

Lecture 5: Vector Calculus

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Mathematics for Machine Learning

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- (1) Differentiation of Univariate Functions
- (2) Partial Differentiation and Gradients
- (3) Gradients of Vector-Valued Functions
- (4) Gradients of Matrices
- (5) Useful Identities for Computing Gradients
- (6) Backpropagation and Automatic Differentiation
- (7) Higher-Order Derivatives
- (8) Linearization and Multivariate Taylor Series

Summary



- Machine learning is about solving an optimization problem whose variables are the parameters of a given model.
- Solving optimization problems require gradient information.
- Central to this chapter is the concept of the function, which we often write

$$f: \mathbb{R}^D \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

$$\mathbf{x}\mapsto f(\mathbf{x})$$



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Difference Quotient and Derivative



• Difference Quotient. The average slope of f between x and $x + \partial x$

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

• Derivative. Pointing in the direction of steepest ascent of f.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}x} := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

• Unless confusion arises, we often use $f' = \frac{df}{dx}$.

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Taylor Series



- Representation of a function as an infinite sum of terms, using derivatives of evaluated at x_0 .
- Taylor polynomial. The Taylor polynomial of degree n of $f: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ at x_0 is:

$$T_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k$$
, where $f^{(k)}(x_0)$ is the kth derivative of f at x_0 .

• Taylor Series. For a smooth function $f \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}$, the Taylor series of f at x_0 is:

$$T_{\infty}(x) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k.$$

• If $f(x) = T_{\infty}(x)$, f is called analytic.

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Differentiation Rules



• Product rule. (f(x)g(x))' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)

• Quotient rule.
$$\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right)' = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$$

- Sum rule. (f(x) + g(x))' = f'(x) + g'(x)
- Chain rule. (g(f(x)))' = g'(f(x))f'(x)

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Gradient



- Now, $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.
- Gradient of f w.r.t. $x \nabla_x f$: Varying one variable at a time and keeping the others constant.

Partial Derivative. For $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1 + h, x_2, \dots, x_n) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n + h) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h}$$

Gradient. Get the partial derivatives and collect them in the row vector.

$$abla_{\boldsymbol{x}} f = \frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$$

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Example



• Example.
$$f(x, y) = (x + 2y^3)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x} = 2(x+2y^3)\frac{\partial x + 2y^3}{\partial x} = 2(x+2y^3)$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial y} = 2(x+2y^3)\frac{\partial x + 2y^3}{\partial y} = 12(x+2y^3)y^2$$

• Example. $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 x_2 + x_1 x_2^3$

$$abla_{(x_1,x_2)} f = \frac{\mathsf{d}f}{\mathsf{d}x} = \left(\frac{\partial f(x_1,x_2)}{\partial x_1} \ \frac{\partial f(x_1,x_2)}{\partial x_2}\right) = \left(2x_1x_2 + x_2^3 \ x_1^2 + 3x_1x_2^2\right)$$

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Rules for Partial Differentiation



• Product rule

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

• Sum rule

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

• Chain rule

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

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More about Chain Rule



• $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ of two variables x_1 and x_2 . $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$ are functions of t.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}t} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1(t)}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial x_2(t)}{\partial t} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t}$$

• Example. $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2$, where $x_1(t) = \sin(t)$, $x_2(t) = \cos(t)$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t} = 2\sin(t)\cos(t) - 2\sin t = 2\sin(t)(\cos(t) - 1)$$

• $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ of two variables x_1 and x_2 . $x_1(s,t)$ and $x_2(s,t)$ are functions of s,t.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial s}$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{d}f}{\mathsf{d}(s,t)} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{x}}{\partial (s,t)} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t} \end{pmatrix}$$



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$f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$



• For a function $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$ and vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the vector-valued function is:

$$f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

• Partial derivative w.r.t. x_i is a column vector: $\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_i} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_i} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_i} \end{pmatrix}$

• Gradient (or Jacobian): $\frac{d\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{d\mathbf{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n}\right)$

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Jacobian



$$J = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{f} = \frac{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n}\right)$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

• For a $\mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$ function, its Jacobian is a $m \times n$ matrix.

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Example: Gradient of Vector-Valued Function



- f(x) = Ax, $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- Partial derivatives: $f_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j \implies \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} = A_{ij}$
- Graident

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{f}}{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & \cdots & A_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = \boldsymbol{A}$$

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Example: Chain Rule



• $h: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, \ h(t) = (f \circ g)(t)$ with

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}, \ f(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(x_1 x_2^2), \quad g: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^2, \ \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = g(t) = \begin{pmatrix} t\cos(t) \\ t\sin(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

- (Note) $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 2}$ and $\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 1}$
- Using the chain rule,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}h}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}\right) \left(\frac{\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t}}{\frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t}}\right) \\
= \left(\exp(x_1 x_2^2) x_2^2 2 \exp(x_1 x_2^2) x_1 x_2\right) \left(\frac{\cos(t) - t \sin(t)}{\sin(t) + t \cos(t)}\right)$$

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Example: Least-Square Loss (1)



- ullet A linear model: $oldsymbol{y} = oldsymbol{\Phi} oldsymbol{ heta}$
- $oldsymbol{ heta} \in \mathbb{R}^D$: parameter vector
- $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$: input features
- $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$: observations
- Goal: Find a good parameter vector that provides the best-fit, formulated by minimizing the following loss $L: \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ over the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

$$L(oldsymbol{e}) := \|oldsymbol{e}\|^2$$
, where $oldsymbol{e}(oldsymbol{ heta}) = oldsymbol{y} - oldsymbol{\Phi}oldsymbol{ heta}$

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Example: Least-Square Loss (2)



•
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} \frac{\partial e}{\partial \theta}$$

• Note.
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times D}, \ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{e}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times N}, \ \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{e}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$$

• Using that
$$\|\boldsymbol{e}\|^2 = \boldsymbol{e}^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{e}$$
, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{e}} = 2\boldsymbol{e}^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times N}$ and $\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{e}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = -\boldsymbol{\Phi} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$

Finally, we get:
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = 2e^{\mathsf{T}}(-\Phi) = -2\underbrace{(\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{T}} \Phi^{\mathsf{T}})}_{1 \times N} \underbrace{\Phi}_{N \times D}$$

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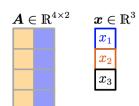
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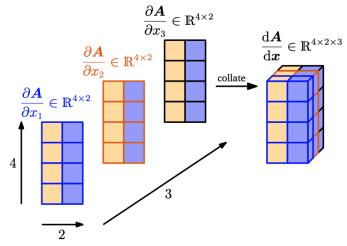
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Gradients of matrices

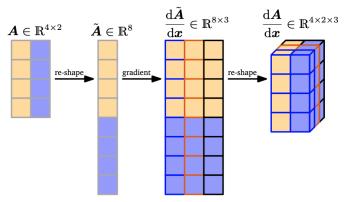


- Gradient of matrix $\boldsymbol{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ w.r.t. matrix $\boldsymbol{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$
- Jacobian: A four-dimensional tensor $J = \frac{dA}{dB} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m \times n) \times (p \times q)}$





(a) Approach 1: We compute the partial derivative $\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{A}}{\partial x_3}$, each of which is a 4×2 matrix, and collate them in a $4 \times 2 \times 3$ tensor.



(b) Approach 2: We re-shape (flatten) $\boldsymbol{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 2}$ into a vector $\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}} \in \mathbb{R}^8$. Then, we compute the gradient $\frac{\mathrm{d} \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}}{\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^{8 \times 3}$. We obtain the gradient tensor by re-shaping this gradient as illustrated above.

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¹A multidimensional array

Example: Gradient of Vectors for Matrices (1)



- f(x) = Ax, $f \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. What is $\frac{df}{dA}$?
- Dimension: If we consider $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m, \ \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{f}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{A}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (m \times n)}$
- Partial derivatives: $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial \mathbf{A}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (m \times n)}$, $\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{f}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{A}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \mathbf{A}} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial \mathbf{A}} \end{pmatrix}$

$$f_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}x_j, i = 1, \dots, m \implies \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial A_{iq}} = x_q,$$

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial A_{i.}} = \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1 \times n}$$
 (for *i*th row vector)

$$rac{\partial f_i}{\partial A_{k
eq i\cdot}} = 0^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 imes 1 imes n}$$
 (for k th row vector, $k
eq i$)

$$f_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{j}, \ i = 1, \dots, m \implies \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial A_{iq}} = x_{q},$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial A_{i}} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1 \times n} \text{ (for } i \text{th row vector)}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial A_{k \neq i}} = 0^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1 \times n} \text{ (for } k \text{th row vector, } k \neq i)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial A_{k \neq i}} = 0^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1 \times n} \text{ (for } k \text{th row vector, } k \neq i)$$

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Example: Gradient of Matrices for Matrices (2)



- $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with $f(R) = K := R^T R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. What is $\frac{dK}{dR} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n \times n) \times (m \times n)}$?
- $\frac{dK_{pq}}{dR} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times m \times n}$. Let \mathbf{r}_i be the ith column of \mathbf{R} . Then $K_{pq} = \mathbf{r}_p^T \mathbf{r}_q = \sum_{k=1}^m R_{kp} R_{kq}$.
- Partial derivative $\frac{\partial K_{pq}}{\partial R_{ii}}$

$$\frac{\partial K_{pq}}{\partial R_{ij}} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{\partial}{\partial R_{ij}} R_{kp} R_{kq} = \partial_{pqij}, \ \partial_{pqij} = \begin{cases} R_{iq} & \text{if } j = p, p \neq q \\ R_{ip} & \text{if } j = q, p \neq q \\ 2R_{iq} & \text{if } j = p, p = q \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Useful Identities

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})^{\top} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}\right)^{\top} \tag{5.99}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}\right)$$
 (5.100)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \det(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})) = \det(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})) \operatorname{tr} \left(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \right)$$
(5.101)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})^{-1} = -\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$
(5.102)

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{a}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X}^{-1} \boldsymbol{b}}{\partial \boldsymbol{X}} = -(\boldsymbol{X}^{-1})^{\top} \boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{X}^{-1})^{\top}$$
(5.103)

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{a}}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{a}^{\top} \tag{5.104}$$

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{a}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{a}^{\top} \tag{5.105}$$

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{a}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{b}}{\partial \boldsymbol{X}} = \boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b}^{\top} \tag{5.106}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}^{\top} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}^{\top} (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{B}^{\top})$$
 (5.107)

$$rac{\partial}{\partial m{s}}(m{x}-m{A}m{s})^{ op}m{W}(m{x}-m{A}m{s}) = -2(m{x}-m{A}m{s})^{ op}m{W}m{A}$$
 for symmetric $m{W}$

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Motivation: Neural Networks with Many Layers (1)



ullet In a neural network with many layers, the function $oldsymbol{y}$ is a many-level function compositions

$$\mathbf{y} = (f_{\mathcal{K}} \circ f_{\mathcal{K}-1} \circ \cdots \circ f_1)(\mathbf{x}),$$

where, for example,

- \circ x: images as inputs, y: class labels (e.g., cat or dog) as outputs
- \circ each f_i has its own parameters
- In neural networks, with the model parameters $m{ heta} = \{m{A}_0, m{b}_0, \dots, m{A}_{K-1}, m{b}_{K-1}\}$

$$egin{cases} oldsymbol{f_0} &:= oldsymbol{x} \ oldsymbol{f_1} &:= \sigma_1 (oldsymbol{A_0} oldsymbol{f_0} + oldsymbol{b_0}) \ dots \ oldsymbol{f_K} &:= \sigma_K (oldsymbol{A_{K-1}} oldsymbol{f_{K-1}} + oldsymbol{b_{K-1}}) \end{cases}$$

 $\circ \sigma_i$ is called the activation function at *i*-th layer

 \circ Minimizing the loss function over θ :

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

where
$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{f}_{\mathcal{K}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x}) \|^2$$

Motivation: Neural Networks with Many Layers (2)



• In neural networks, with the model parameters $m{ heta} = \{m{A}_0, m{b}_0, \dots, m{A}_{K-1}, m{b}_{K-1}\}$

$$egin{cases} oldsymbol{f}_0 &:= oldsymbol{x} \ oldsymbol{f}_1 &:= \sigma_1 (oldsymbol{A}_0 oldsymbol{f}_0 + oldsymbol{b}_0) \ dots \ oldsymbol{f}_K &:= \sigma_K (oldsymbol{A}_{K-1} oldsymbol{f}_{K-1} + oldsymbol{b}_{K-1}) \end{cases}$$

 $\circ \sigma_i$ is called the activation function at *i*-th layer

 \circ Minimizing the loss function over θ :

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

where
$$L(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \|oldsymbol{y} - oldsymbol{f}_{\mathcal{K}}(oldsymbol{ heta}, oldsymbol{x})\|^2$$

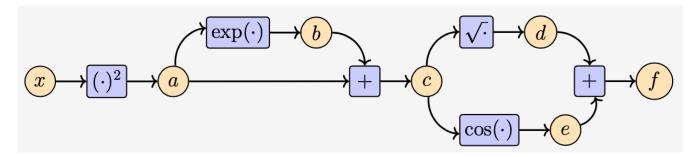
• Question. How can we efficiently compute $\frac{dL}{d\theta}$ in computers?

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Backpropagatin: Example (1)



- $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + \exp(x^2)} + \cos(x^2 + \exp(x^2))$
- Computation graph: Connect via "elementary" operations



$$a = x^2$$
, $b = \exp(a)$, $c = a + b$, $d = \sqrt{c}$, $e = \cos(c)$, $f = d + e$

- Automatic Differentiation
 - A set of techniques to numerically (not symbolically) evaluate the gradient of a function by working with intermediate variables and applying the chain rule.

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Backpropagation: Example (2)



•
$$a = x^2$$
, $b = \exp(a)$, $c = a + b$, $d = \sqrt{c}$, $e = \cos(c)$, $f = d + e$

Derivatives of the intermediate variables with their inputs

$$\frac{\partial a}{\partial x} = 2x, \ \frac{\partial b}{\partial a} = \exp(a), \ \frac{\partial c}{\partial a} = 1 = \frac{\partial c}{\partial b}, \ \frac{\partial d}{\partial c} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}}, \ \frac{\partial e}{\partial c} = -\sin(c), \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} = 1 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial e}$$

• Compute $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ by working backward from the output

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial c} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} \frac{\partial d}{\partial c} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial e} \frac{\partial e}{\partial c}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial c} \frac{\partial c}{\partial b}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} \frac{\partial b}{\partial a} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial c} \frac{\partial c}{\partial a}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial a} \frac{\partial a}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial c} \cdot 1, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} \exp(c)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial c} = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}} + 1 \cdot (-\sin(c))$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial c} \cdot 1, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} \exp(a) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial c} \cdot 1$$

$$\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial a} \cdot 2x$$

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Backpropagation



- Implementation of gradients can be very expensive, unless we are careful.
- Using the idea of automatic differentiation, the whole gradient computation is decomposed into a set of gradients of elementary functions and application of the chain rule.
- Why backward?
 - In neural networks, the input dimensionality is often much higher than the dimensionality of labels.
 - In this case, the backward computation (than the forward computation) is much cheaper.
- Works if the target is expressed as a computation graph whose elementary functions are differentiable. If not, some care needs to be taken.

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- (1) Differentiation of Univariate Functions
- (2) Partial Differentiation and Gradients
- (3) Gradients of Vector-Valued Functions
- (4) Gradients of Matrices
- (5) Useful Identities for Computing Gradients
- (6) Backpropagation and Automatic Differentiation
- (7) Higher-Order Derivatives
- (8) Linearization and Multivariate Taylor Series

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Higher-Order Derivatives



- Some optimization algorithms (e.g., Newton's method) require second-order derivatives, if they exist.
- (Truncated) Taylor series is often used as an approximation of a function.
- For $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ of variable $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f = \frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$
 - If *f* is twice-differentiable, the order doesn't matter.

$$\mathsf{H}_{\mathbf{x}}f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

- For $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$, $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
 - Thus, $H_{\mathbf{x}}f \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times n}$ (a tensor)

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Function Approximation: Linearization and More



• First-order approximation of f(x) (i.e., linearization by taking the first two terms of Taylor Series)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + (\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f)(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$$

• Multivariate Talyer Series for $f: \mathbb{R}^D \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ at \mathbf{x}_0

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{D_{\mathbf{x}}^k f(\mathbf{x}_0)}{k!} \delta^k,$$

where $D_{\mathbf{x}}^k f(\mathbf{x}_0)$ is the kth derivative of f w.r.t. \mathbf{x} , evaluated at \mathbf{x}_0 , and $\delta := \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0$.

- Partial sum up to, say n, can be an approximation of f(x).
- $D_{\mathbf{x}}^{k} f(\mathbf{x}_{0})$ and δ^{k} are kth order tensors, i.e., k-dimensional array.
- δ^k is a k-fold outer product \otimes . For example, $\delta^2 = \delta \otimes \delta = \delta \delta^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\delta^3 = \delta \otimes \delta \otimes \delta$.

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Questions?

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Review Questions



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