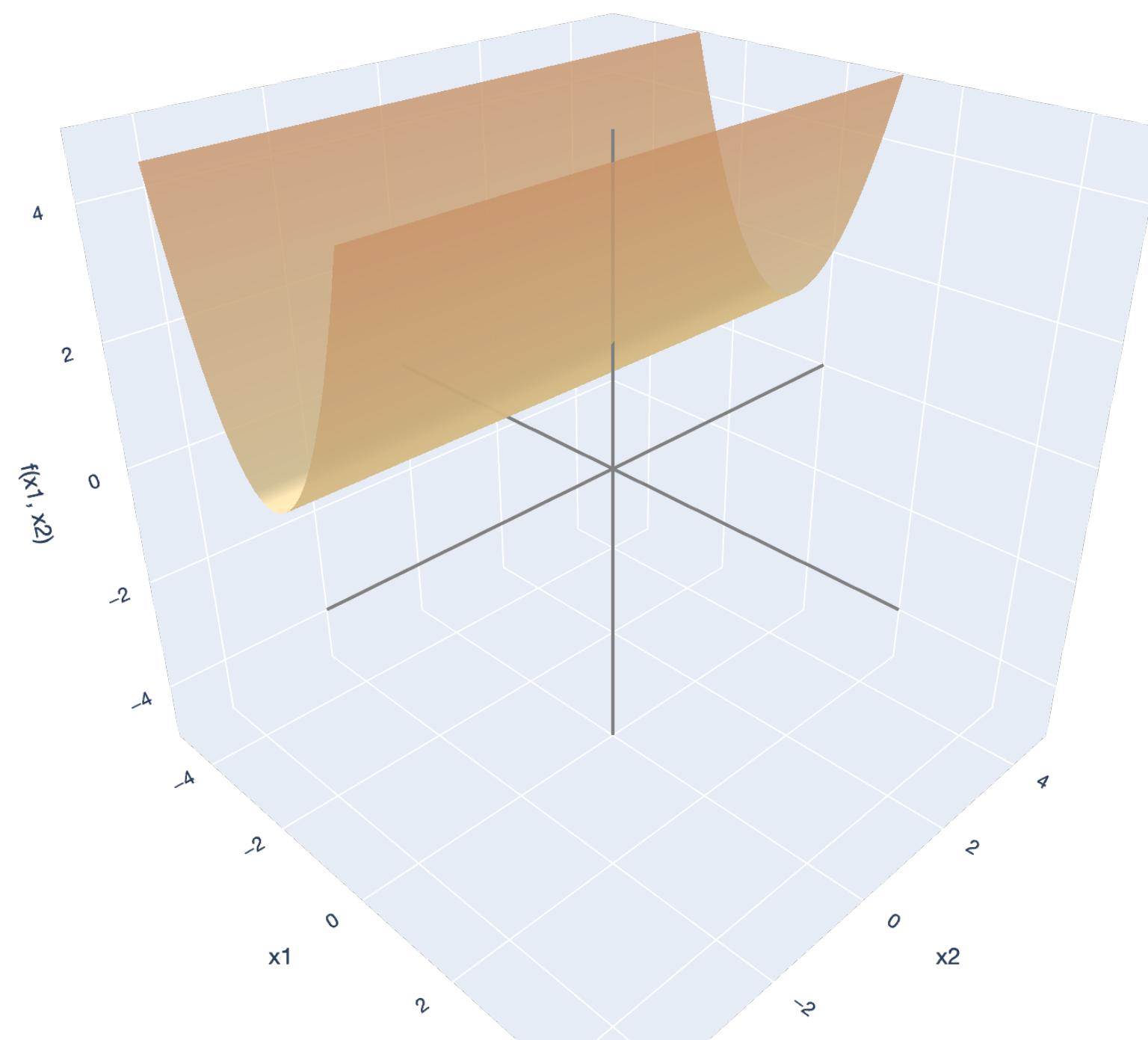
**Multivariable differentiation.** Derivatives in multiple variables become harder because we can approach from an infinite number of directions, not just two.

**Total, directional, and partial derivatives.** When a function is [smooth](#) it has a [total derivative](#) (it is [differentiable](#)). In this case, the [directional derivative](#) and [partial derivative](#) comes directly from the total derivative (Jacobian/gradient).

**OLS: Optimization Perspective.** We can solve OLS using differential calculus instead of linear algebra. We provide a heuristic derivation of the OLS estimator again.

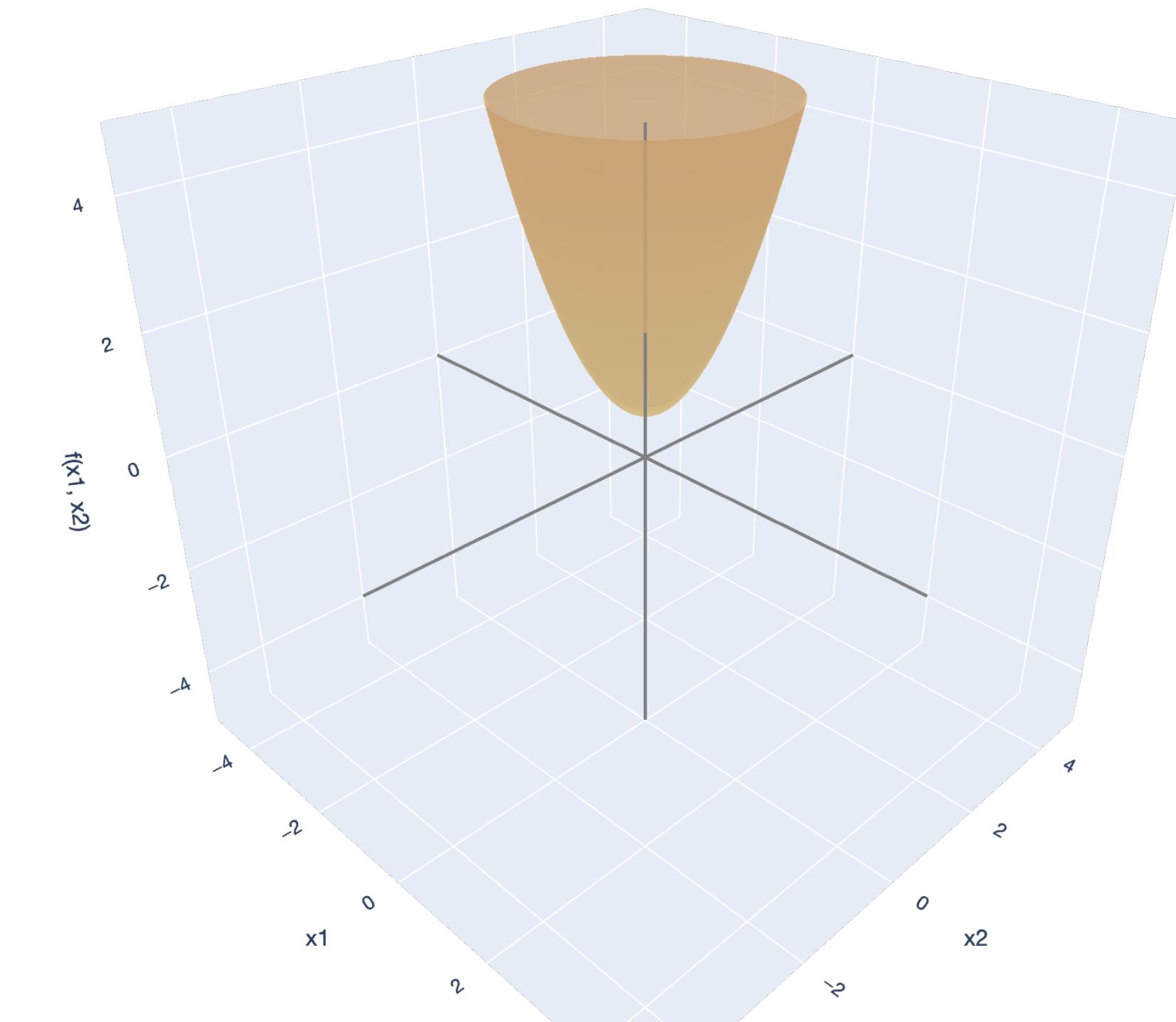
# Lesson Overview

## Big Picture: Least Squares



— x<sub>1</sub>-axis — x<sub>2</sub>-axis — f(x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>)-axis

$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d \geq 0$$



— x<sub>1</sub>-axis — x<sub>2</sub>-axis — f(x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>)-axis

$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d > 0$$

# Lesson Overview

## Big Picture: Gradient Descent

