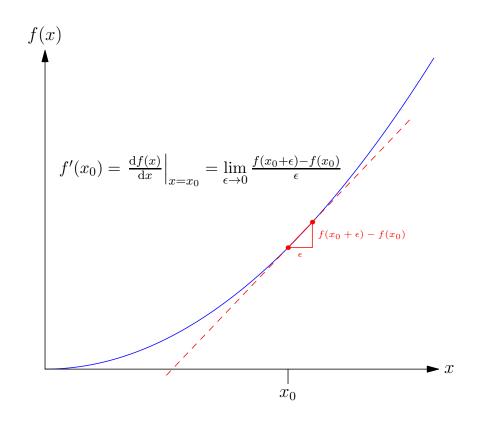
### **Advanced Machine Learning**

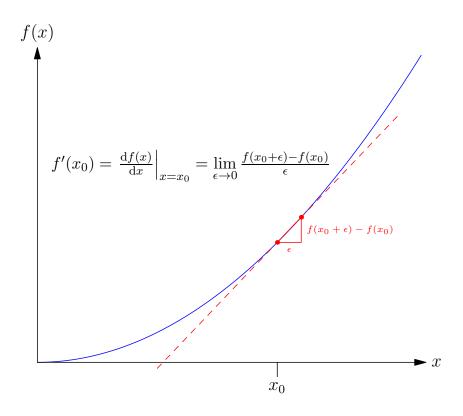
#### Differential Calculus



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

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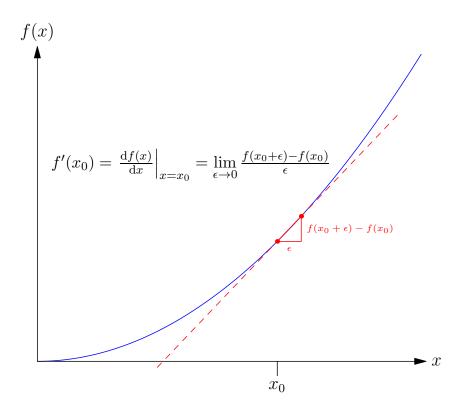
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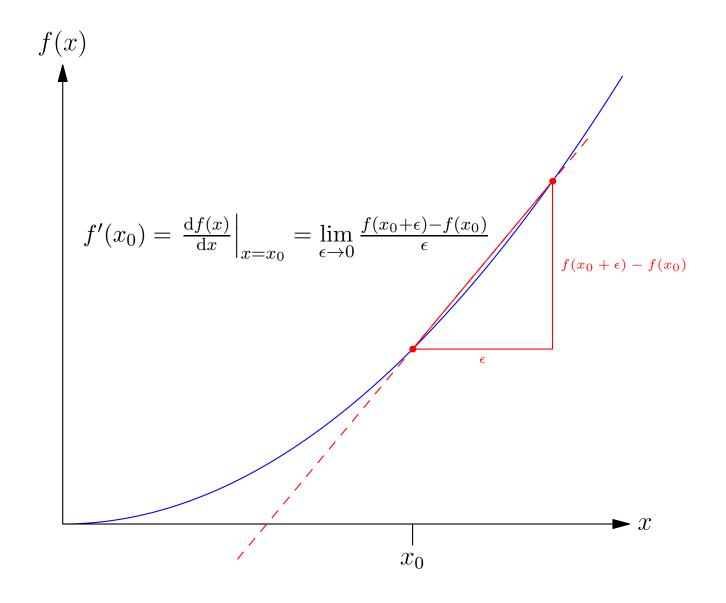
#### **Back to Basics**

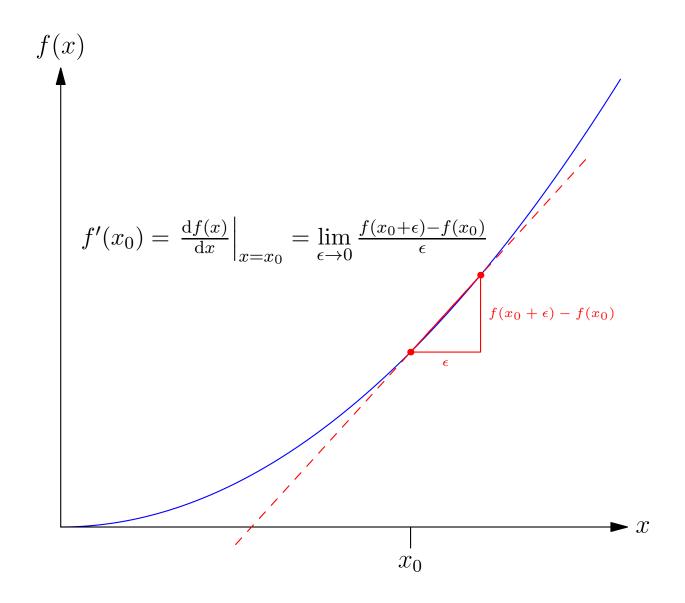
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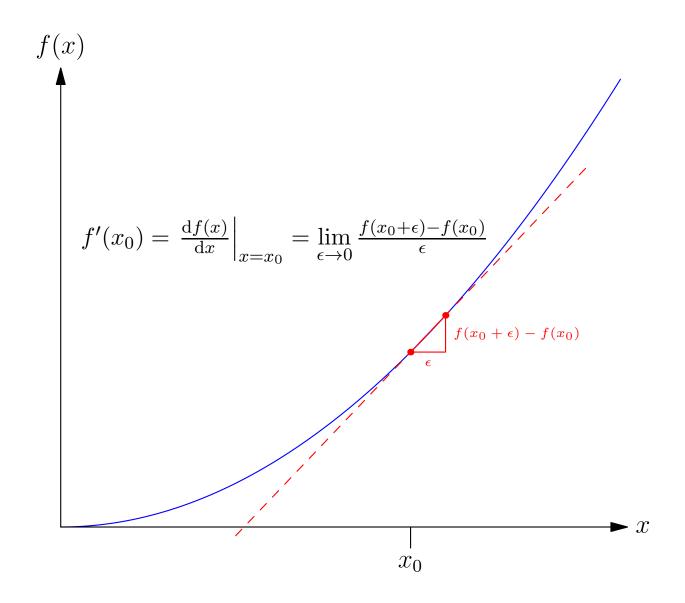
#### **Outline**

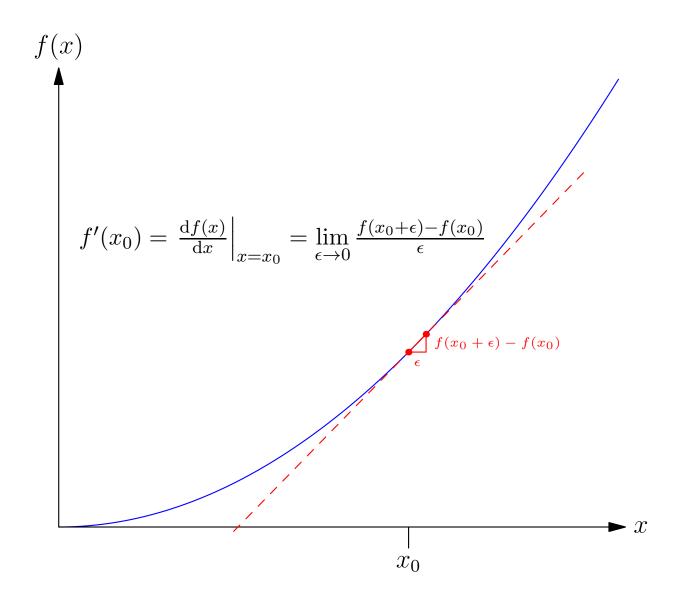
- 1. Why Calculus?
- 2. Differentiation
- 3. Vector and Matrix Calculus

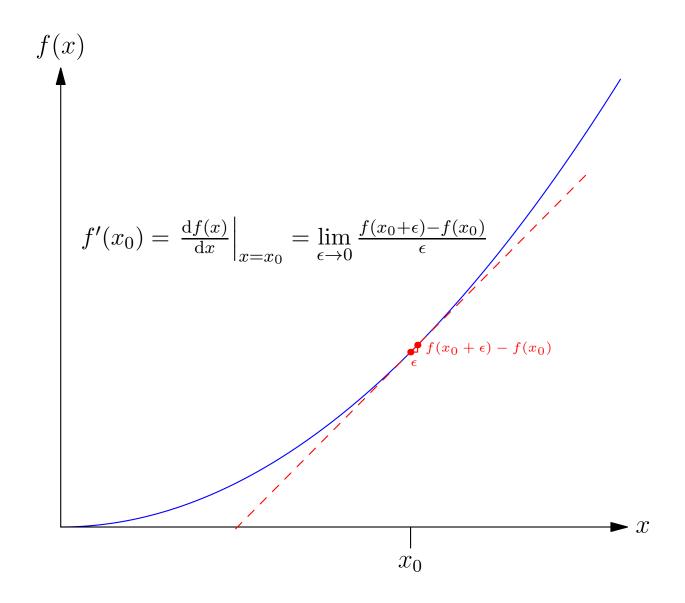












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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}(af(x) + bg(x))}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{(af(x + \epsilon) + bg(x + \epsilon)) - (af(x) + bg(x))}{\epsilon}$$

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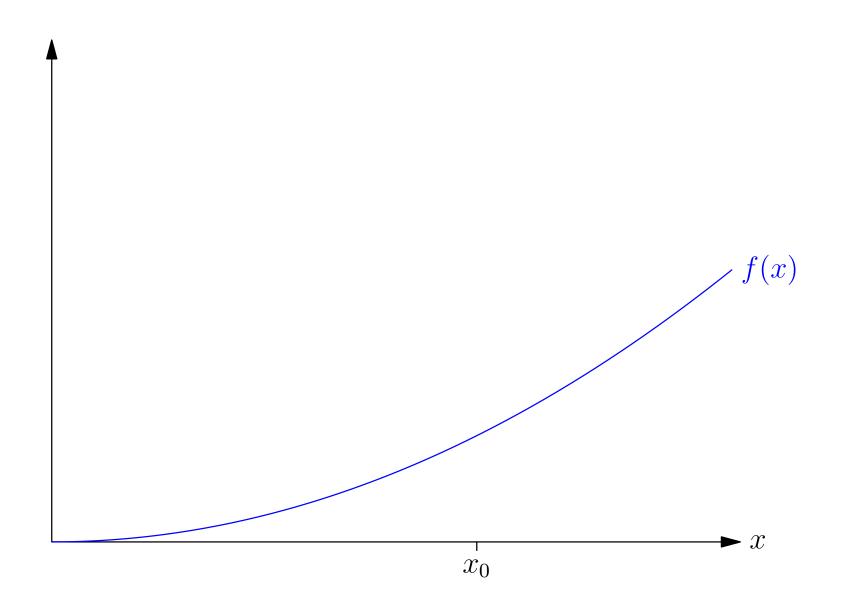
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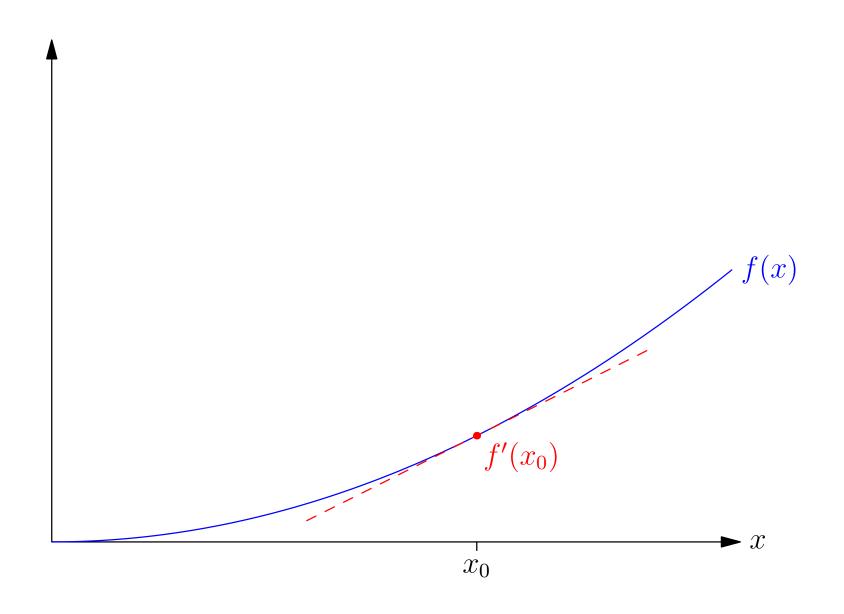
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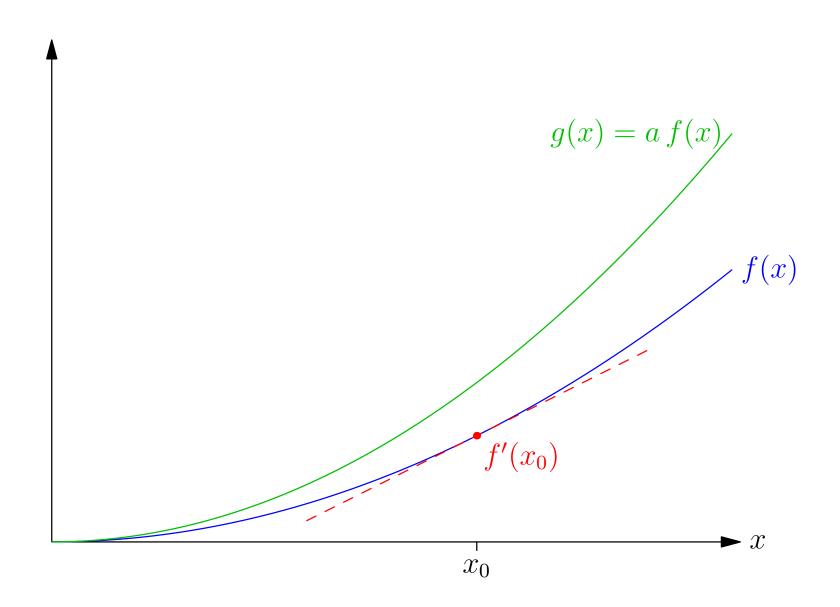
• Note that  $f(x + \epsilon) = f(x) + \epsilon f'(x) + O(\epsilon^2)$  (from the definition of f'(x))

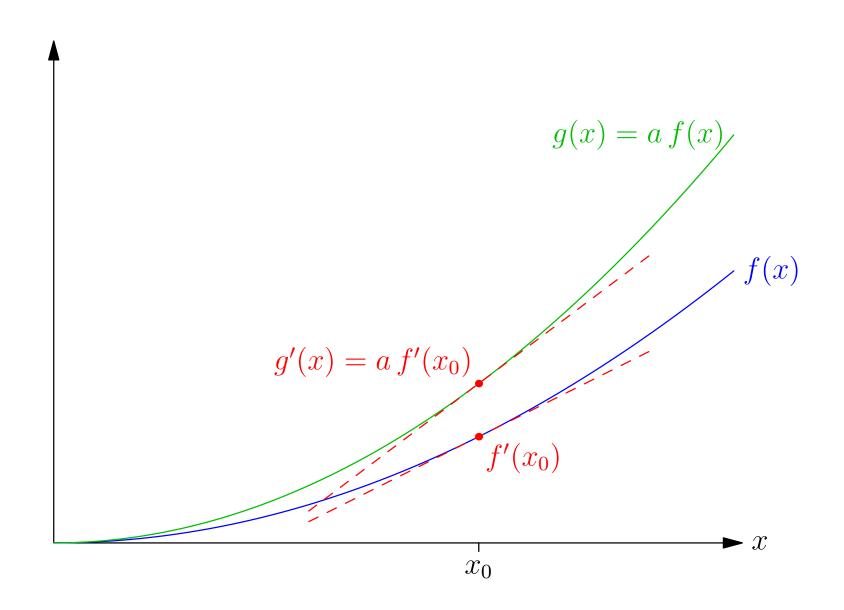
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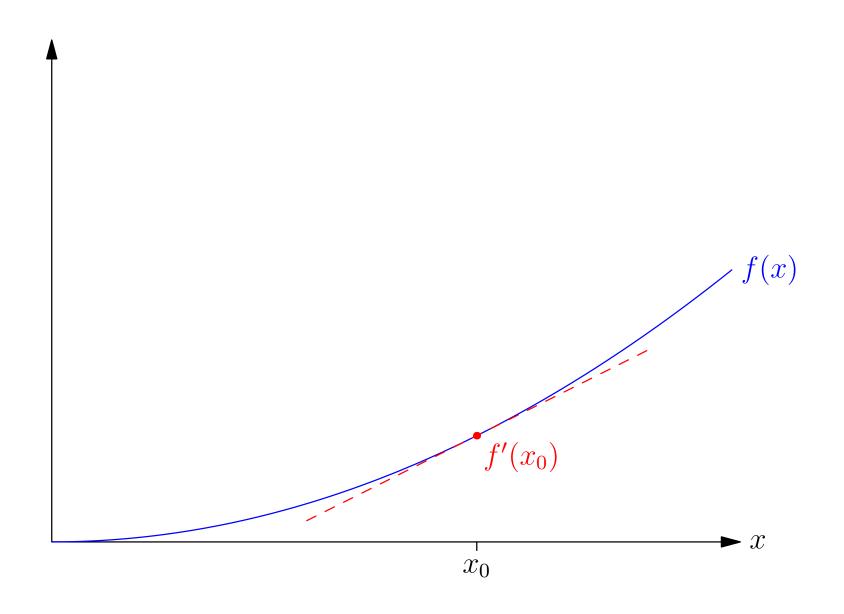
Differentiation is a linear operation!

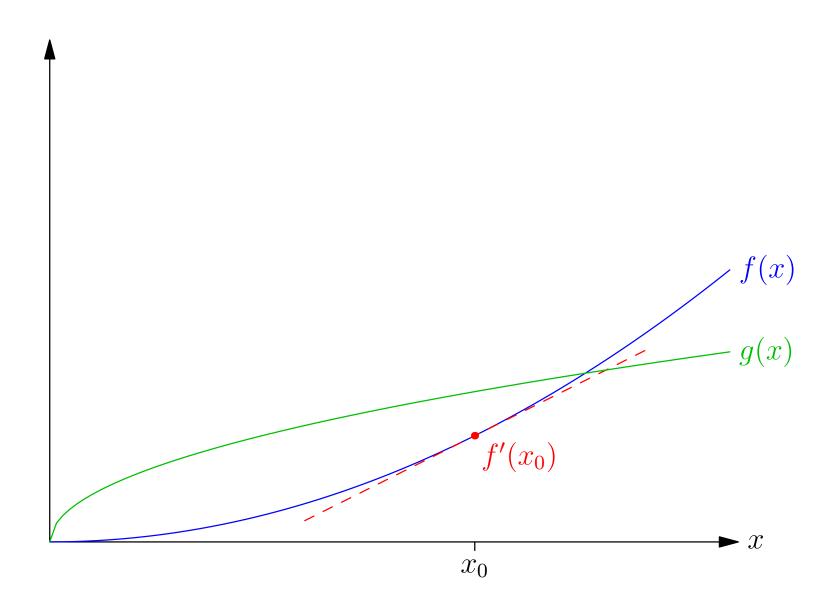


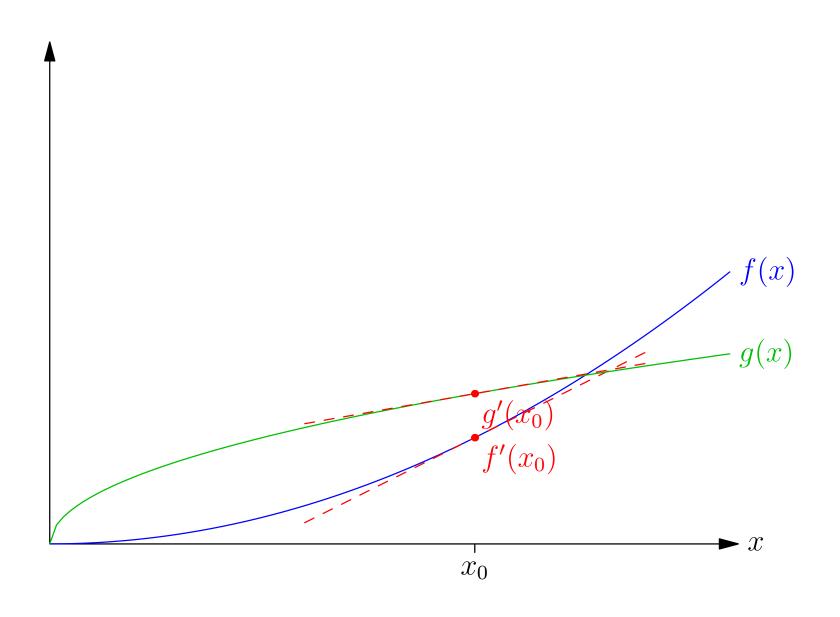


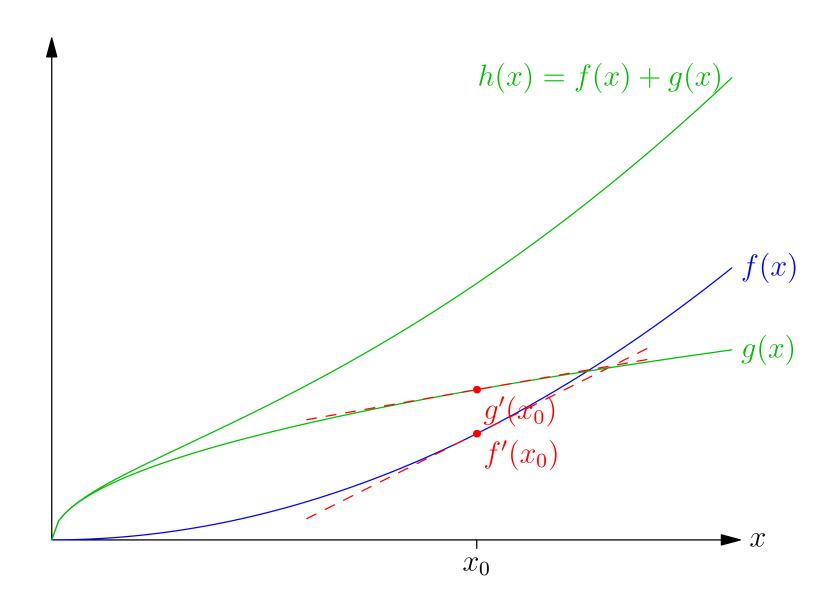


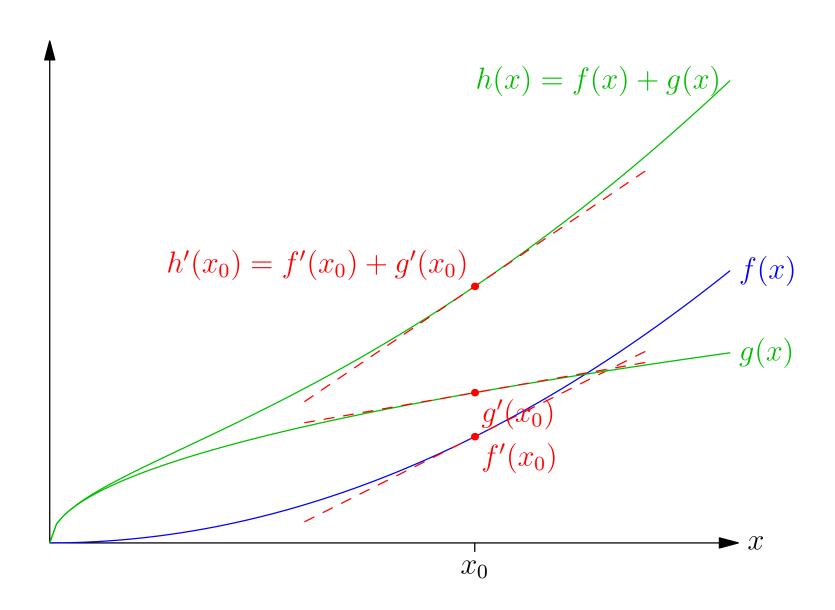












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This is the product rule

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

We can also write the chain rule as

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

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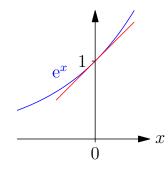
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• Note that  $a^{b+c} = a^b a^c$  (that is we multiply a together b+c times)

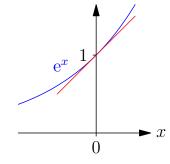
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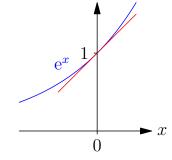
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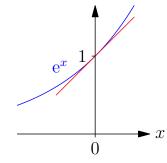
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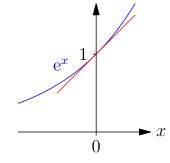


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$$e^{x+\epsilon} = e^x e^{\epsilon} = e^x (1 + \epsilon + O(\epsilon^2)) = e^x + \epsilon e^x + O(\epsilon^2)$$

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

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

• Now  $e^{\epsilon} \approx (1 + \epsilon)$ 



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

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## **Functions of Exponentials**

• What about  $f(x) = e^{cx}$ 

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More generally using the chain rule

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

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ullet The natural logarithm is defined as the inverse of  $e^x$ 

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

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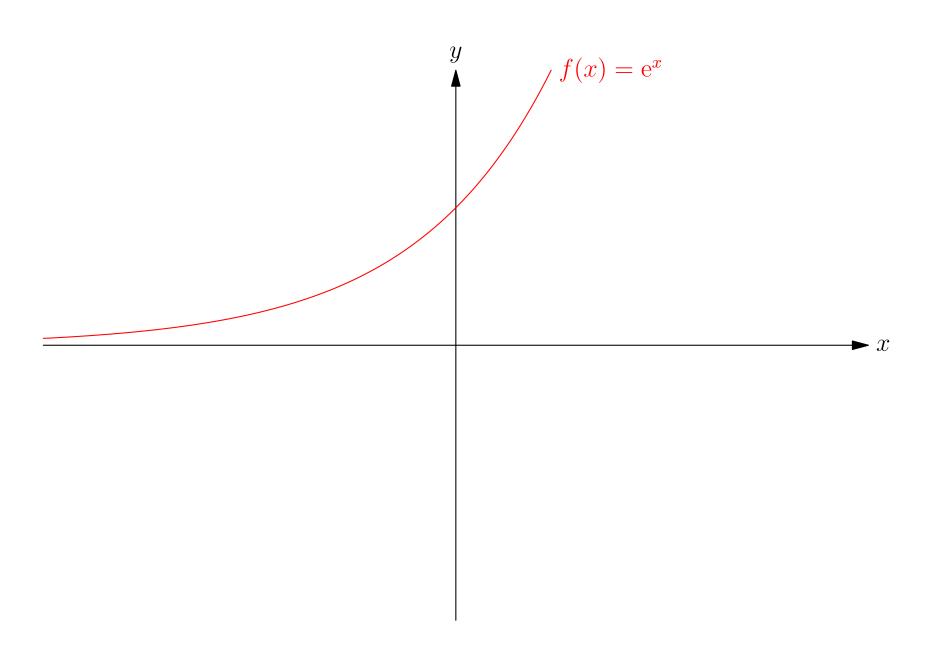
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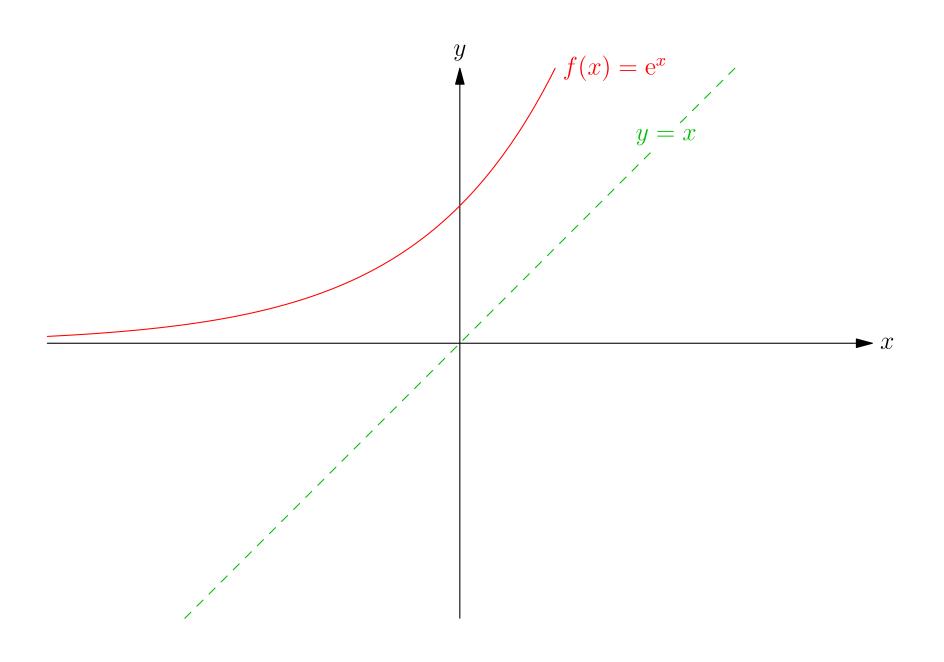
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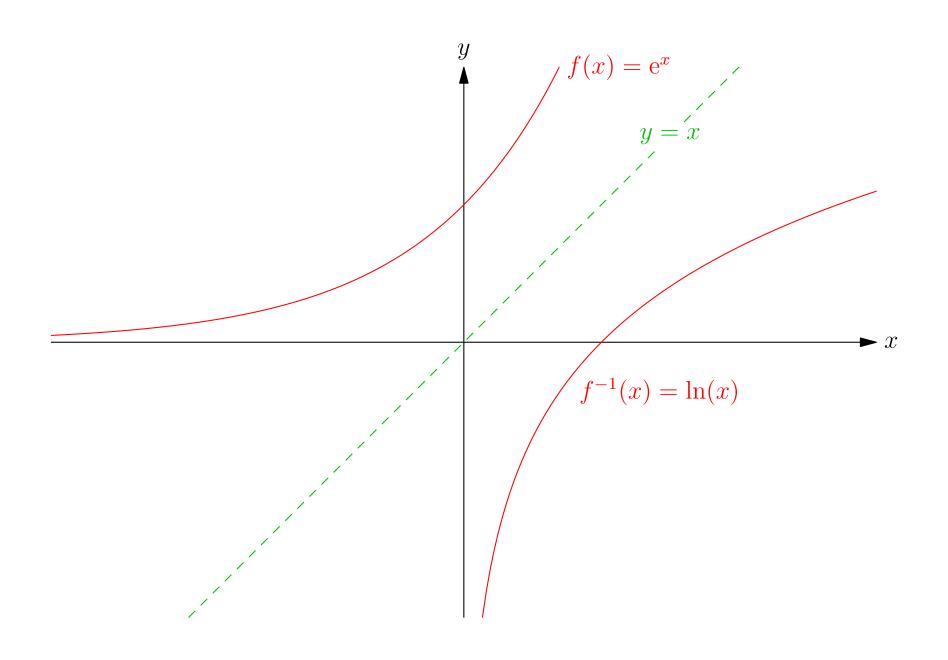
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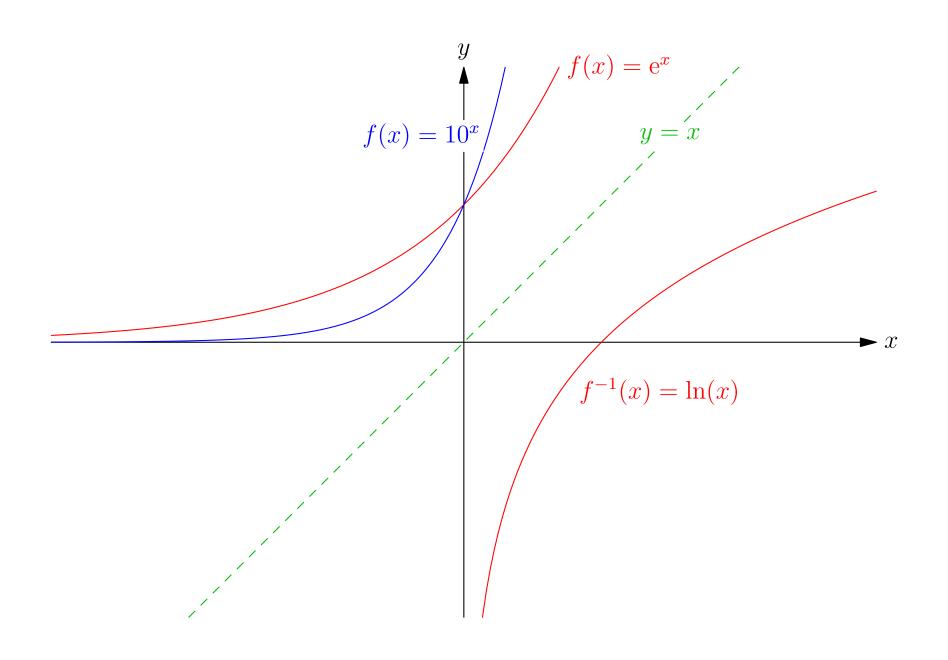
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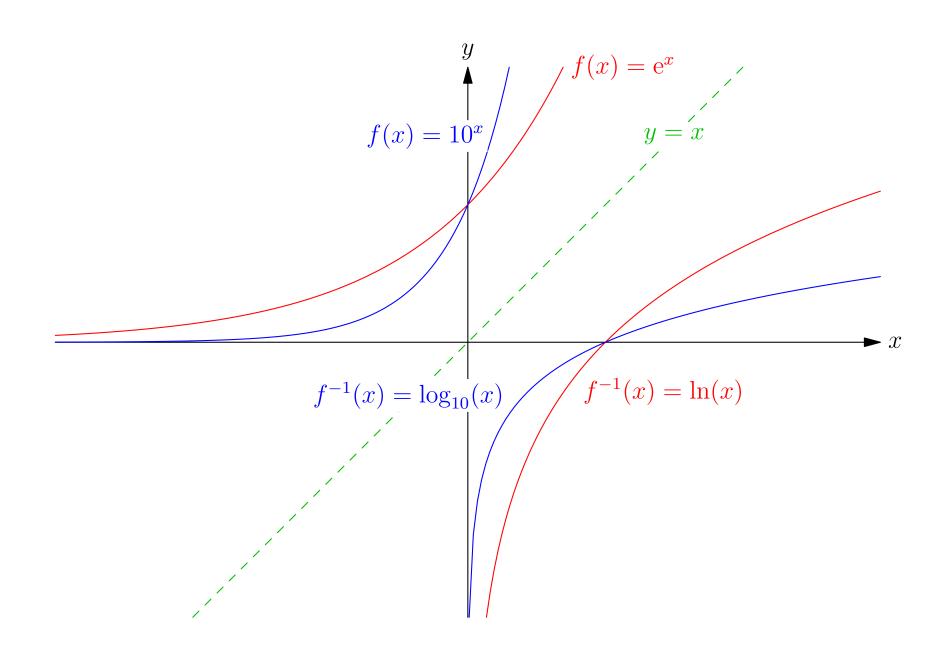
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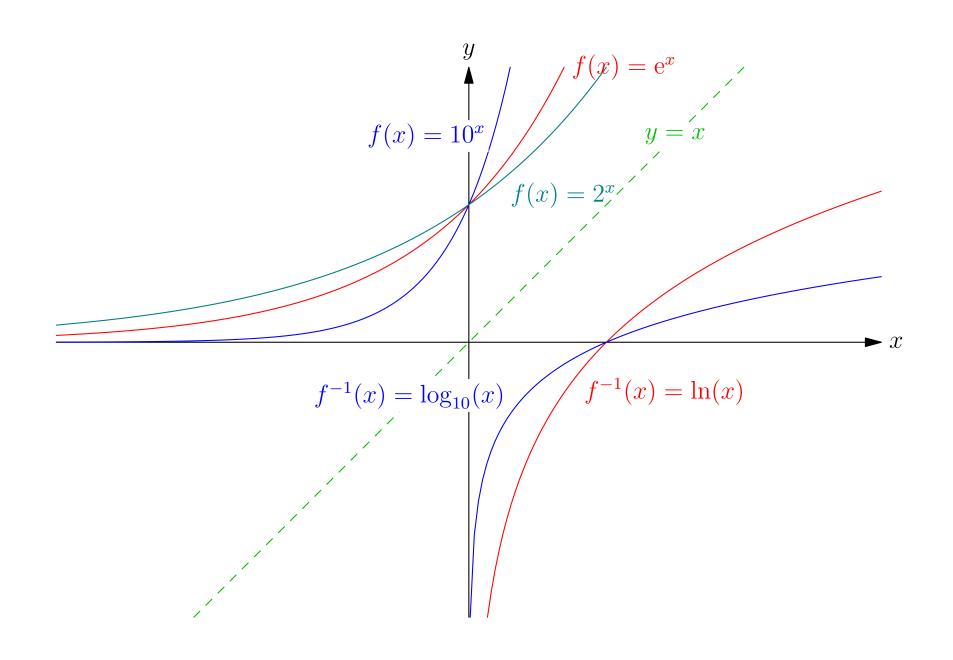


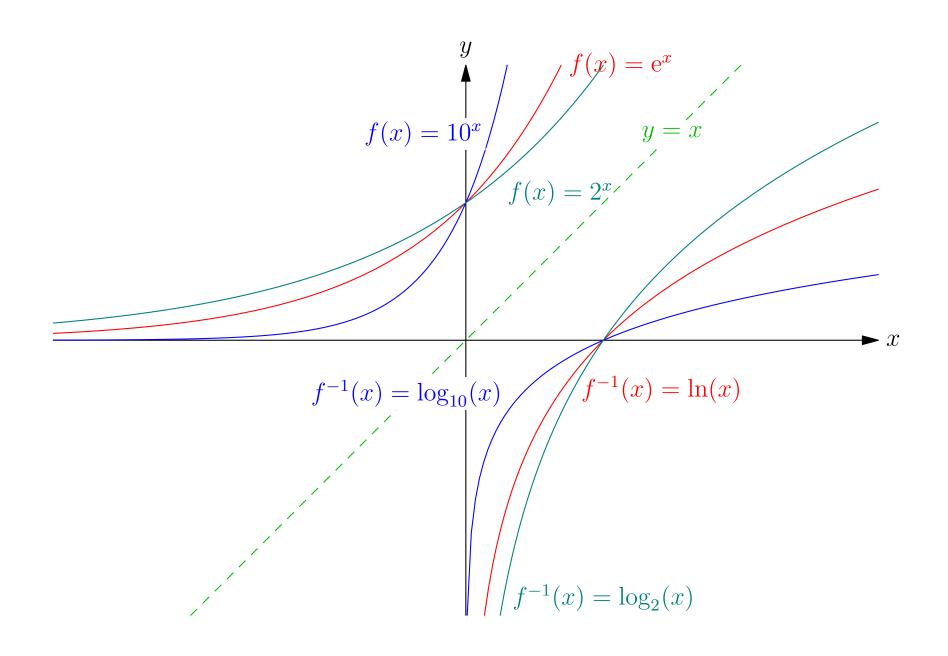






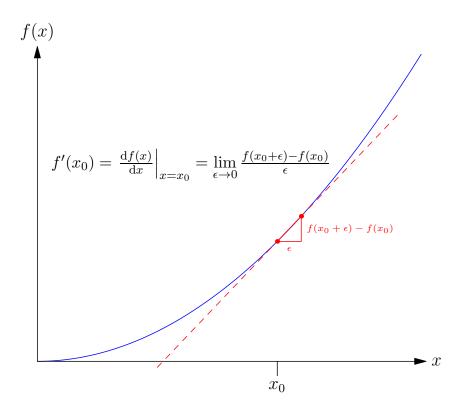






#### **Outline**

- 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

$$\frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{\delta}_i) - f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\epsilon}$$

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$$f(\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{x}) + O(\epsilon^2)$$

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

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This is the start of the high-dimensional Taylor expansion

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

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

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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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 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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$$f(\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}) = (\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{M} (\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}) + \boldsymbol{a}^{\mathsf{T}} (\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u})$$

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• But  $f(\boldsymbol{x} + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \epsilon \boldsymbol{u}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\nabla} f(\boldsymbol{x}) + O(\epsilon^2)$  so

$$\nabla f(x) = \mathbf{M}x + \mathbf{M}^{\mathsf{T}}x + a$$

#### **Differentiating Matrices**

ullet Often we have loss functions with respect to a matrix  $oldsymbol{W}$ , e.g.

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

- ullet We might want to find the minimum with respect to  $oldsymbol{W}$
- ullet This occurs at a point  $oldsymbol{W}^*$  where  $L(oldsymbol{W})$  does not increase as we change  $oldsymbol{W}$  in any way
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#### **Generalised Gradient**

We can generalise the idea of gradient to matrices

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

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

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

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

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

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

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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

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

$$tr \mathbf{AB} = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} B_{ji}$$

$$trABCD = trDABC$$

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Let

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• E.g.

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thus

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

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- For GP we want to choose  ${\bf K}$  to maximise the marginal likelihood,  $\log \left( |{\bf K} + \sigma^2 {\bf I}| \right)$
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$$= \log(|\mathbf{X}|) + \log(|\mathbf{I} + \epsilon \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{U}|)$$

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

### **Determinants**

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

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

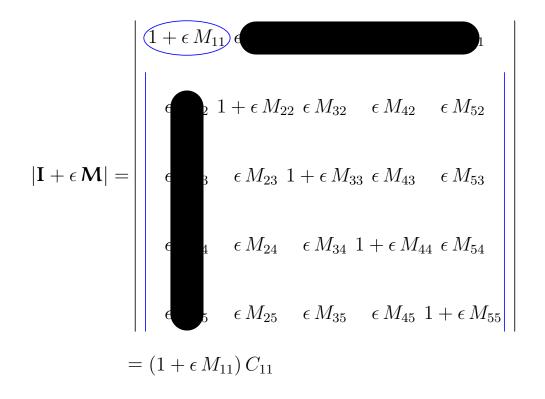
$$|\epsilon M_{12} 1 + \epsilon M_{22} \epsilon M_{32} + \epsilon M_{42} + \epsilon M_{52}|$$

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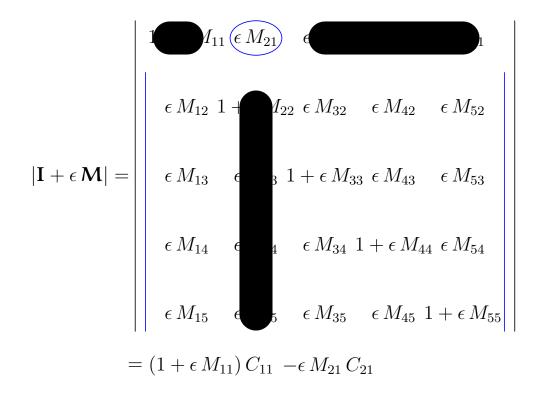
$$|\epsilon M_{14} + \epsilon M_{24} + \epsilon M_{34} 1 + \epsilon M_{44} \epsilon M_{54}|$$

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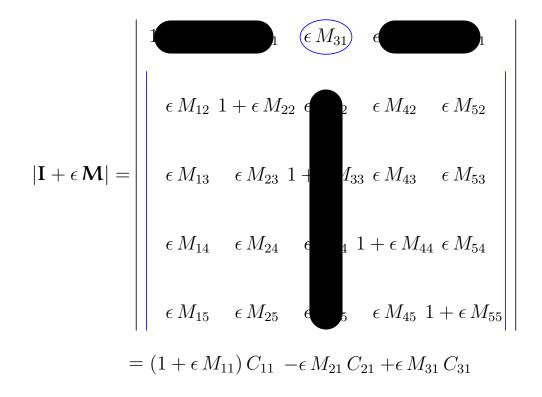
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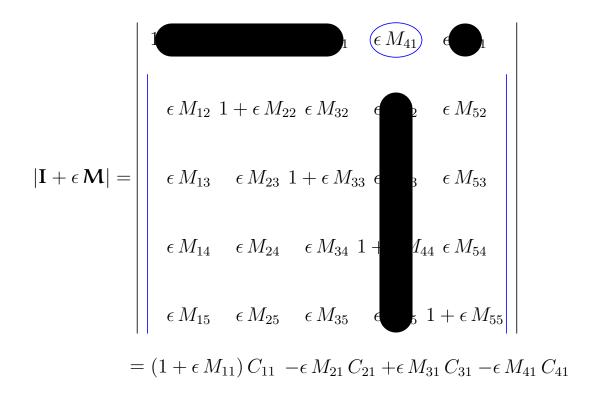
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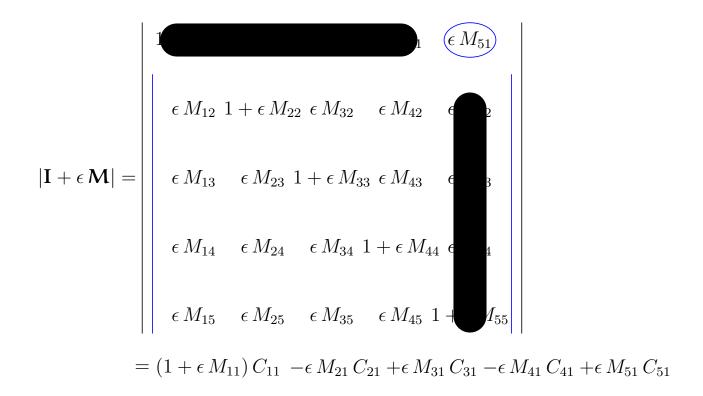
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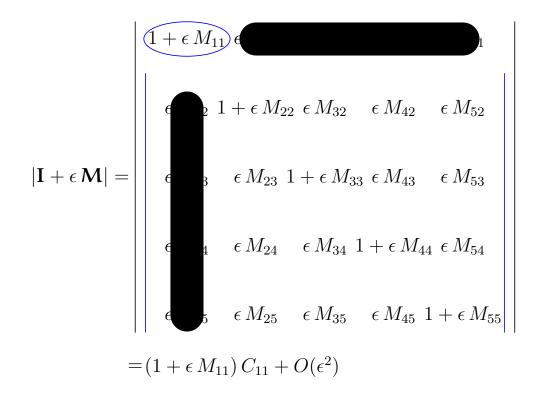
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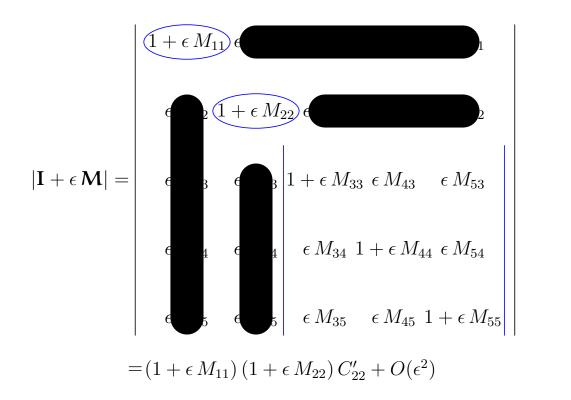
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$$= (1 + \epsilon M_{11}) C_{11} + O(\epsilon^{2})$$

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$$= 1 + \epsilon (M_{11} + M_{22}) + O(\epsilon^2)$$



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

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

$$|\epsilon M_{13} + \epsilon M_{23} 1 + \epsilon M_{33} \epsilon M_{43} + \epsilon M_{53}|$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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- The chain and product rule are incredibly powerful tools
- We can generalise differentiation to vectors and matrices
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- When we look at integration it gets harder