

Lecture 21: Matrix Multiplication & Exponent of Linear Algebra

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Overview

- Administrivia
- Matrix Multiplication
- The Exponent of Linear Algebra
- Matrix Inversion
- Determinant and Matrix Inverse
- Conclusion
- Computing Partial Derivatives

Rate this course!

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- This would really help me figuring out what worked and what didn't for the course
- And let the school know if I was a good boy this term!
- Teaching this course is also a learning experience for me :)

How can I learn more?

Consider taking more advanced courses next term!

See graduate course openings at:

- Current graduate course offerings for next term!

<https://cs.uwaterloo.ca/current-graduate-students/courses/current-course-offerings/winter-2022-tentative>

- Or, try out some of the research opportunities at UW!

URA , URF , USRA

Matrix Multiplication

- **Input:** matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$
- **Output:** product $C = AB$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{11} = a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21}$$

Matrix Multiplication

- **Input:** matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$
- **Output:** product $C = AB$
- Naive algorithm:

Compute n matrix vector multiplications.

$$A \begin{pmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ B_1 & B_2 & \dots & B_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix Multiplication

"word-ran model"

• **Input:** matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$

• **Output:** product $C = AB$

• Naive algorithm:

Compute n matrix vector multiplications.

• Running time: $O(n^3)$

Can we do better?

What is the limit of better?

has to be $\Omega(n^2)$ (because have to read
input $2n^2$ size)

Matrix Multiplication

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- Running time: $O(n^3)$

Can we do better?

- Strassen 1969: YES!
- Idea: divide matrix into blocks, and *reduce number of multiplications* needed!

Addition is very cheap

Multiplication is expensive

← minimize # of multiplications

Strassen's Algorithm

- Suppose that $n = 2^k$
- Let $A, B, C \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ such that $C = AB$. Divide them into blocks of size $n/2$:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C_{11} &= A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} \\ C_{12} &= A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} \\ C_{21} &= A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} \\ C_{22} &= A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} \end{aligned}$$

$$M(n) \leq 8 \cdot M(n/2) + C \cdot n^2$$

$$M(n) = O(n^3)$$

Strassen's idea: can we use < 8 multiplications?
inspired by Karatsuba's algorithm for polynomial multiplication

Strassen's Algorithm

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- Let $A, B, C \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ such that $C = AB$. Divide them into blocks of size $n/2$:

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- Define following matrices:

$$S_1 = A_{21} + A_{22}, \quad S_2 = S_1 - A_{11}, \quad S_3 = A_{11} - A_{21}, \quad S_4 = A_{12} - S_2$$

$$T_1 = B_{12} - B_{11}, \quad T_2 = B_{22} - T_1, \quad T_3 = B_{22} - B_{12}, \quad T_4 = T_2 - B_{21}$$

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- Define following matrices:

$$\left. \begin{matrix} \frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_1 = A_{21} + A_{22}, \quad S_2 = S_1 - A_{11}, \quad S_3 = A_{11} - A_{21}, \quad S_4 = A_{12} - S_2 \\ T_1 = B_{12} - B_{11}, \quad T_2 = B_{22} - T_1, \quad T_3 = B_{22} - B_{12}, \quad T_4 = T_2 - B_{21} \end{array} \right. \end{matrix} \right\}$$

- Compute the following 7 products:

$$\left. \begin{matrix} \frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} P_1 = A_{11}B_{11}, \quad P_2 = A_{12}B_{21}, \quad P_3 = S_4B_{22}, \quad P_4 = A_{22}T_4 \\ P_5 = S_1T_1, \quad P_6 = S_2T_2, \quad P_7 = S_3T_3 \end{array} \right. \end{matrix} \right\}$$

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$$P_1 = A_{11}B_{11}, \quad P_2 = A_{12}B_{21}, \quad P_3 = S_4B_{22}, \quad P_4 = A_{22}T_4$$

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- $C_{11} = \underline{A_{11}B_{11}} + \underline{A_{12}B_{21}} = P_1 + P_2$

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- $C_{11} = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} = P_1 + P_2$

- $C_{12} = A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} = P_1 + P_3 + P_5 + P_6$

$$\cancel{A_{11}B_{11}} + (\cancel{A_{12}} + \cancel{A_{11}} - \cancel{S_1}) B_{22} + \cancel{S_1} (\cancel{B_{12}} - \cancel{B_{11}}) + (\cancel{S_1} - \cancel{A_{11}}) (\cancel{B_{12}} - \cancel{B_{12}} + \cancel{B_{11}}) = C_{12}$$

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- $C_{21} = A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} = P_1 - P_4 + P_6 + P_7$

Strassen's Algorithm

- Define following matrices:

$$S_1 = A_{21} \oplus A_{22}, \quad S_2 = S_1 \ominus A_{11}, \quad S_3 = A_{11} \ominus A_{21}, \quad S_4 = A_{12} \ominus S_2$$

$$T_1 = B_{12} \ominus B_{11}, \quad T_2 = B_{22} \ominus T_1, \quad T_3 = B_{22} \oplus B_{12}, \quad T_4 = T_2 \ominus B_{21}$$

- Compute the following 7 products:

$$P_1 = A_{11}B_{11}, \quad P_2 = A_{12}B_{21}, \quad P_3 = S_4B_{22}, \quad P_4 = A_{22}T_4$$

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- $C_{21} = A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} = P_1 - P_4 + P_6 + P_7$
- $C_{22} = A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} = P_1 + P_5 + P_6 + P_7$
- Correctness follows from the computations

Analysis of Strassen's Algorithm

- To compute $AB = C$ we used:

- ① 8 additions
- ② 7 multiplications
- ③ 10 additions

→ S_i, T_i 's
 P_i 's
→ C_{ij} 's

Analysis of Strassen's Algorithm

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- Recurrence:

$$MM(n) \leq 7 \cdot MM(n/2) + 18 \cdot c \cdot (n/2)^2$$

$$n = 2^k$$

7 products

time it takes
to add

$$MM(2^k) \leq 7 \cdot MM(2^{k-1}) + 18 \cdot c \cdot 2^{2(k-1)} \cdot \frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2} \text{ matrices}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq 7^k MM(0) + 18c \cdot \left[2^{2(k-1)} + 7 \cdot 2^{2(k-2)} \right. \\ &= O(7^k) = O(n^{\log_2 7}) \end{aligned}$$

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$$MM(2^k) \leq 7 \cdot MM(2^{k-1}) + 18 \cdot c \cdot 2^{2k-2}$$

- Could also use Master theorem to get $MM(n) = O(n^{\log_2 7}) \approx O(n^{2.807})$

*much better asymptotically
than n^3*

Matrix Multiplication Exponent

- We can define ω (or ω_{mult}) as the *matrix multiplication exponent*.
 - 1 If an algorithm for $n \times n$ matrix multiplication has running time $O(n^\alpha)$, then $\omega \leq \alpha$.
 - 2 For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an algorithm for $n \times n$ matrix multiplication running in time $O(n^{\omega+\varepsilon})$

intuition: ω is the exponent of best algorithm for matrix multiplication.

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 - ② For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an algorithm for $n \times n$ matrix multiplication running in time $O(n^{\omega+\varepsilon})$
- As we will see today, ω is a fundamental constant in computer science!
- Currently we know $2 \leq \omega < 2.376$ *may be better today*

Open Question

What is the right value of ω ?

Historical Remarks

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Historical Remarks

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- Motivated work on better algorithms for all other linear algebraic problems
- introduced complexity of computation of *bilinear functions* and the study of complexity of tensor decompositions

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The Exponent of Linear Algebra

- We just saw how to multiply matrices faster than the naive algorithm
- We also learned about $\omega_{mult} := \omega$
- How fundamental is the exponent of matrix multiplication?

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- We can similarly define ω_P for a problem P

$\omega_{determinant}$, $\omega_{inverse}$, $\omega_{linear\ system}$, $\omega_{characteristic\ polynomial}$

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- As we will see today (and in homework):

$$\omega = \omega_{inverse} = \omega_{determinant}$$

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- More generally, all of these ω_P 's are related to ω !

Matrix multiplication exponent fundamental to linear algebra!

- Administrivia
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- The Exponent of Linear Algebra
- **Matrix Inversion**
- Determinant and Matrix Inverse
- Conclusion
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Matrix inverse vs matrix multiplication

- Matrix inverse is at least as hard as matrix multiplication
- How to prove this? *reductions!*
 - If we can invert matrices quickly, then we can multiply two matrices quickly.

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If we can invert matrices quickly, then we can multiply two matrices quickly.

- Suppose we had an algorithm for inverting matrices
- Consider

$$M \leftarrow \begin{pmatrix} I & A & 0 \\ 0 & I & B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$M = \begin{pmatrix} I & A & 0 \\ 0 & I & B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$$

- Then

$$M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -A & AB \\ 0 & I & -B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} I & A & 0 \\ 0 & I & B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & -A & AB \\ 0 & I & -B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$$

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If we can invert matrices quickly, then we can multiply two matrices quickly.

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- Then

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -A & AB \\ 0 & I & -B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$$

- So if we could invert in time T , then we can multiply two matrices in time $O(T)$.

invert in $O(n^\alpha) \Rightarrow$ multiply in $O(n^\alpha)$

Matrix Multiplication vs Matrix Inversion

- Matrix multiplication is at least as hard as matrix inversion
“If we can multiply two matrices fast, we can also invert them fast.”

Matrix Multiplication vs Matrix Inversion

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 - “If we can multiply two matrices fast, we can also invert them fast.”
- Suppose we have an algorithm that performs matrix multiplication.
- Let $n = 2^k$, divide matrix M into blocks of size $n/2$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}$$

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- The inverse of M in block form is given by:

$$M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix}$$

Assuming A and $S := D - CA^{-1}B$ are invertible

Schur complement

Matrix Multiplication vs Matrix Inversion

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- How do we compute this? *Schur Complement*

Similar to how we would invert regular matrices! Just pay attention to non-commutativity.

Computing Inverse of Block Matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ -\mathbf{CA}^{-1} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-\mathbf{CA}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C} - \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\boxed{-\mathbf{CA}^{-1}\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{S}}$$

↑
make this
diagonal

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \\ & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{S}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} & \\ & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{S}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Computing Inverse of Block Matrices

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & S \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A & \\ & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & S \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} & \\ & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix}$$

Runtime Analysis

- The inverse of M in block form is given by:

$$M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix}$$

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- To invert M , we needed to:
 - Invert A

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- To invert M , we needed to:

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- Compute $S := D - CA^{-1}B$

$\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ matrix multiplication
addition

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Assuming A and $S := D - CA^{-1}B$ are invertible.

- To invert M , we needed to:
 - Invert A
 - Compute $S := D - CA^{-1}B$
 - Invert S

Runtime Analysis

- The inverse of M in block form is given by:

$$M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix}$$

Assuming A and $S := D - CA^{-1}B$ are invertible.

- To invert M , we needed to:
 - Invert A
 - Compute $S := D - CA^{-1}B$
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 - perform constant number of multiplications above
- Recurrence relation:

$$I(n) \leq 2 \cdot \underbrace{I(n/2)}_{A, S \text{ invert}} + C \cdot \underbrace{(n/2)^\omega}_{\text{constant}}$$

ops to invert $n \times n$ matrix

Solving Recurrence

- Recurrence relation:

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- Thus

$$\begin{aligned} I(n) = I(2^k) &\leq 2^k \cdot I(1) + C \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 2^{\omega j} \\ &\leq C' \cdot \left(2^k + \frac{2^{\omega k} - 1}{2^\omega - 1} \right) \\ &\leq C'' \cdot 2^{\omega k} = C'' n^\omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_{inv} \leq \omega$$

with previous result $\omega_{inv} \geq \omega$ $\therefore \omega = \omega_{inv}$

$$C \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{k-1} 2^{\omega(k-1-t) + t} = C \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 2^{\omega j + k-1-j}$$

$$\approx C \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 2^{\omega j} \quad j = k-1-t$$

$$= C \cdot 2^{(k-1)} \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 2^{(\omega-1)j}$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (2^{\omega-1})^j$$

$$= C \cdot 2^{(k-1)} \cdot \frac{(2^{\omega-1})^k - 1}{2^{\omega-1} - 1}$$

$n^{\omega-1}$

$\omega \geq 2 \neq 0$

$$= \frac{C}{2} \cdot n \cdot n^{\omega-1}$$

$$= \frac{C}{2} n^{\omega}$$

Determinant vs Matrix Multiplication

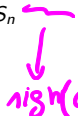
- One can similarly prove that $\omega_{determinant} \leq \omega$
- This is your homework! :)

- Administrivia
- Matrix Multiplication
- The Exponent of Linear Algebra
- Matrix Inversion
- **Determinant and Matrix Inverse**
- Conclusion
- Computing Partial Derivatives

Determinant of a Matrix

- Given matrix $M \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$, the determinant is

$$\det(M) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^\sigma \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n M_{i\sigma(i)}$$


sign(σ)

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- Given matrix $M \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$, and $(i, j) \in [n]^2$, the (i, j) -minor of M , denoted $M^{(i,j)}$ is given by

Remove i^{th} row and j^{th} column of M

$(2, 3)$ -minor

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

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- Determinant has a very special decomposition by minors: given any row i , we have

$$\det(M) = \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} \underbrace{M_{i,j}} \cdot \underbrace{\det(M^{(i,j)})}$$

known as *Laplace Expansion*

↑
none of these
depend on any
Min

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(i,j) (j,i) minor

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\therefore inverse $M^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(M)} \cdot N$

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- So, if we knew how to compute the determinant AND ALL its partial derivatives, we could:
 - 1 Compute the adjugate
 - 2 Compute the inverse

if can compute det in time n^{α} ops.
Can we also compute det(n) and all in $O(n^{\alpha})$?

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- Suppose we have an algorithm which computes the determinant in $O(n^\alpha)$ operations

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Computing the Determinant

$$w_{\det} \geq w_{\text{inv}} .$$

- Suppose we have an algorithm which computes the determinant in $O(n^\alpha)$ operations
- Can compute the determinant and all its partial derivatives in $O(n^\alpha)$ operations!
- Compute the inverse by simply dividing $\det(M^{(i,j)}) / \det(M)$

$$N_{ij} = \left(\partial_{ji} \det(M) \right)$$

we can compute det in time $O(n^\alpha)$
then can compute inverse $O(n^\alpha)$

Conclusion

- Today we learned how fundamental matrix multiplication is in symbolic computation and linear algebra
- Used fast computation of partial derivatives to compute the inverse from the determinant

- Administrivia
- Matrix Multiplication
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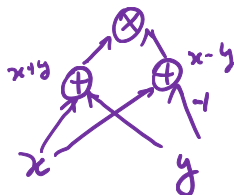
Algebraic Circuits - base ring R

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$$x^2 - y^2$$



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 - gates compute polynomial (rational function) in natural way
- *circuit size*: number of edges in the circuit, denoted by $\mathcal{S}(\Phi)$

Partial Derivatives

- if $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ the partial derivatives

$$\partial_1 f, \partial_2 f, \dots, \partial_n f$$

are such that

$$\partial_i x_j^d = \begin{cases} dx_j^{d-1}, & \text{if } i = j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and

$$\partial_i f$$

is computed as above considering all other variables “constant”

$$\partial_i f := \partial_{x_i} f$$

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- Example: $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 x_2 - x_1 x_2^3$

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- How fast can we compute partial derivatives?

if we have circuit of size n computes f

what is smallest size of circuit computing all $\partial_i f$?

Computing Partial Derivatives

- If f can be computed using L operations $+$, $-$, \times , then we can compute **ALL** partial derivatives *simultaneously*

$$\partial_1 f, \dots, \partial_n f$$

performing $4L$ operations!

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 - ① gradient descent methods
 - ② Newton iteration
- Algorithm we will see today discovered independently in Machine Learning - known as *backpropagation*

Computing Partial Derivatives

- We are going to use the chain rule:

$$\partial_i f(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) = \sum_{j=1}^m (\partial_j f)(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) \cdot \partial_i g_j$$

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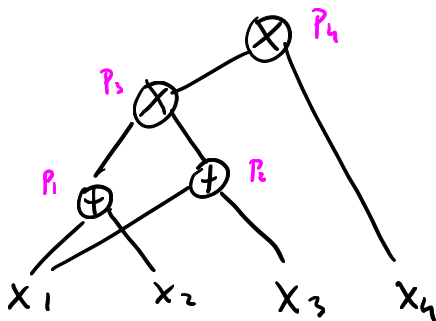
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 - 2 many of the partial derivatives along the computation will either be zero or *have already been computed!*
 - 3 Have to compute partial derivatives “in reverse”

Example

- Consider the following computation:

$$P_1 = x_1 + x_2, \quad P_2 = x_1 + x_3, \quad P_3 = P_1 \cdot P_2, \quad P_4 = x_4 \cdot P_3$$



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- Doing the direct method - i.e. computing all partial derivatives per operation:

| Computation | ∂_1 | ∂_2 | ∂_3 | ∂_4 |
|-----------------------------|--|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------|
| $P_1 = x_1 + x_2$ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| $P_2 = x_1 + x_3$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| $\rightarrow P_3 = P_1 P_2$ | $P_2 \cdot \partial_1 P_1 \oplus P_1 \cdot \partial_1 P_2$ | $P_2 \cdot \partial_2 P_1$ | $P_1 \cdot \partial_3 P_2$ | 0 |
| $P_4 = x_4 P_3$ | $x_4 \cdot \partial_1 P_3$ | $x_4 \cdot \partial_2 P_3$ | $x_4 \cdot \partial_3 P_3$ | P_3 |

lots of new operations needed
if bottom-up

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| $P_4 = x_4 P_3$ | $x_4 \cdot \partial_1 P_3$ | $x_4 \cdot \partial_2 P_3$ | $x_4 \cdot \partial_3 P_3$ | P_3 |

- Now let's see how to "do it in reverse"

Example - reverse mode

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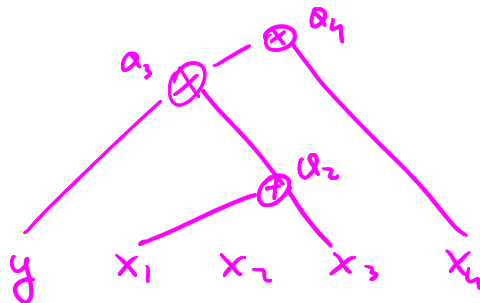
- Consider the computation:

*replaced
by y*

$$P_1 = x_1 + x_2, P_2 = x_1 + x_3, P_3 = P_1 \cdot P_2, P_4 = x_4 \cdot P_3$$

- Replacing first computation with a new variable y , we get:

$$Q_2 = x_1 + x_3, Q_3 = y \cdot Q_2, Q_4 = x_4 \cdot Q_3$$



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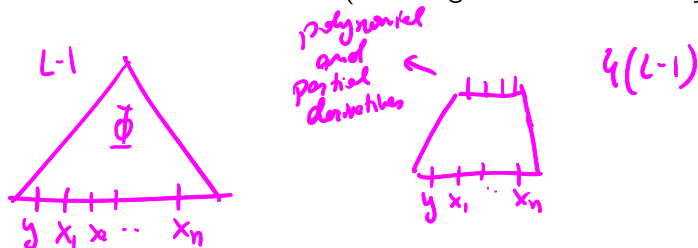
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- Can transform the circuit above into one that computes all partial derivatives of P_4 by using the *chain rule*!

Example - reverse mode

- Consider the computation:

$$y \quad \boxed{P_1 = x_1 + x_2}, P_2 = x_1 + x_3, P_3 = P_1 \cdot P_2, P_4 = x_4 \cdot P_3$$

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- Can transform the circuit above into one that computes all partial derivatives of P_4 by using the *chain rule*!
- Note that

$$Q_4(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, y = P_1) = P_4$$

Computing Partial Derivatives - Proof

- Note that

$$Q_4(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, y = P_1) = P_4$$

- By chain rule, we have

$$1 \leq i \leq 4$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\partial_i Q_4} &= \sum_{j=1}^4 (\partial_j Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot (\partial_i x_j) \\ &\quad + \underline{(\partial_y Q_4)}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot (\partial_i P_1) \end{aligned}$$

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$$\partial_i P_4 = \sum_{j=1}^4 (\partial_j Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot (\partial_i x_j) + (\partial_y Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot (\partial_i P_1)$$

$$\partial_i P_4 = (\partial_i Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot 1 + (\partial_y Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot (\partial_i P_1)$$

↑ new operation

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≠ 0 for at most 2 values of i

- Crucial remark:** note that P_1 depends on at most 2 variables!!

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P depends on x_1, x_2

$$\partial_3 P_4 = \partial_3 Q_4(\bar{x}, P_1)$$

$$\partial_4 P_4 = \partial_4 Q_4(\bar{x}, P_1)$$

$$\partial_4 Q_4(\bar{x}, y)$$



were already
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only derivatives left
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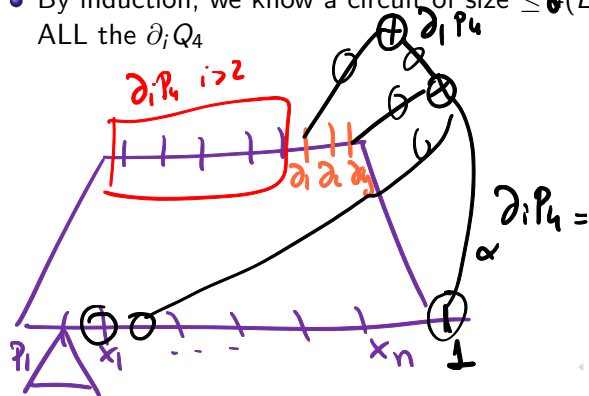
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- Crucial remark:** note that P_1 depends on at most 2 variables!
- By induction, we know a circuit of size $\leq 8(L-1)$ which computes ALL the $\partial_i Q_4$



$$P_1 = \alpha x_1 + \beta x_2$$

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$$\partial_1 P_1 = \alpha$$

$$\partial_2 P_1 = \beta$$

are computed already

Computing Partial Derivatives - Proof

- By chain rule, we have

$$1 \leq i \leq 4$$

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_i Q_4 &= (\partial_i Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot 1 \\ &\quad + (\partial_y Q_4)(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, P_1) \cdot (\partial_i P_1)\end{aligned}$$

- *Crucial remark:* note that P_1 depends on at most 2 variables!
- By induction, we know a circuit of size $\leq 4(L-1)$ which computes ALL the $\partial_i Q_4$
- P_1 is of the form

$$\alpha x_i + \beta x_j, \quad x_i x_j, \quad \alpha x_i + \beta$$

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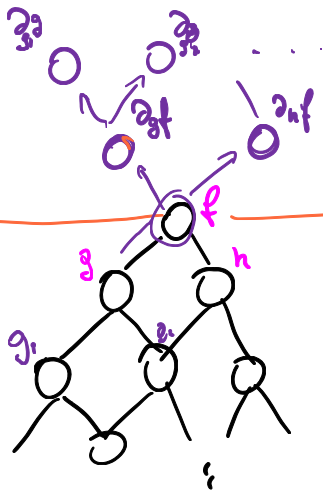
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- So we can compute P_1 and ALL its derivatives with ≤ 4 operations
- So circuit computing ALL $\partial_i P_4$ derivatives has size

$$\leq 4(L-1) + 4 = 4L$$

Computing Partial Derivatives - Picture

$\dots \partial_{i_1} \dots \partial_{i_2} \dots \partial_{i_n}$



$$\partial_{i_1} f = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{i_1} g & \partial_{i_1} h \\ f_{g_1} & f_{h_1} \end{pmatrix}$$