

Mathematical Building Blocks

DR. SHAILESH SIVAN

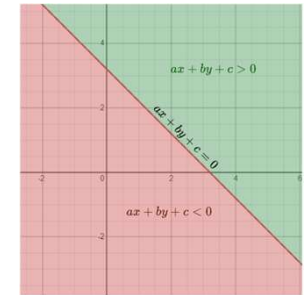
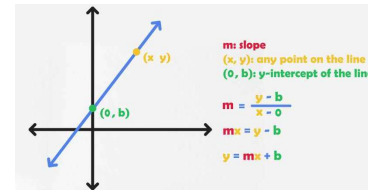
DCS, CUSAT

EQUATION OF A LINE

slope \rightarrow constant
 $y = mx + b$
 \uparrow
 variables



$Ax + By = C$,
 where:
 A, B, C - constants
 x, y - variables



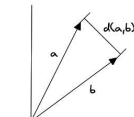
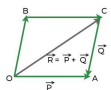
VECTORS AND VECTORSPACE

A vector is a quantity or phenomenon that has two independent properties: magnitude and direction.

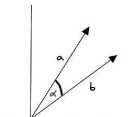
Vector Notation

$\vec{a} = \vec{AB}$

Parallelogram Law of Vector Addition

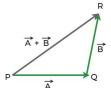


Euclidean Distance



Cosine Similarity

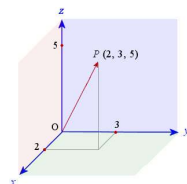
Triangle Law of Vector Addition



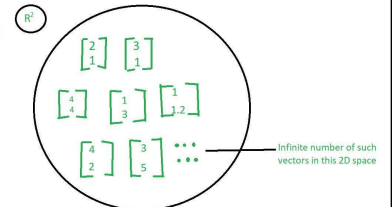
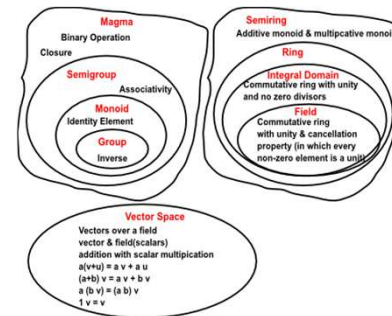
n -Dimensional Vectors and Points

$V = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$

$V' = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$



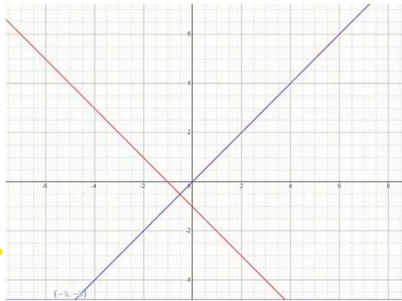
VECTORS AND VECTORSPACE



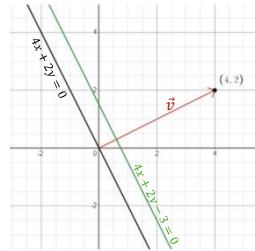
$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Basis of R^2

LINE AND NORMAL

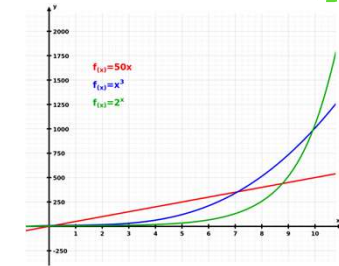
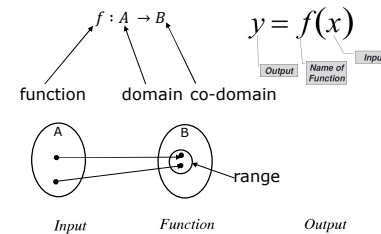


The line $ax + by + c = 0$
and the vector (a, b)
 $\vec{v} = (a, b)$ is always normal to $ax + by + c = 0$



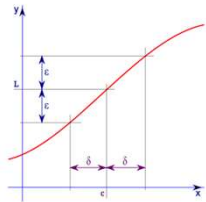
FUNCTIONS

A function relates every element in a set to exactly one element in another set



A function which has either or one of its subsets as its range is called a **real valued function**. Further, if its domain is also either \mathbb{R} or a subset of \mathbb{R} , it is called a **real function**.

LIMIT OF A FUNCTION



The **limit** of a function at a point a in its domain (if it exists) is the value that the function approaches as its argument approaches a

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x-h)$$

Left Hand Limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x+h)$$

Right Hand Limit

The limit of a function exists if and only if the left-hand limit is equal to the right-hand limit.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L$$

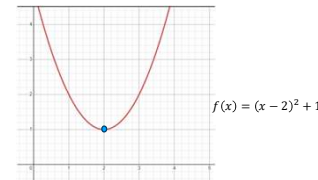
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 5} f(x) = x + 4 = 9$$

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

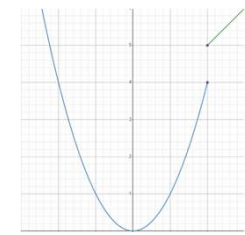
As you approach along the x-axis

What is the y-value getting closer to?

LIMIT OF A FUNCTION



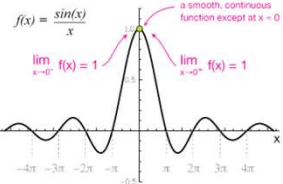
x^-	$f(x^-)$	x^+	$f(x^+)$
1	2	3	2
1.5	1.25	2.5	1.25
1.9	1.01	2.1	1.01
1.99	1.0001	2.01	1.0001
1.999	1.000001	2.001	1.000001
1.9999	1.00000001	2.0001	1.00000001



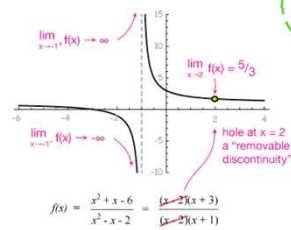
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x < 2 \\ x+3 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

x^-	$f(x^-)$	x^+	$f(x^+)$
1	1	3	6
1.5	2.25	2.5	5.5
1.9	3.61	2.1	5.1
1.99	3.9601	2.01	5.01
1.999	3.996001	2.001	5.001
1.9999	3.99960001	2.0001	5.0001

LIMIT OF A FUNCTION

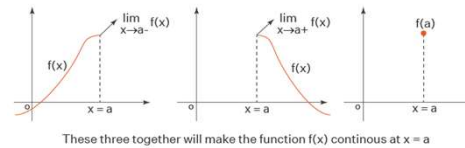


x	sin(x)/x	x	sin(x)/x
π	0.0	$-\pi$	0.0
1.0000	0.8414710	-1.0000	0.8414710
0.1000	0.9983342	-0.1000	0.9983342
0.0010	0.9999998	-0.0010	0.9999998
0.0001	1.0000000	-0.0001	1.0000000

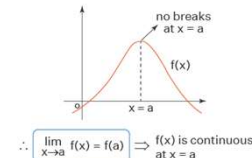


$x \rightarrow 2^-$	$f(x)$	$x \rightarrow 2^+$	$f(x)$
1.50000	1.80000	2.50000	1.57143
1.75000	1.72727	2.25000	1.61538
1.90000	1.68966	2.10000	1.64516
1.95000	1.67797	2.05000	1.65574
1.99000	1.66890	2.01000	1.66445
1.99900	1.66689	2.00100	1.66644
1.99990	1.66669	2.00010	1.66664
1.99999	1.66667	2.00001	1.66666

CONTINUITY



These three together will make the function $f(x)$ continuous at $x = a$



Check the continuity of the function f given by $f(x) = 2x + 3$ at $x = 1$.

$f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 1$
if $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = f(1)$

L.H.S

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2x + 3) = 2 \times 1 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$$

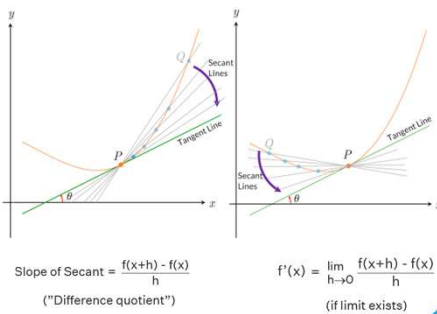
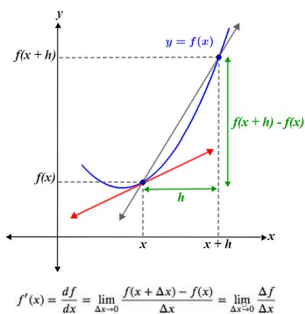
R.H.S

$$f(1) = 2 \times 1 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$$

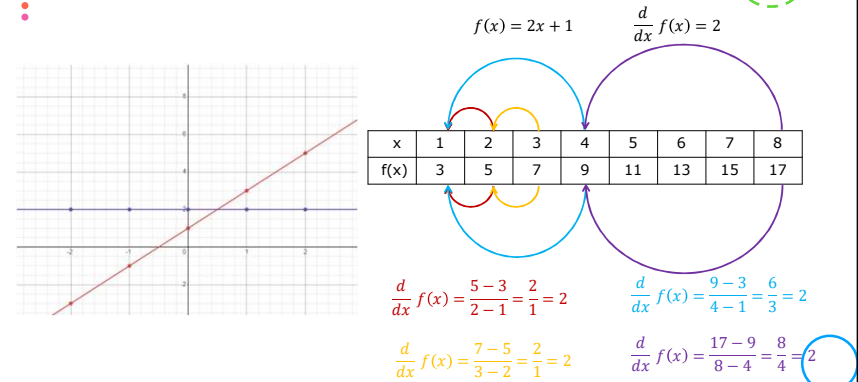
Since, L.H.S = R.H.S

\therefore Function is continuous.

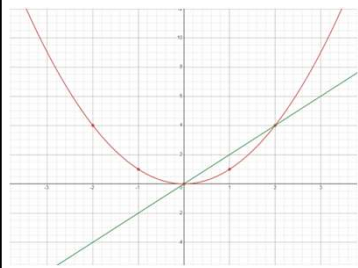
DERIVATIVE OF A FUNCTION



DERIVATIVE OF A FUNCTION



DERIVATIVE OF A FUNCTION



$f(x) = x^2$ $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 2x$

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$f(x)$	0	1	4	9	16	25	36	49

$\frac{(1+3)}{2} = 2$ $\frac{(2+5)}{2} = 4$ $\frac{(3+7)}{2} = 6$ $\frac{(4+9)}{2} = 8$

$\frac{d}{dx} f(x)$ at 1 2 3 4

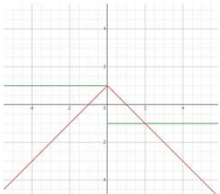
so the derivative of $f(x) = x^2$ $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 2x$

$$f(x) = x^2 \quad \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 2x$$

x	$f(x)$	$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{f(x_0) - f(x)}{x_0 - x}$	x	$f(x)$	$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{f(x_0) - f(x)}{x_0 - x}$	x	$f(x)$	$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{f(x_0) - f(x)}{x_0 - x}$
x_0^-	0	1	1	1	3	2	4	5
0.1	0.01	1.1	1.1	1.21	3.1	2.1	4.41	5.1
0.5	0.25	1.5	1.5	2.25	3.5	2.5	6.25	5.5
0.9	0.81	1.9	1.9	3.61	3.9	2.9	8.41	5.9
0.99	0.9801	1.99	1.99	3.9601	3.99	2.99	8.9401	5.99
0.999	0.998001	1.999	1.999	3.996001	3.999	2.999	8.994001	5.999
x_0	1	2	2	4	4	3	9	6
1.001	1.002001	2.001	2.001	4.004001	4.001	3.001	9.006001	6.001
1.01	1.0201	2.01	2.01	4.0401	4.01	3.01	9.0601	6.01
1.1	1.21	2.1	2.1	4.41	4.1	3.1	9.61	6.1
1.5	2.25	2.5	2.5	6.25	4.5	3.5	12.25	6.5
1.9	3.61	2.9	2.9	8.41	4.9	3.9	15.21	6.9
x_0^+	2	4	3	9	5	4	16	7

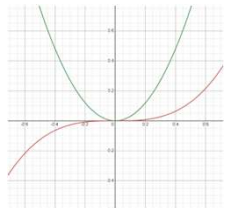
WHY DERIVATIVE EXSIST AND NOT EXSIST ?

$$f(x) = 1 - |x| \quad \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$



h	$\frac{f(x-h) - f(x)}{-h}$	$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$
1	1	-1
0.1	1	-1
0.01	1	-1
0.001	1	-1
0.0001	1	-1
0.00001	1	-1
0.000001	1	-1

$$f(x) = x^3 \quad \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 3x^2$$



h	$\frac{f(x-h) - f(x)}{-h}$	$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$
1	1	1
0.1	0.1	0.1
0.01	0.01	0.01
0.001	0.001	0.001
0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
0.00001	0.00001	0.00001
0.000001	0.000001	0.000001

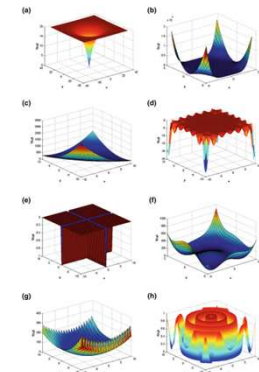
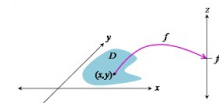
FUNCTION OF SEVERAL REAL VARIABLES

A **real-valued function of n real variables** is a **function** that takes as input n **real numbers**, commonly represented by the **variables** x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n for producing another real number, the **value** of the function, commonly denoted $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$.

$$y = f(x_1, x_2)$$

$$y = f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

$$y = f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$



PARTIAL DERIVATIVES

Partial derivatives of a function of two variables states that if $z = f(x, y)$, then the first order partial derivatives of f with respect to x and y , provided the limits exist and are finite, are:

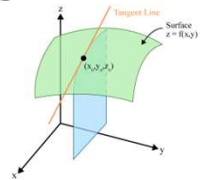
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f_x(x, y) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x, y) - f(x, y)}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = f_y(x, y) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y)}{\Delta y}$$

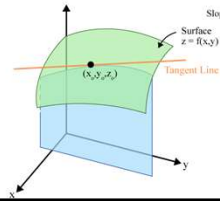
$$z = xy^2 - y \sin(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = y^2 - y \cos(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 2xy - \sin(x)$$



Slope of the surface in the x-direction



$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} \frac{\partial t}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} \frac{\partial t}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$$

$$z = f(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = f_x(x, y) \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = f_y(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} = f_{xx}(x, y) \quad \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} = f_{xy}(x, y) = f_{yx}(x, y) \quad \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} = f_{yx}(x, y) \quad \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} = f_{yy}(x, y)$$

PARTIAL DERIVATIVES ! WHY ?

Isolating Independent Effects: When a function depends on multiple variables, partial derivatives allow us to isolate the effect of changing one variable while holding the others constant. This is crucial for understanding how different factors interact and contribute to the overall behavior of the function

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

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 2 \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 3$$

$$f(1, 0) = 2 \rightarrow f(3, 4) = 18$$

$$\Delta f = 18 - 2 = 16$$

$$\Delta x = 2 \quad \Delta y = 4$$

$$\Delta f = \Delta x \cdot 2 + \Delta y \cdot 3 = 16$$

$$\Delta f = \Delta x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + \Delta y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 16$$

Local Sensitivity Analysis: Partial derivatives measure the instantaneous rate of change of a function with respect to each variable at a specific point. This provides insights into how sensitive the function is to small changes in each variable locally.

f		y				
		0	1	2	3	4
x	0	0	3	6	9	12
	1	2	5	8	11	14
	2	4	7	10	13	16
	3	6	9	12	15	18
	4	8	11	14	17	20

DERIVATIVES AND OPTIMIZATION

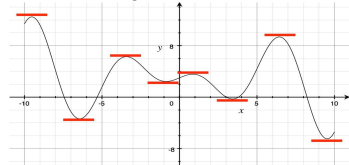
Here $\theta_p < \theta_q \Leftrightarrow \tan(\theta_p) < \tan(\theta_q)$; we know,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \text{ at } P = \tan(\theta_p); \quad \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ at } Q = \tan(\theta_q)$$

What is the angle of tangent at M ?

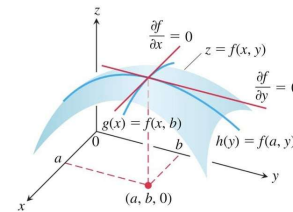
$$\theta_m = 0 \Rightarrow \tan(\theta_m) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ at } M$$

Derivative at a point x_c is $0 \Rightarrow x_c$ is an extremum point which is a maximum or minimum, then it can be used for optimization



DERIVATIVES AND OPTIMIZATION

Gradient of a function



$$\nabla f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the extrema of $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2 - 4(x + y)$

1. Gradient:

$$\nabla f = (2x - 4, 4y - 4)$$

2. Critical point: (2, 1)

To find optimal points of a function $f(x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$:

Calculate ∇f

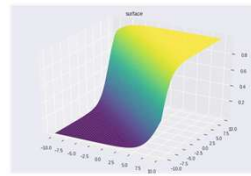
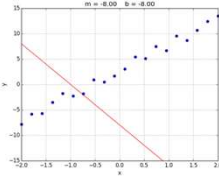
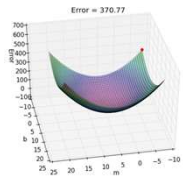
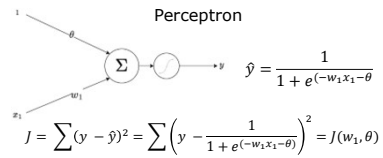
Find x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n where $\nabla f(x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0$

ERROR FUNCTION AND SURFACE

Linear Regression

$$\hat{y} = mx + b$$

$$J = \sum (y - \hat{y})^2 = \sum (y - mx - b)^2 = J(m, b)$$



Dr. Shailesh Sivan
+91 8907230664
shaileshsivan@cusat.ac.in



<https://shaileshsivan.info>

QUESTIONS