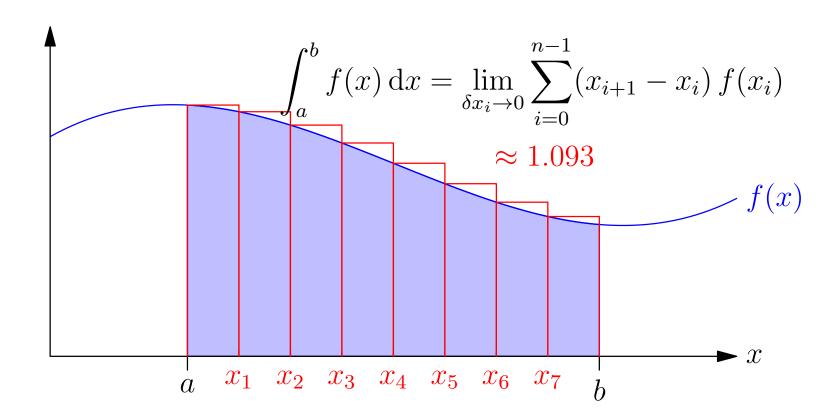
## **Advanced Machine Learning**

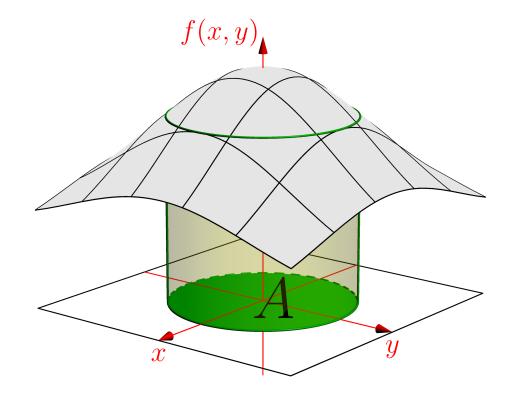
### Integral Calculus

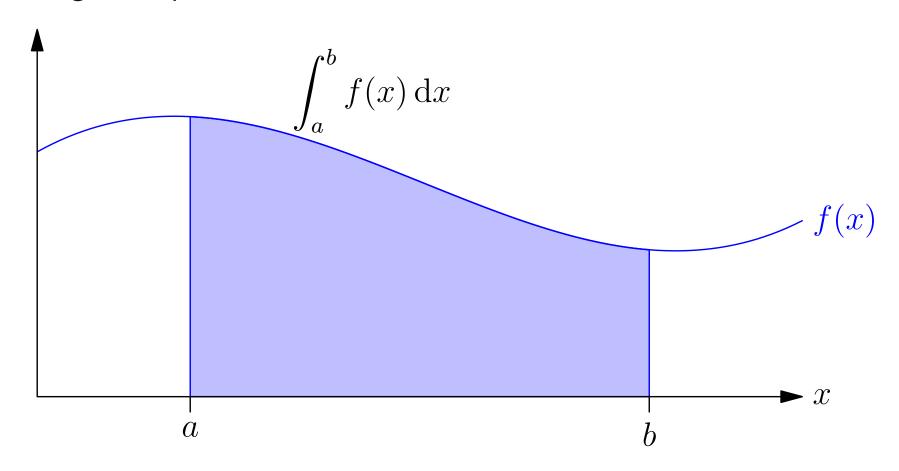


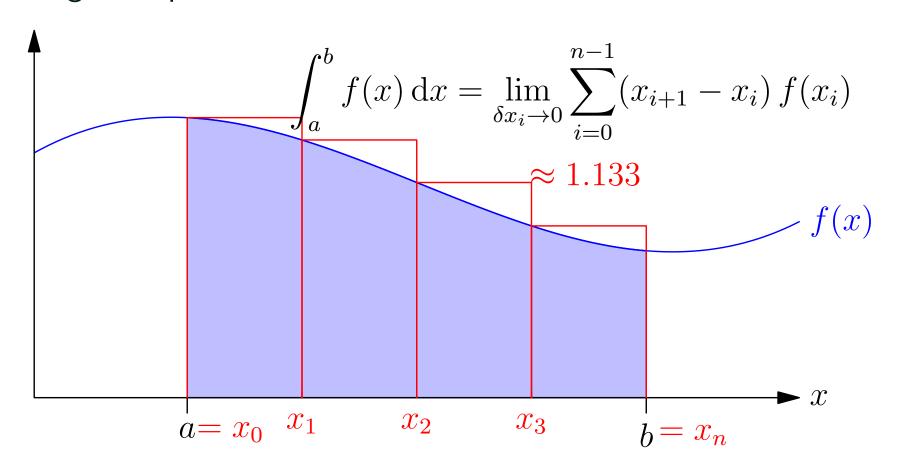
Riemann Integration, integration by parts, gaussian integrals

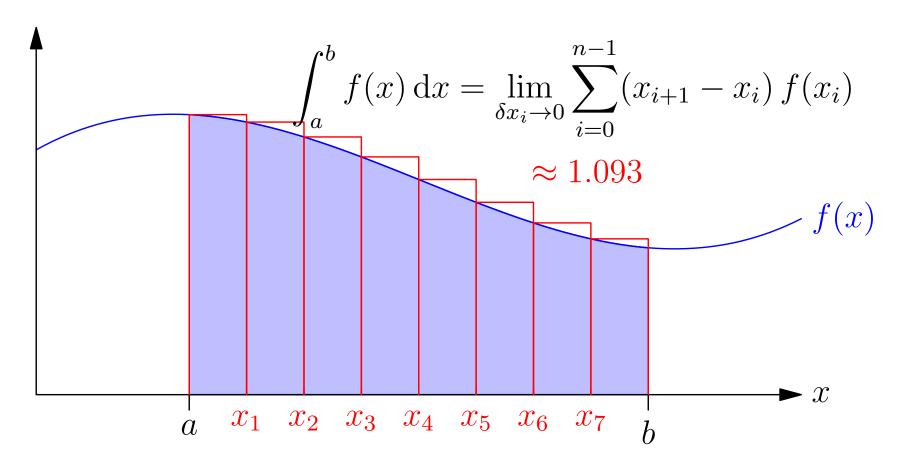
### **Outline**

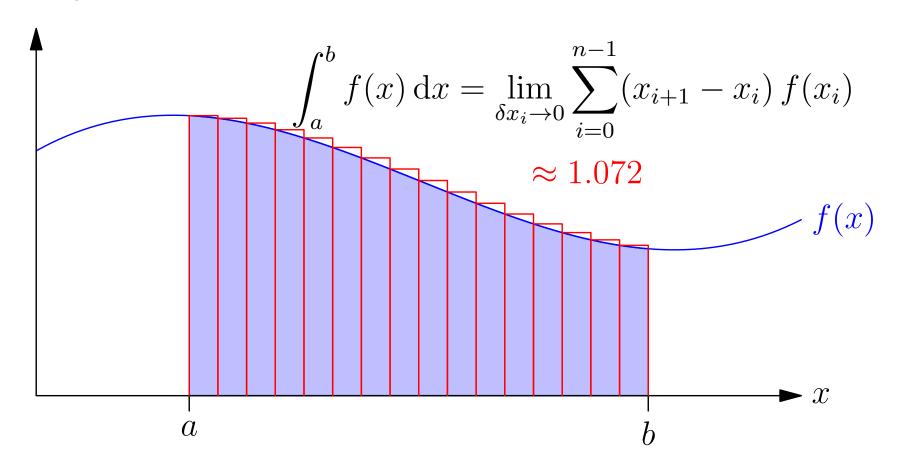
- 1. Defining Integrals
- 2. Doing Integrals
- 3. Gaussian Integrals

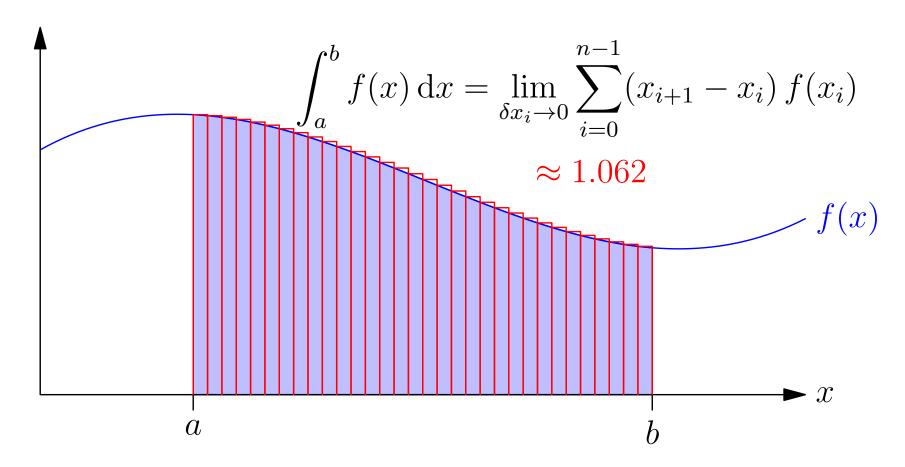


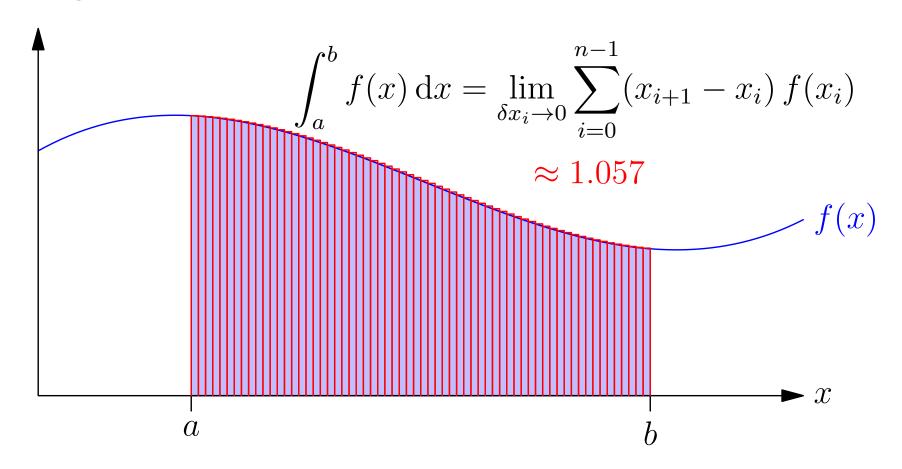












$$\int_{a}^{b} (rf(x) + sg(x)) dx = \lim_{\delta x_i \to 0} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_i) (rf(x_i) + sg(x_i))$$

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$$= \lim_{\delta x_{i} \to 0} \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_{i}) rf(x_{i}) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_{i}) sg(x_{i}) \right)$$

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$$= \lim_{\delta x_{i} \to 0} \left( r \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_{i}) f(x_{i}) + s \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_{i}) g(x_{i}) \right)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} (rf(x) + sg(x)) dx = \lim_{\delta x_{i} \to 0} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_{i}) (rf(x_{i}) + sg(x_{i}))$$

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$$= r \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + s \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

Let

$$I(a,x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(z) dz = \lim_{\delta z_{i} \to 0} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (z_{i+1} - z_{i}) f(z_{i})$$

• Now for small  $\delta x$ 

$$I(a, x + \delta x) = \int_{a}^{x + \delta x} f(z) dz = \lim_{\delta z_{i} \to 0} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (z_{i+1} - z_{i}) f(z_{i}) + \delta x f(x)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}I(a,x)}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{I(x+\delta x) - I(x)}{\delta x}$$

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$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathrm{d}x = \int_{a}^{b} \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \mathrm{d}x$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathrm{d}x = \int_{a}^{b} \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= \lim_{x_{i+1} - x_{i} \to 0} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_{i}) \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i})}{x_{i+1} - x_{i}}$$

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$$= (f(x_{1}) - f(x_{0})) + (f(x_{2}) - f(x_{1})) + (f(x_{3}) - f(x_{2})) + \cdots$$

$$+ (f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})) + (f(x_{n}) - f(x_{n-1}))$$

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Consider

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathrm{d}x = \int_{a}^{b} \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x+\delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \mathrm{d}x$$

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 We can think of integration as an anti-derivative it undoes differentiation

- So far we have considered definite integrals where we integrate between two points (a and b)
- However, when think about integration as an anti-derivative, it is useful to think of a function  $F(x) = \int f(x) dx$
- So that F'(x) = f(x)
- However the function F(x), F(x) + 1,  $F(x) + \pi$ , etc. all have the same derivative so F(x) is only defined up to an additive constant
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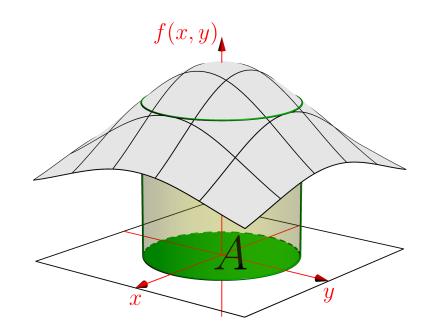
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- For functions involving many independent variables (e.g. f(x,y), f(x,y,z), f(x)) we can integrate over multiple dimensions
- For example

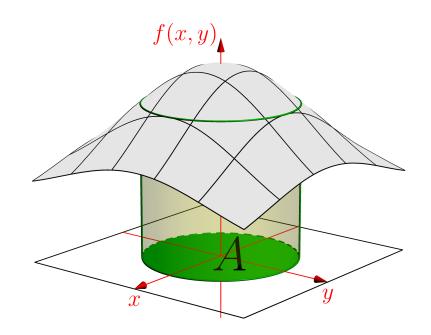
$$\iint\limits_A f(x,y) \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}y$$



$$\int \cdots \int f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \cdots dx_n$$

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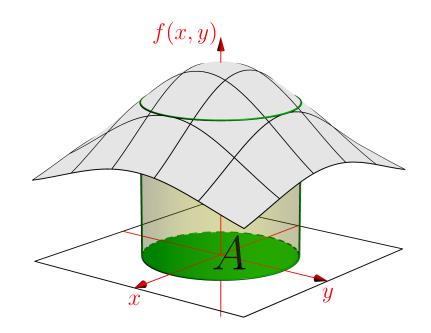
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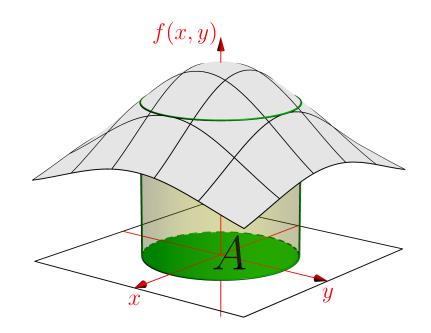
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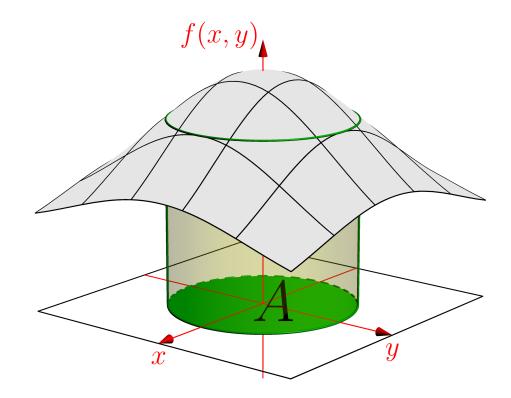
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$$\int \cdots \int f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \cdots dx_n = \int f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

### **Outline**

- 1. Defining Integrals
- 2. **Doing Integrals**
- 3. Gaussian Integrals



# **Performing Integration**

- A key method for performing integrals is through knowledge of the anti-derivative
- If we know F'(x) = f(x) then  $F(x) + c = \int f(x) dx$
- E.g. we know that  $dx^n/dx = nx^{n-1}$  therefore

$$\int x^{n-1} dx = \frac{1}{n} \int \frac{dx^n}{dx} dx$$

and

$$\int_{a}^{b} x^{n-1} \mathrm{d}x = \frac{b^n}{n} - \frac{a^n}{n}$$

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 We saw due to the product and chain rules that we can differentiate almost anything

Products and compositions

$$\int f(x)g(x)dx = ? \qquad \int f(g(x))dx = ?$$

- Unfortunately, unlike differentiation we don't have a small parameter we can expand in
- In general integration is hard

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$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)g(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathrm{d}x = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} g(x) \mathrm{d}x + \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \frac{\mathrm{d}g(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= \left[ f(x)g(x) \right]_{a}^{b} = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a)$$

- Recall the product rule  $\frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)g(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}g(x) + f(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}g(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$
- Integrating we get

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Unfortunately we get two integrals, but we can turn this around

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whether this is helpful depends on f(x) and g(x)

$$\Pi(z) = \int_0^\infty x^z e^{-x} dx$$

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Now

$$\Pi(n) = n\Pi(n-1) = n(n-1)\Pi(n-2) = n(n-1)(n-2)...1 = n!$$

ullet We can make a transformation from x to u

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\delta x_{i} \to 0} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(x_{i})(x_{i+1} - x_{i})$$

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 $\star$  where  $u_i$  is such that  $x(u_i) = x_i$  or  $u_i = u(x_i)$  where u(x) is the inverse of x(u)

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$$= \int_{u(a)}^{u(b)} f(x(u)) \frac{dx(u)}{du} du$$

- \* where  $u_i$  is such that  $x(u_i) = x_i$  or  $u_i = u(x_i)$  where u(x) is the inverse of x(u)
- $\star \text{ using } \lim_{\delta u_i \to 0} \frac{x(u_{i+1}) x(u_i)}{u_{i+1} u_i} = \frac{\mathrm{d}x(u_i)}{\mathrm{d}u}$

- We consider  $I(n) = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^n e^{-x^2/2} dx$
- Let  $u(x) = x^2/2$  or  $x(u) = \sqrt{2u}$  so that

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• I(1) = 1

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• 
$$I(1) = 1$$
,  $I(3) = 2 \times 1! = 2$ ,  $I(5) = 2^2 \times 2! = 8$ 

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$$I(1)=1,\ I(3)=2\times 1!=2,\ I(5)=2^2\times 2!=8,\ {\rm but}$$
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$$I(1)=1$$
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ullet When changing variables in many dimensions  $oldsymbol{x} o oldsymbol{u}$  the change of variables involves the Jacobian

$$\int f(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x} = \int f(\boldsymbol{x}(\boldsymbol{u})) |\det(\mathbf{J})| d\boldsymbol{u}, \qquad \boldsymbol{J} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial u_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial u_n} \\ \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial u_2} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial u_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial u_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial u_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial u_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\det(\mathbf{J})| = \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial r \cos(\theta)}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial r \cos(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial r \sin(\theta)}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial r \sin(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \end{pmatrix} \right|$$

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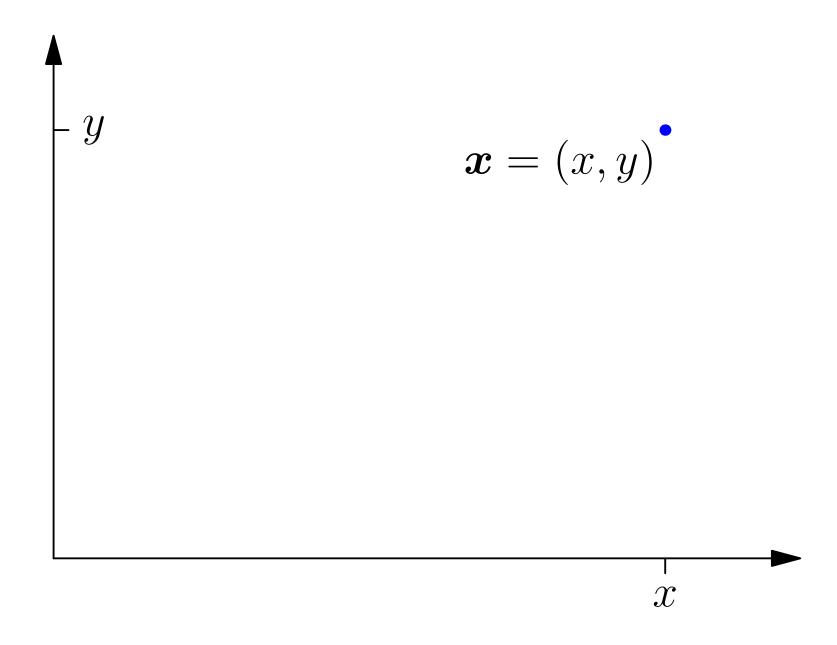
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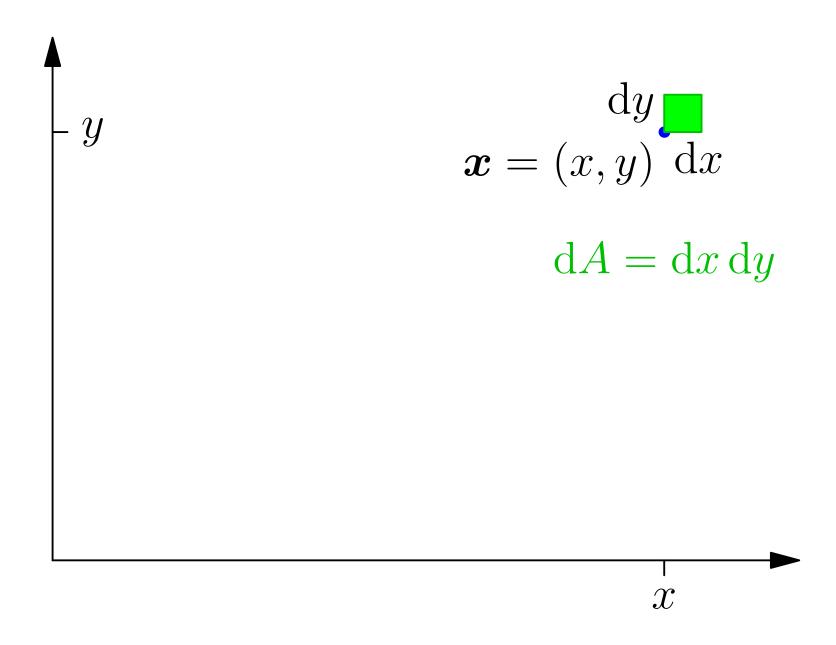
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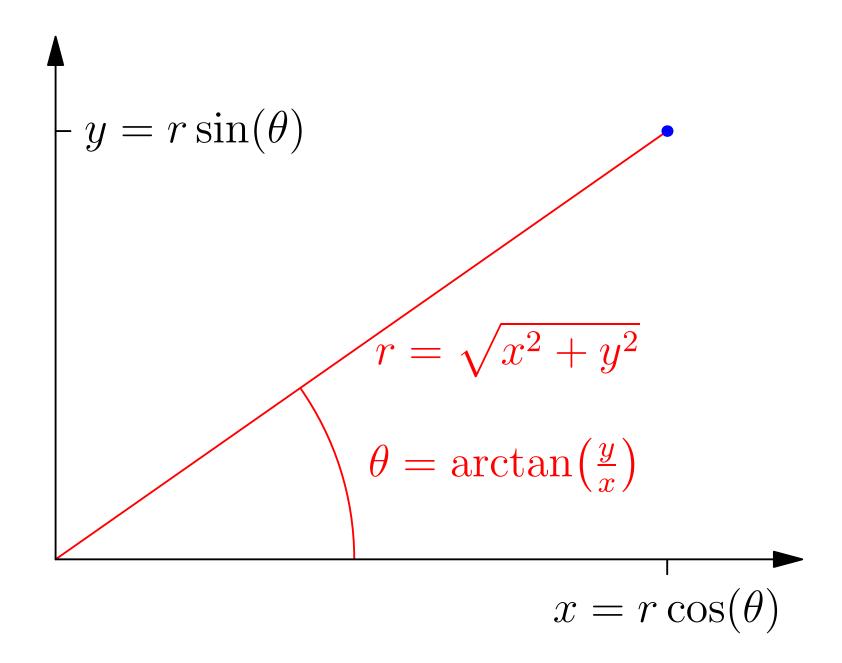
• E.g. transforming from Cartesian coordinates (x,y) to polar coordinates  $(r,\theta)$  then  $x=r\cos(\theta)$  and  $y=r\sin(\theta)$ 

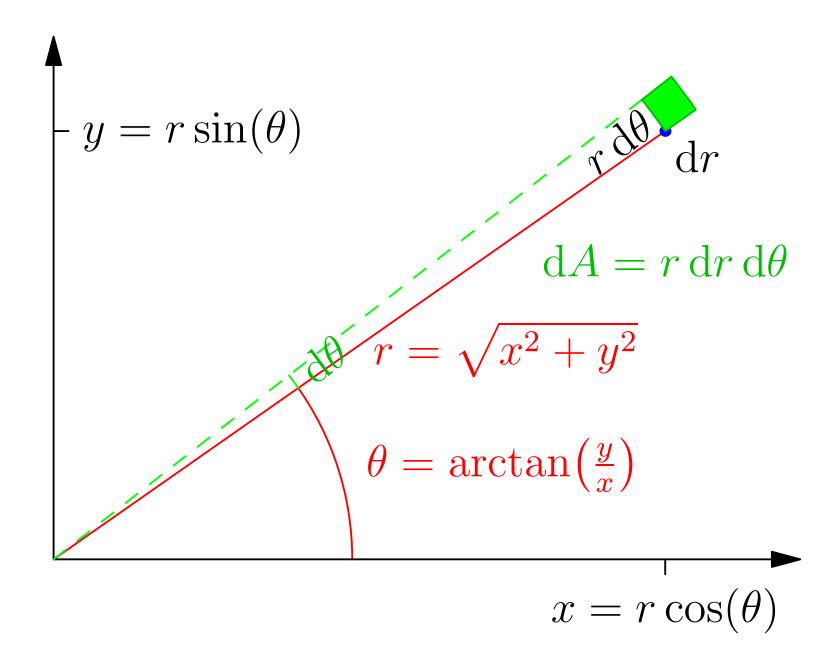
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• That is,  $dxdy = rdrd\theta$ 









 A trick that sometimes works is differentiating through an integral, e.g. consider finding moments

$$M_n = \mathbb{E}[X^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f_X(x) dx$$

We can define a momentum generating function

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• Then  $M_n = Z^{(n)}(0)$ 

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• Now using  $\log(1+\epsilon) = \epsilon - \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2 + \frac{1}{3}\epsilon^3 + \cdots$ 

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- Interestingly, also there is an algorithm that allows us to integrate
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  write a computer algorithm of considerable complexity to
  implement it. Most symbolic manipulation packages (e.g.
  Mathematica) have implemented some part of this algorithm

#### **Special Functions**

- There are integrals with no known closed form solution
- We saw that  $\Pi(z) = \int\limits_0^\infty x^z \mathrm{e}^{-x} \mathrm{d}x$  satisfies  $\Pi(z) = z\Pi(z-1)$
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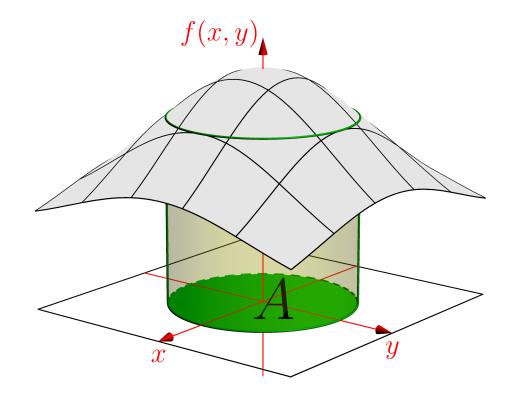
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Other special function defined by integrals exist (e.g. the Bessel,
 Aire, hypergeometric, elliptic, error functions, . . . )

### **Outline**

- 1. Defining Integrals
- 2. Doing Integrals
- 3. Gaussian Integrals



• Gaussian integrals are integrals involving  $e^{-x^2}$ , e.g.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \qquad \qquad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^4 e^{-ax^2 - bx} dx$$

 They are important in computing integrals with respect to the normal distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$

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- The great news is that these integrals are all doable
- The bad news is that they are quite tricky to do

## The Gaussian Integral

• The integral over a Gaussian is surprisingly difficult

$$I_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

There is a nice trick which is to consider

$$I_1^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/2} dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2} dx dy$$

• Making the change of variables  $r=\sqrt{x^2+y^2}$  and  $\theta=\arctan(y/x)$  (so that  $x=r\cos(\theta)$ ,  $y=r\sin(\theta)$  and  $x^2+y^2=r^2$ )

$$I_1^2 = \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^{\infty} re^{-r^2/2} dr = 2\pi \int_0^{\infty} re^{-r^2/2} dr$$

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From before

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• Finally let  $u = r^2/2$  so that du/dr = r or du = rdr we get

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- Incidentally,  $I_1=\sqrt{2}\Pi(-1/2)$  so  $\Pi(-1/2)=\Gamma(1/2)=\sqrt{\pi}$

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We consider

$$I_2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx$$

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$$J_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial y_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y_j} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n V_{ik} y_k + \mu_i \right) = V_{ij}$$

ullet So that J=V and consequently  $|\det(J)|=|\det(V)|=1$  then

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- ullet Let  $oldsymbol{\Xi}^{-1} = \mathbf{V} oldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T}$  and make the change of variables  $oldsymbol{y} = \mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T} (oldsymbol{x} oldsymbol{\mu})$
- ullet The Jacobian  ${\sf J}$  has elements (note that  $oldsymbol{x} = {\sf V} oldsymbol{y} + oldsymbol{\mu}$ )

$$J_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial y_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y_j} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n V_{ik} y_k + \mu_i \right) = V_{ij}$$

• So that  $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{V}$  and consequently  $|\det(\mathbf{J})| = |\det(\mathbf{V})| = 1$  then

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- Making friends with integration will give you a super-power that not too many people share