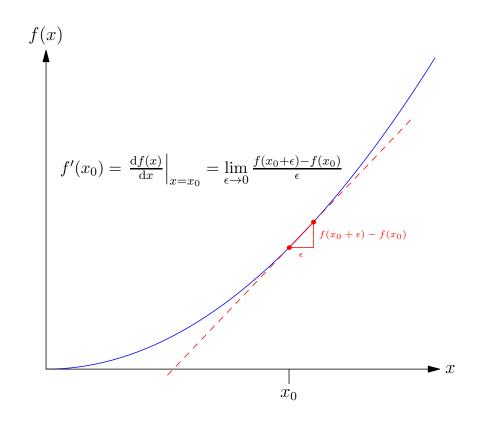
Advanced Machine Learning

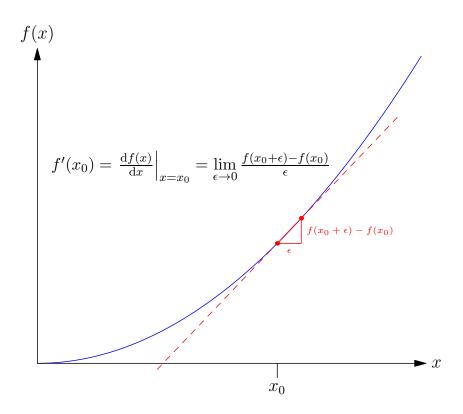
Differential Calculus



Differentiation, product and chain rules, vectors and matrices

Outline

- 1. Why Calculus?
- 2. Differentiation
- 3. Vector and Matrix Calculus



- Calculus is a fundamental tool of mathematical analysis
- In machine learning differentiation is fundamental tool in optimisation
- Integration is an essential tool in taking expectations over continuous distributions
- Both differentiation and integration crop up elsewhere

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- This material will not be examined explicitly, but I assume elsewhere that you can do calculus

Back to Basics

- You have all done A-level maths so should be familiar with the rules of calculus
- But, it is easy to forget the rules and sometimes we use quite sophisticated tricks
- Although the sophisticated tricks really speed up calculations, it pays to be able to understand where these tricks come from

Back to Basics

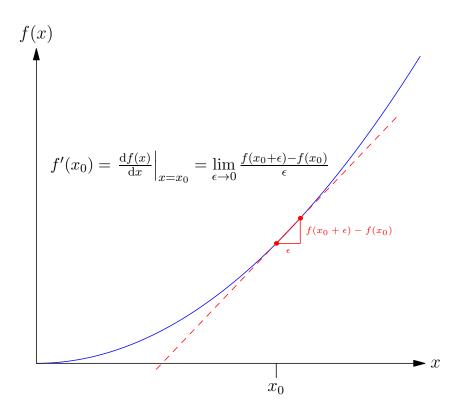
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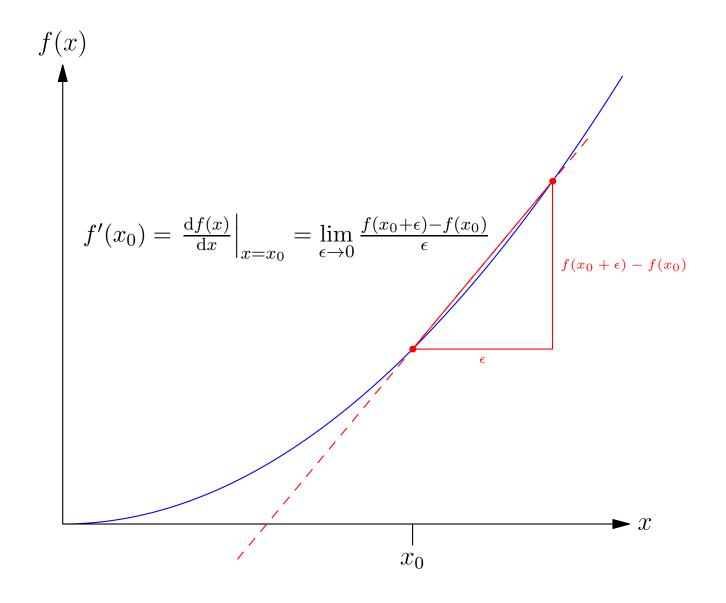
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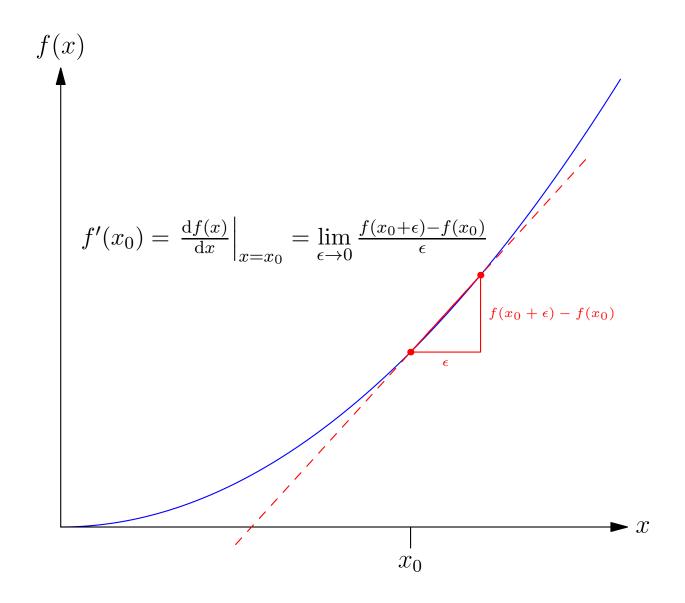
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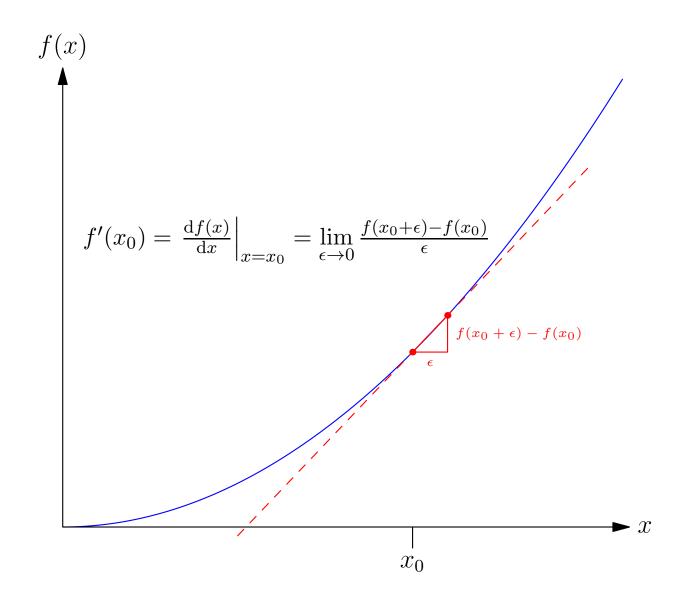
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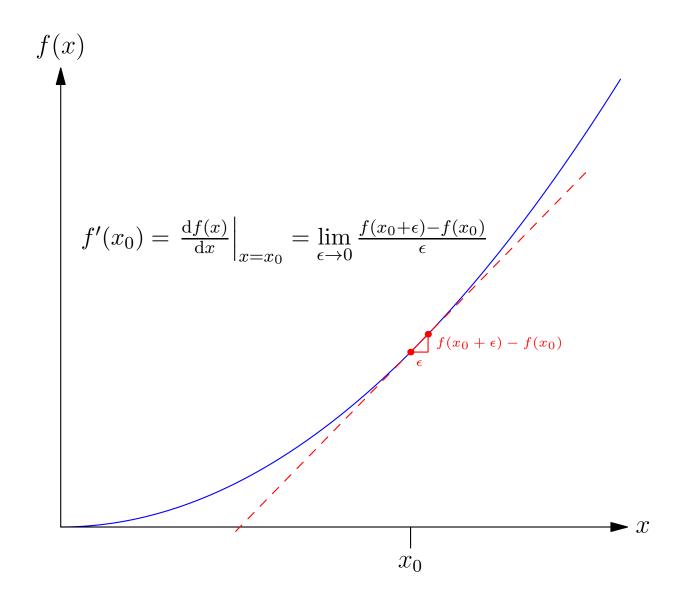
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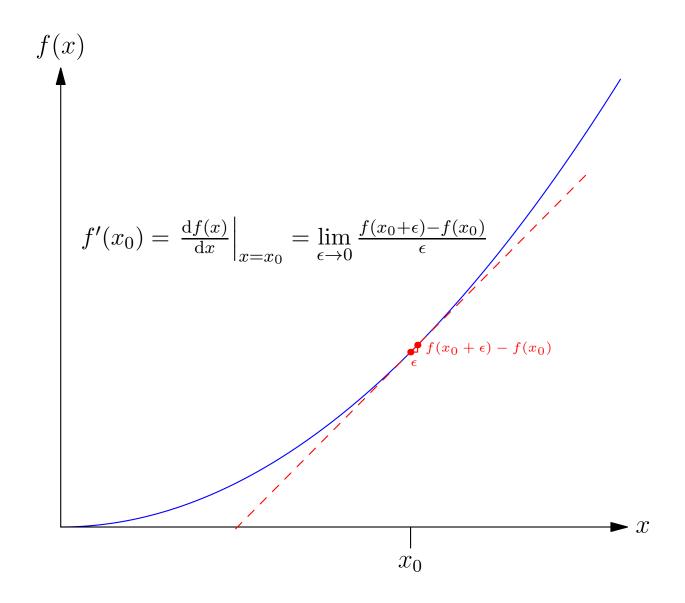












$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x^2}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{(x+\epsilon)^2 - x^2}{\epsilon}$$

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

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$$= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} 2x + \epsilon$$

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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}(af(x)+bg(x))}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{(af(x+\epsilon)+bg(x+\epsilon))-(af(x)+bg(x))}{\epsilon}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}(af(x) + bg(x))}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{(af(x + \epsilon) + bg(x + \epsilon)) - (af(x) + bg(x))}{\epsilon}$$

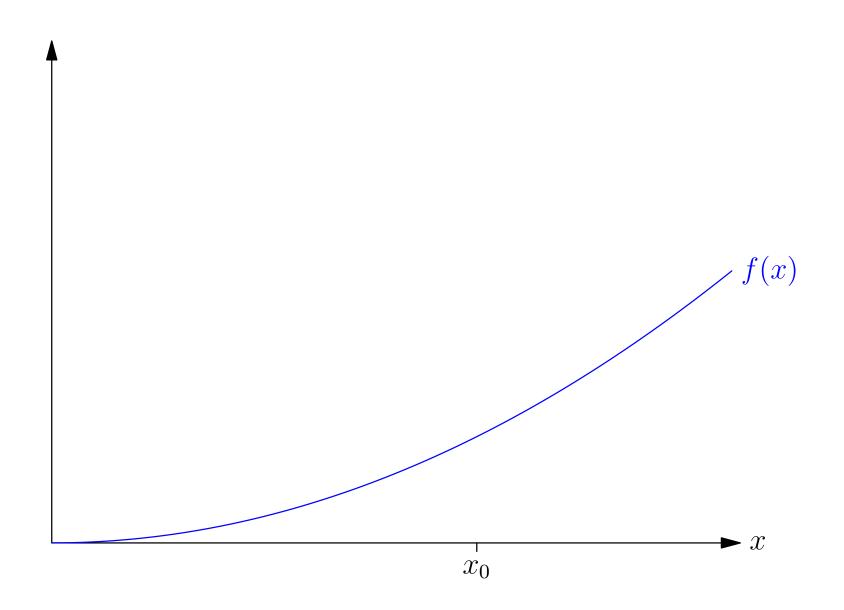
$$\frac{d(af(x) + bg(x))}{dx} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{(af(x + \epsilon) + bg(x + \epsilon)) - (af(x) + bg(x))}{\epsilon}$$
$$= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{a\epsilon f'(x) + b\epsilon g'(x) + O(\epsilon^2)}{\epsilon}$$

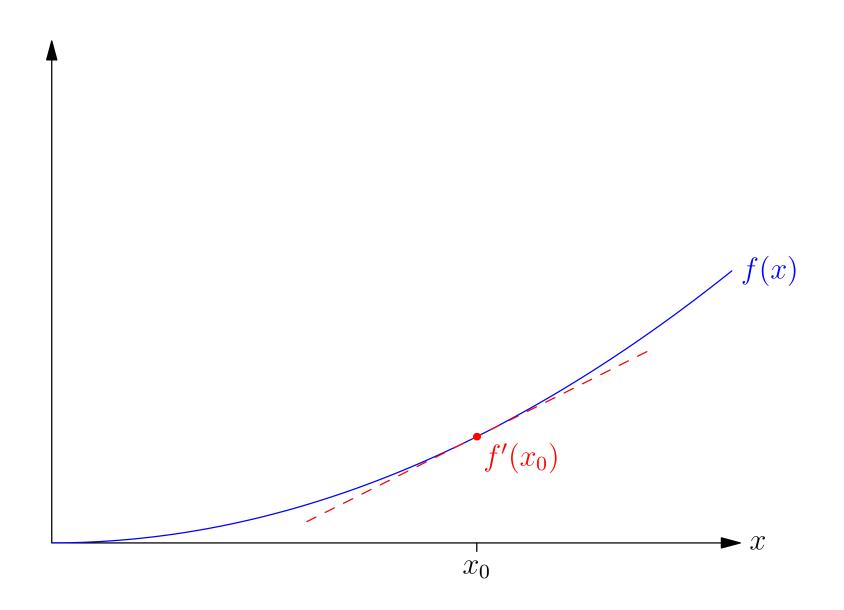
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$$= af'(x) + bg'(x)$$

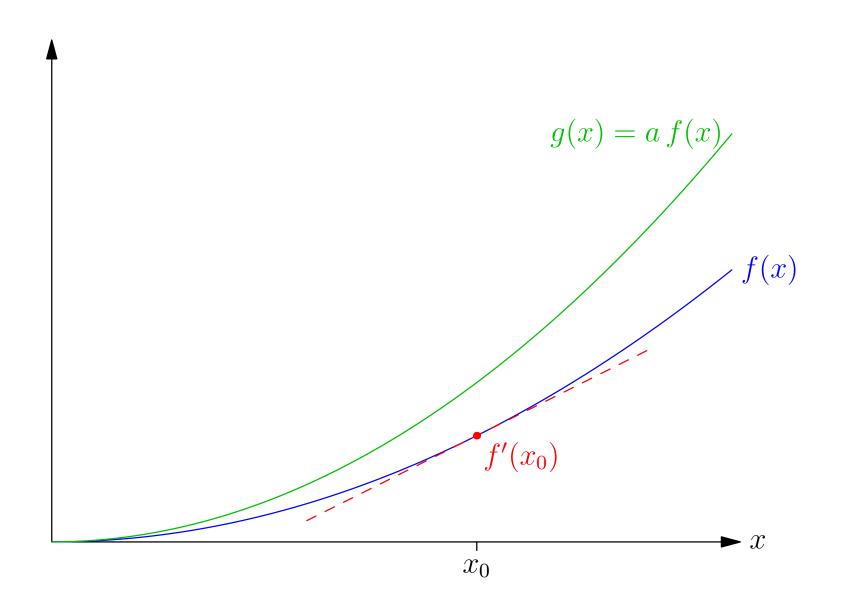
• Note that $f(x + \epsilon) = f(x) + \epsilon f'(x) + O(\epsilon^2)$ (from the definition of f'(x))

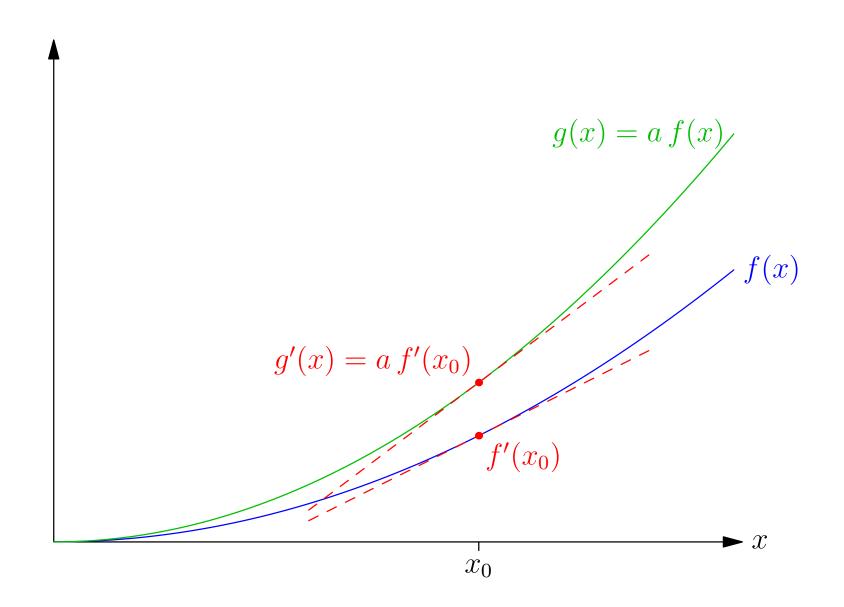
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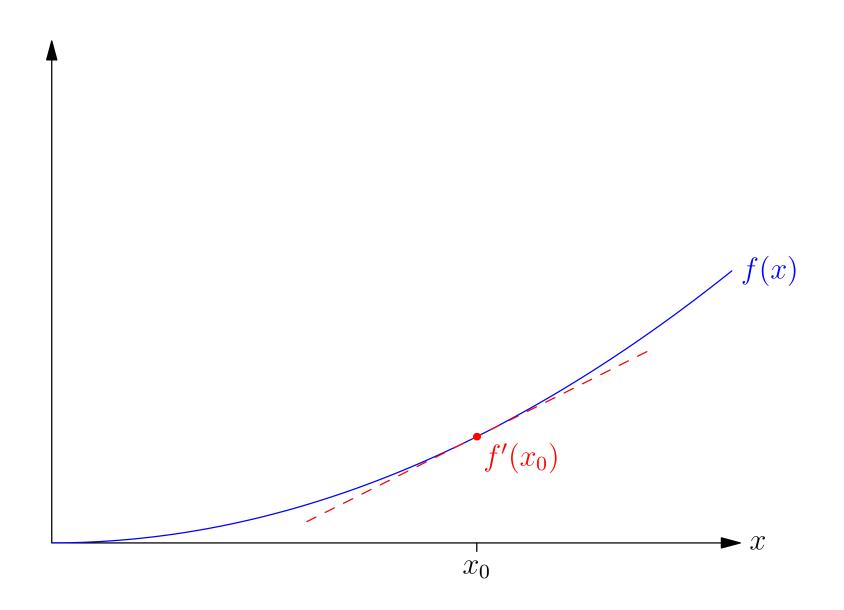
Differentiation is a linear operation!

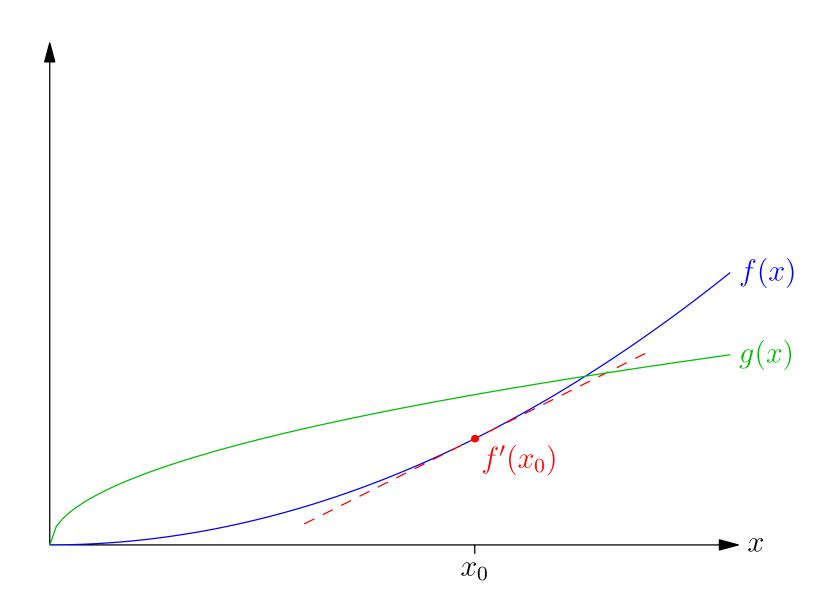


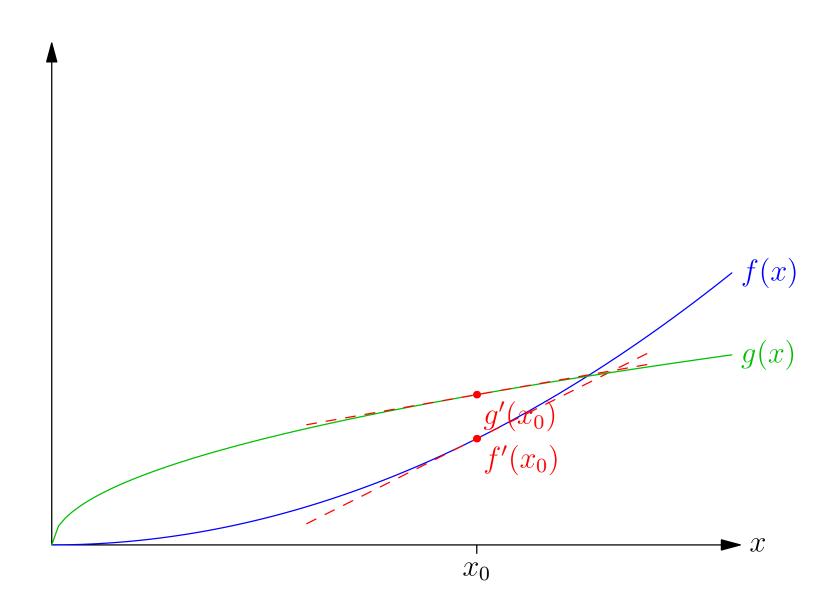


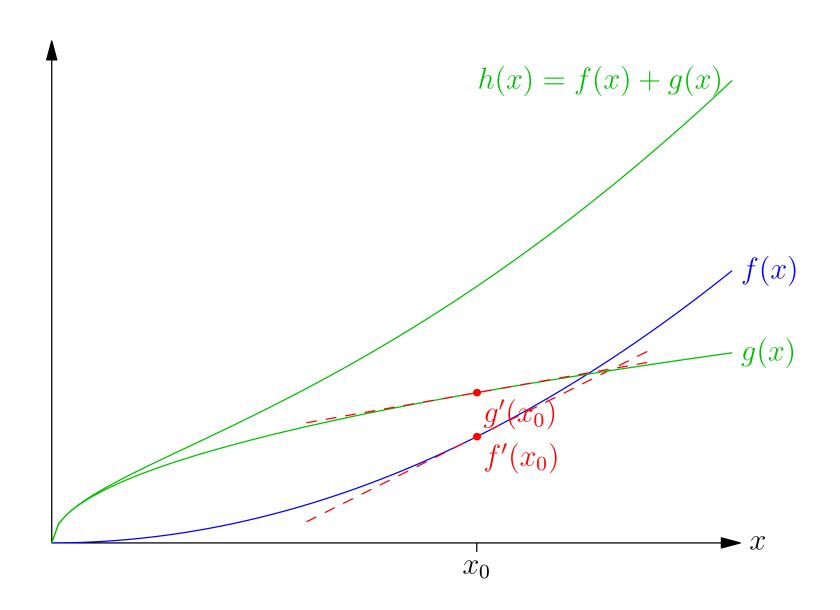


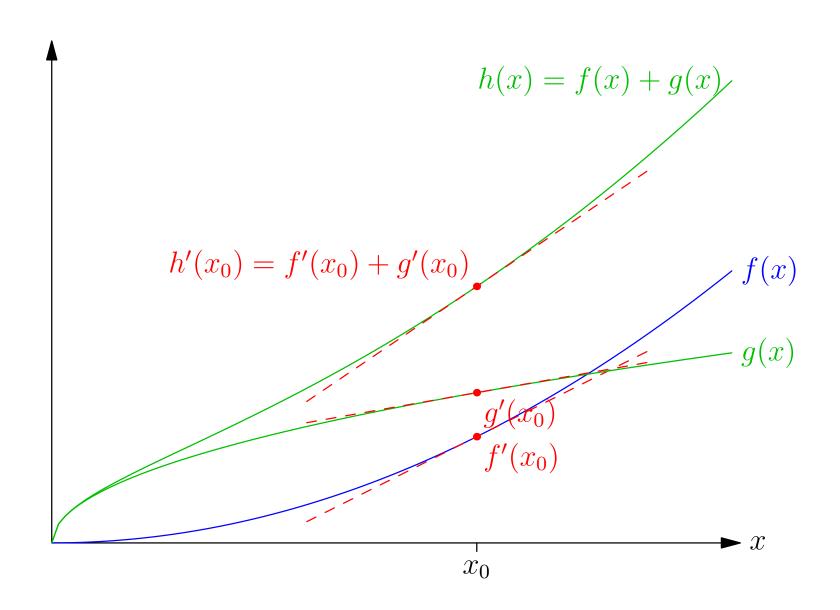












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This is the product rule

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This is the famous chain rule

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 This is the famous chain rule. Together with the product rule it means you can differentiate almost everything

We can also write the chain rule as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f(g(x))}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}f(g)}{\mathrm{d}g} \frac{\mathrm{d}g(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

Sometimes this is neater or easier to remember

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}e^{\cos(x^2)}}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}e^{\cos(x^2)}}{\mathrm{d}\cos(x^2)} \frac{\mathrm{d}\cos(x^2)}{\mathrm{d}x^2} \frac{\mathrm{d}x^2}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

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$$= e^{\cos(x^2)} \left(-\sin(x^2)\right) 2x$$

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$$= -2x\sin(x^2)e^{\cos(x^2)}$$

- Suppose $g(y) = f^{-1}(y)$ is the inverse of f(x) in the sense that $g(f(x)) = f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$
- Using the chain rule

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}g(f(x))}{\mathrm{d}x} = f'(x)g'(f(x))$$

- So g'(f(x)) = 1/f'(x)
- Writing y=f(x) so that $x=f^{-1}(y)=g(y)$ we find g'(y)=1/f'(g(y)) that is

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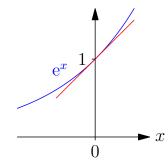
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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}g(y)}{\mathrm{d}y} = \frac{1}{f'(g(y))} \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}f^{-1}(y)}{\mathrm{d}y} = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(y))}$$

• Note that $a^{b+c} = a^b a^c$ (that is we multiply a together b+c times)

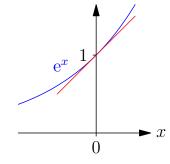
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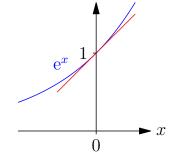
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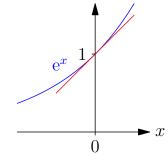
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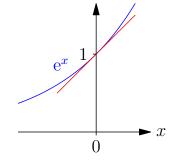


• But $e^{x+\epsilon} = e^x e^{\epsilon} = e^x (1 + \epsilon + O(\epsilon^2)) = e^x + \epsilon e^x + O(\epsilon^2)$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathrm{e}^x}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{x+\epsilon} - \mathrm{e}^x}{\epsilon}$$

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• But $e^{x+\epsilon} = e^x e^{\epsilon} = e^x (1 + \epsilon + O(\epsilon^2)) = e^x + \epsilon e^x + O(\epsilon^2)$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathrm{e}^x}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{x+\epsilon} - \mathrm{e}^x}{\epsilon} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\epsilon \mathrm{e}^x + O(\epsilon^2)}{\epsilon} = \mathrm{e}^x$$

Functions of Exponentials

• What about $f(x) = e^{cx}$

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$$\ln(e^x) = x \qquad \qquad e^{\ln(y)} = y$$

- Recall that if $g(y) = f^{-1}(y)$ then g'(y) = 1/f'(g(y))
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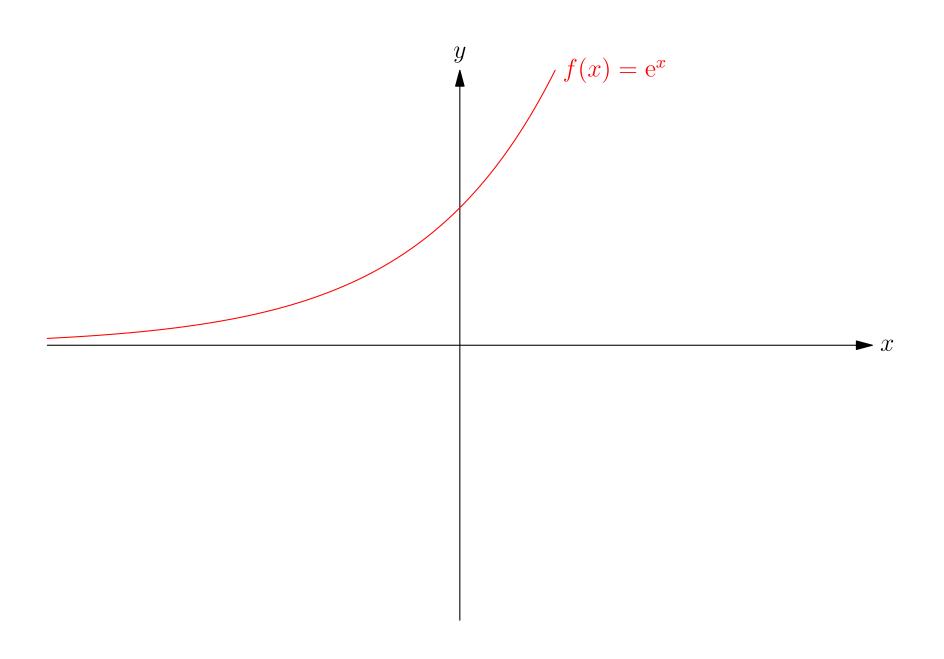
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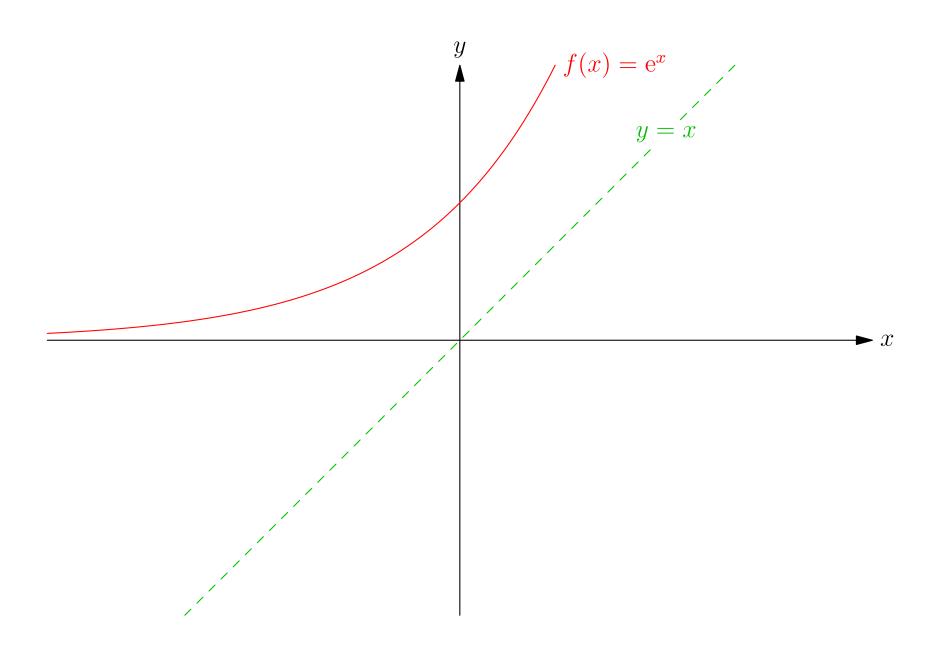
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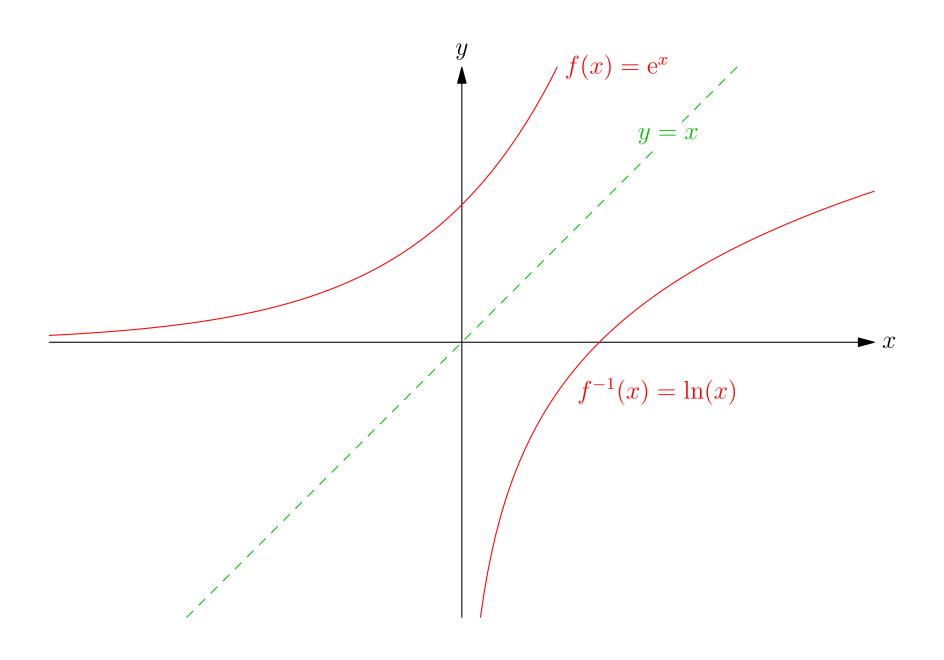
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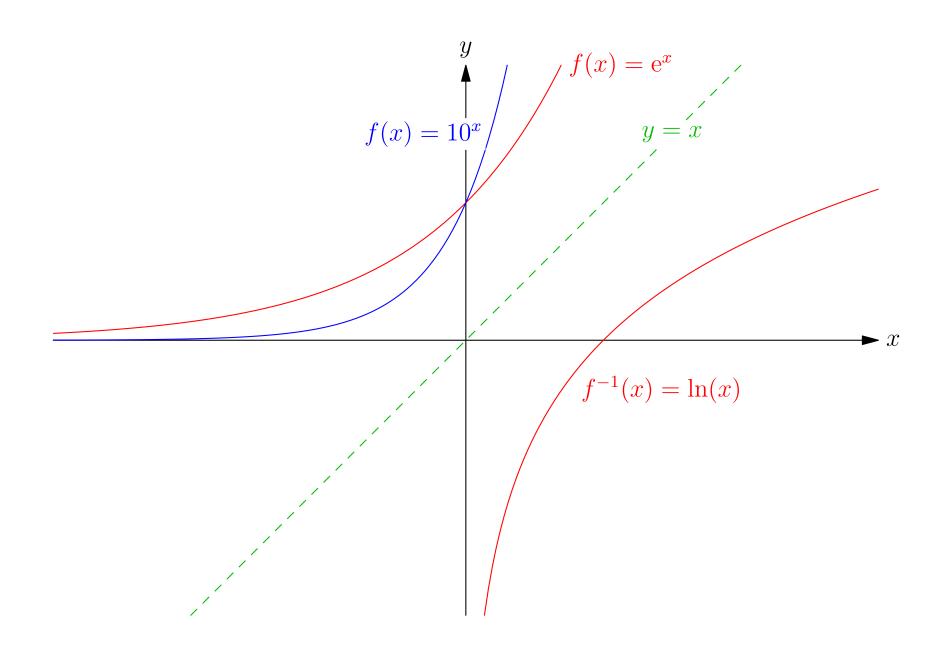
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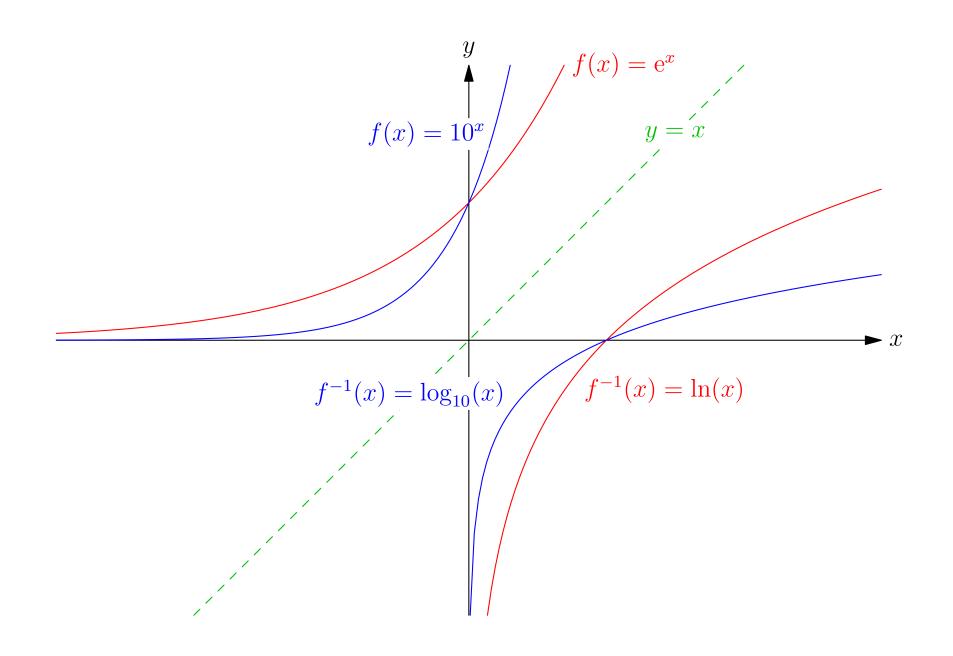
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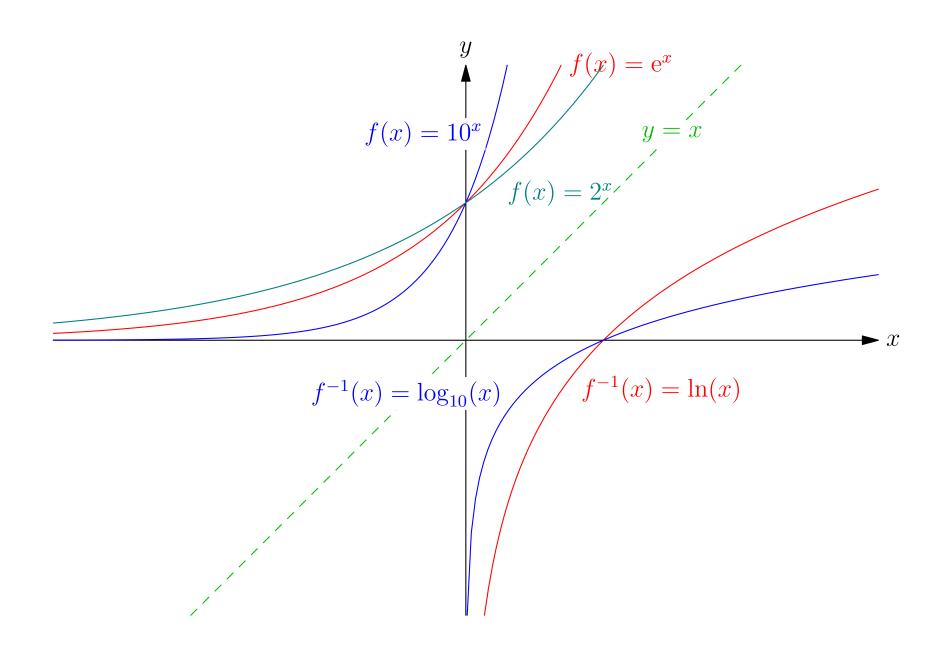


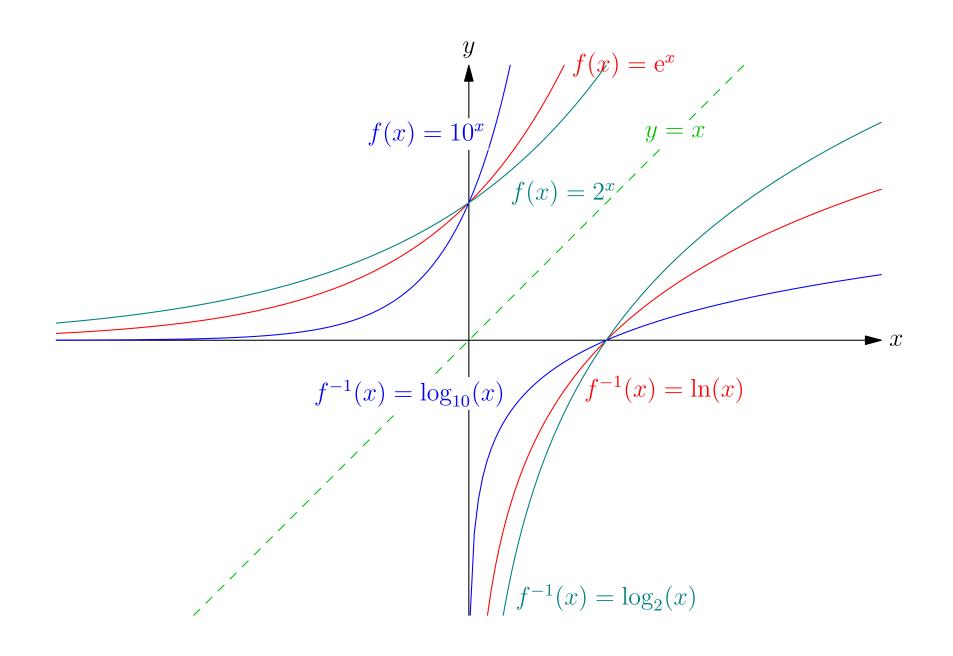






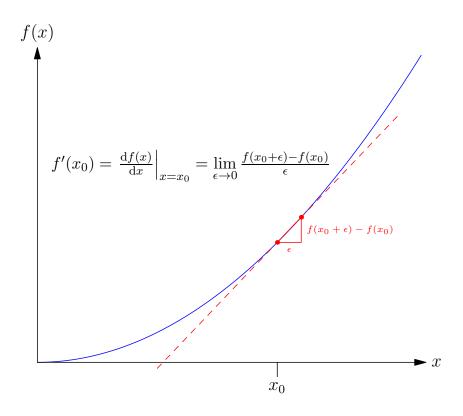






Outline

- 1. Why Calculus?
- 2. Differentiation
- 3. Vector and Matrix Calculus



Derivatives in High Dimensions

- When working with functions $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ in many dimensions then there will typically be different derivative in different directions
- To compute the derivative in a direction $m{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (where $\|m{u}\| = 1$) at a point $m{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we use

$$\partial_{\boldsymbol{u}} F(\boldsymbol{x}) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}) - f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\epsilon}$$

• If $u = \delta_i = (0, ..., 0, 1, 0, ..., 0)$ (i.e. $u_i = 1$) then

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$$g_i(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_i}$$

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This is the start of the high-dimensional Taylor expansion

$$\nabla w^{\mathsf{T}} M w$$

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$$\nabla \boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{w} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial w_2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial w_3} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \sum_{i,j} w_i M_{ij} w_j$$

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$$= \boldsymbol{M} \boldsymbol{w} + \boldsymbol{M}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{w}$$

• We can compute the gradient by writing out f(x) componentwise and performing the partial derivative with respect to x_i

$$\nabla \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M} \boldsymbol{w} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial w_2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial w_3} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \sum_{i,j} w_i M_{ij} w_j = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_j M_{1j} w_j + \sum_i w_i M_{i1} \\ \sum_j M_{2j} w_j + \sum_i w_i M_{i2} \\ \sum_j M_{3j} w_j + \sum_i w_i M_{i3} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$
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 It is tedious to compute these things component-wise, but when you need to understand what is going on then go back to the basics

- A slicker way is just to expand $f(x + \epsilon u)$
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Differentiating Matrices

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$$L(\mathbf{W}) = (\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{b} - c)^2$$

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Generalised Gradient

We can generalise the idea of gradient to matrices

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From an identical argument we used for vectors

$$L(\mathbf{W} + \epsilon \mathbf{U}) = L(\mathbf{W}) + \epsilon \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} + O(\epsilon^{2})$$

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Generalised Gradient

We can generalise the idea of gradient to matrices

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{11}} & \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{12}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{1m}} \\ \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{21}} & \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{22}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{2m}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{n1}} & \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{n2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{nm}} \end{pmatrix}$$

From an identical argument we used for vectors

$$L(\mathbf{W} + \epsilon \mathbf{U}) = L(\mathbf{W}) + \epsilon \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} + O(\epsilon^{2})$$

where

$$\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{G} = \sum_{i} \left[\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{G} \right]_{ii} = \sum_{ij} U_{ji} G_{ji} = \sum_{ij} U_{ij} G_{ij} = \langle \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{G} \rangle$$

Suppose

$$L(\mathbf{W}) = \left(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{b} - c\right)^{2}$$

$$L(\mathbf{W} + \epsilon \mathbf{U}) = (\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{W} + \epsilon \mathbf{U})\mathbf{b} - c)^{2}$$

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Thus
$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = 2\left(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{b} - c\right)\mathbf{a}\mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

The trace of a matrix is the sum of its diagonal elements

$$\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A} = \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = \sum_{i} A_{ii}$$

- Clearly $trc\mathbf{A} = ctr\mathbf{A}$
- Also tr(A + B) = trA + trB
- We note that

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$$trABCD = trDABC$$

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Let

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$$\begin{split} \partial_{\boldsymbol{u}} \mathrm{tr} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{B} &= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathrm{tr} \boldsymbol{A} \left(\boldsymbol{X} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{U} \right) \boldsymbol{B} - \mathrm{tr} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{B} \\ &= \mathrm{tr} \; \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{U} \boldsymbol{B} = \mathrm{tr} \; \boldsymbol{B}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{A}^\mathsf{T} = \mathrm{tr} \; \boldsymbol{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{A}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{B}^\mathsf{T} \end{split}$$

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• E.g.

$$\begin{split} \partial_{\boldsymbol{u}} \mathrm{tr} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{B} &= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathrm{tr} \boldsymbol{A} \left(\boldsymbol{X} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{U} \right) \boldsymbol{B} - \mathrm{tr} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{B} \\ &= \mathrm{tr} \; \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{U} \boldsymbol{B} = \mathrm{tr} \; \boldsymbol{B}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{A}^\mathsf{T} = \mathrm{tr} \; \boldsymbol{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{A}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{B}^\mathsf{T} \end{split}$$

thus

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

- ullet We often come across logarithms of determinants of matrices, $\log(|\mathbf{M}|)$
- For GP we want to choose ${\bf K}$ to maximise the marginal likelihood, $\log \left(|{\bf K} + \sigma^2 {\bf I}| \right)$
- To find the derivative of log(|X|) we consider

$$\log(|\mathbf{X} + \epsilon \mathbf{U}|) = \log(|\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{I} + \epsilon \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{U})|)$$

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- \star Using |AB| = |A||B|
- \star Using $\log(ab) = \log(a) + \log(b)$

$$|\mathbf{I} + \epsilon \mathbf{M}| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 + \epsilon M_{11} & \epsilon M_{12} \\ \epsilon M_{21} & 1 + \epsilon M_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$

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$$|\mathbf{I} + \epsilon M_{11} \epsilon M_{21} + \epsilon M_{31} + \epsilon M_{41} + \epsilon M_{51}|$$

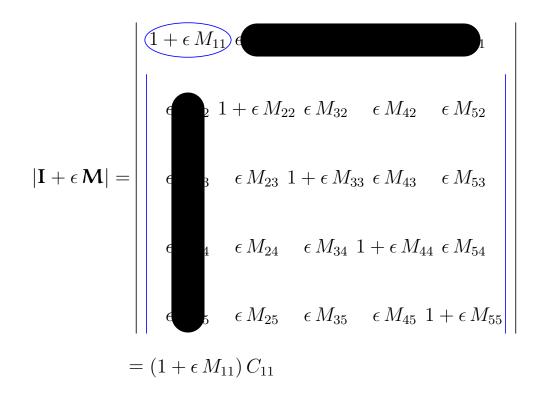
$$|\epsilon M_{12} 1 + \epsilon M_{22} \epsilon M_{32} + \epsilon M_{42} + \epsilon M_{52}|$$

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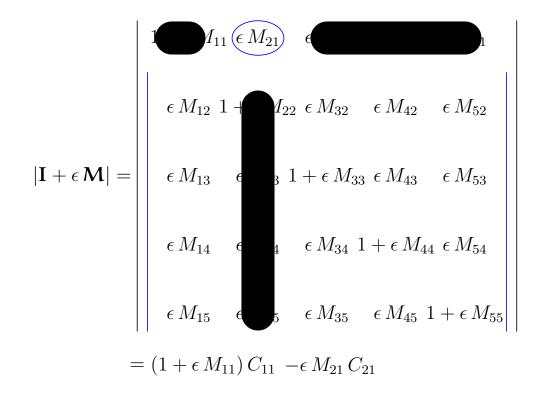
$$|\epsilon M_{14} + \epsilon M_{24} + \epsilon M_{34} 1 + \epsilon M_{44} \epsilon M_{54}|$$

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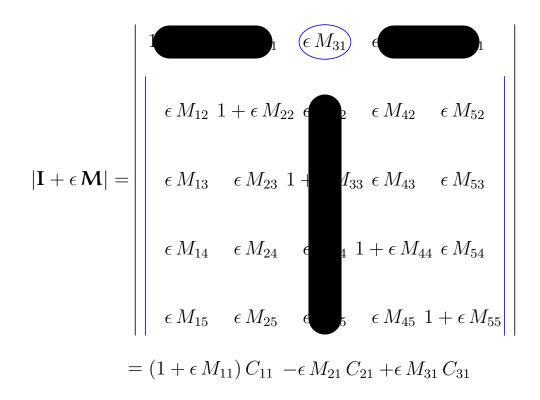
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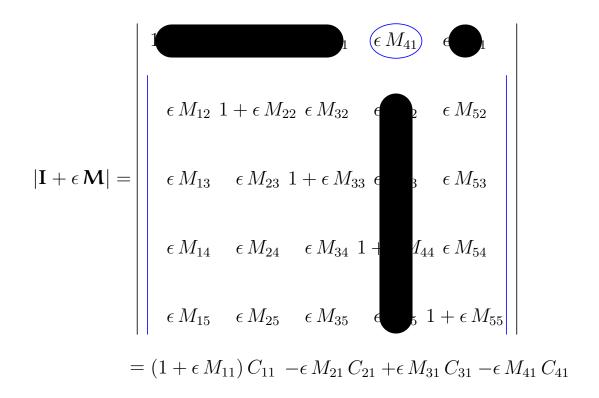
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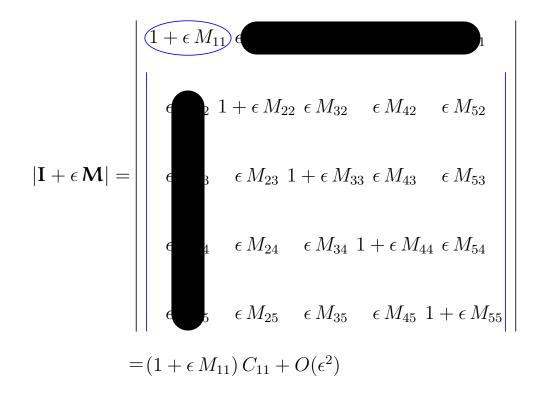
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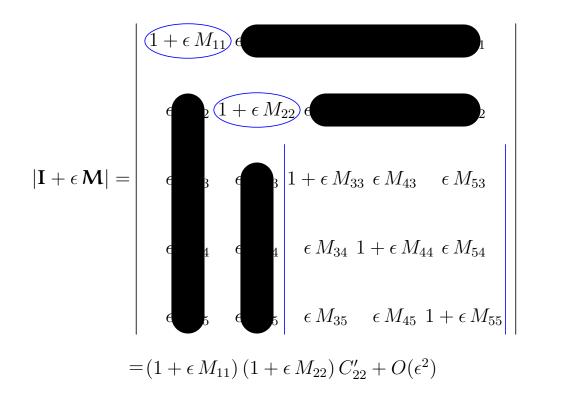
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$$= (1 + \epsilon M_{11}) C_{11} + O(\epsilon^{2})$$

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$$|\mathbf{I} + \epsilon \mathbf{M}| = |\epsilon M_{13} + \epsilon M_{23} 1 + \epsilon M_{33} \epsilon M_{43} + \epsilon M_{53}|$$

$$|\epsilon M_{14} + \epsilon M_{24} + \epsilon M_{34} 1 + \epsilon M_{44} \epsilon M_{54}|$$

$$|\epsilon M_{15} + \epsilon M_{25} + \epsilon M_{35} + \epsilon M_{45} 1 + \epsilon M_{55}|$$

$$= \prod_{i} (1 + \epsilon M_{ii}) + O(\epsilon^{2})$$

$$|\mathbf{I} + \epsilon \mathbf{M}| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 + \epsilon M_{11} & \epsilon M_{12} \\ \epsilon M_{21} & 1 + \epsilon M_{22} \end{vmatrix} = (1 + \epsilon M_{11})(1 + \epsilon M_{22}) - \epsilon^2 M_{21} M_{12}$$
$$= 1 + \epsilon (M_{11} + M_{22}) + O(\epsilon^2)$$

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$$= (1 + \epsilon \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{M}) + O(\epsilon^{2})$$

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using
$$\log(1+x) = x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \cdots$$

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Recall

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• Thus $\partial_{\mathbf{U}} \log(|\mathbf{X}|) = \operatorname{tr} \, \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \big(\mathbf{X}^{-1}\big)^{\mathsf{T}}$

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- Or

$$\frac{\partial \log(|\mathbf{X}|)}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{X}^{-1})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

- With care you can differentiate most expressions
- The chain and product rule are incredibly powerful tools
- We can generalise differentiation to vectors and matrices
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