

Lecture 20: 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

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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!

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

- Administrivia
- **Matrix Multiplication**
- The Exponent of Linear Algebra
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Matrix Multiplication

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

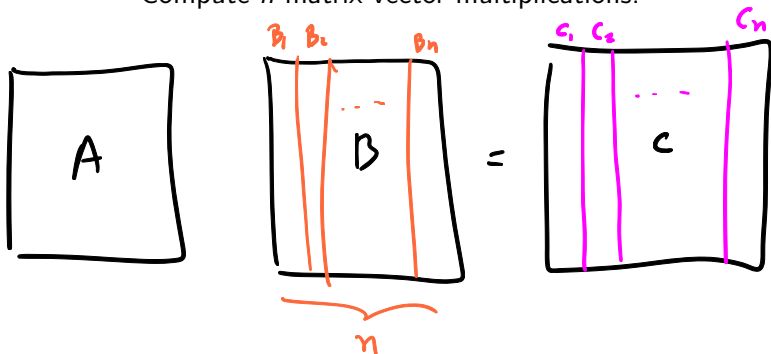
Computational model: number of arithmetic operations (assume that it takes $\mathcal{O}(1)$ time to $+$, \times , \div , $-$)

Matrix Multiplication

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

$$AB_i = C_i$$

Compute n matrix vector multiplications.



Matrix Multiplication

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- Naive algorithm:

Compute n matrix vector multiplications.

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

Can we do better?

each matrix-vector multiplication takes $O(n^2)$
operations (we need to read all entries of A)

$$A_{ij} v_j$$

Matrix Multiplication

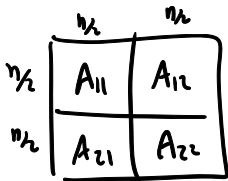
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- Naive algorithm:

Compute n matrix vector multiplications.

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

Can we do better?

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



2x2 matrix

if we can compute the product of two 2x2 matrices more efficiently than trivial then we improve running time of Mat. Mul.

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 $n/2$:

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

$$C_{11} = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21}$$

$$C_{12} = A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22}$$

$$C_{21} = A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21}$$

$$C_{22} = A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22}$$

$$T(n) \leq 8 \cdot T(n/2) +$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{2em}}$ # of
multiplications $\underbrace{\hspace{2em}}$ multiplying
 $n/2 \times n/2$
matrices

$$c \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^2$$

additions

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} T(n) \leq n^3 = n^{\log_2 8} \\ = \end{array} \right\} \text{goal: reduce} \\ \text{\# of multiplications}$$

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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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- Compute the following 7 products:

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

$$P_5 = S_1T_1, \quad P_6 = S_2T_2, \quad P_7 = S_3T_3$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & A_{11}B_{11} + \underbrace{(A_{12} - S_1 + A_{11})}_{\cancel{A_{12} - S_1 + A_{11}}} \underline{B_{22}} + \cancel{S_1 T_1} \\ & \quad + \cancel{(S_1 - A_{11})} (\cancel{B_{22}} - T_1) \\ & \cancel{A_{11} B_{11}} + A_{12} B_{22} + \cancel{A_{11} T_1} \\ & \quad \hookrightarrow A_{11} B_{12} \end{aligned}$$

Strassen's Algorithm

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

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Strassen's Algorithm

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$$\begin{cases} S_1 = A_{21} + A_{22}, & S_2 = S_1 - A_{11}, & S_3 = A_{11} - A_{21}, & S_4 = A_{12} - S_2 \\ T_1 = B_{12} - B_{11}, & T_2 = B_{22} - T_1, & T_3 = B_{22} - B_{12}, & T_4 = T_2 - B_{21} \end{cases}$$

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- $C_{22} = A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} = P_1 + P_5 + P_6 + P_7$
- 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

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- Recurrence:

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

of
smaller
multiplications

time to add
2 $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices

Analysis of Strassen's Algorithm

- To compute $AB = C$ we used:

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S_i, T_i 's
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$$k = \log_2 n$$

- Recurrence:

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

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

$$\leq 7^2 \cdot MM(2^{k-2}) + 18c \cdot 2^{2k} \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4^2} \right)$$

\vdots

$$\leq 7^k MM(1) + 18c 2^{2k} \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots \right)$$

$$= O(7^{\log_2 n}) = O(n^{\log_2 7})$$

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- Recurrence:

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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 $MM(n) = O(n^{\log 7}) \approx O(n^{2.807})$

Matrix Multiplication Exponent

$$2 \leq \omega \leq 2.807 \leq 3$$

- 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 $O(n^{\omega+\varepsilon})$

① any algorithm that multiplies two $n \times n$ matrices must make at least $c \cdot n^\omega$ operations
(lower bound the exponent of any matrix algorithm)

② ω is the "best lower bound" on the exponent of any matrix algorithm

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 $O(n^{\omega+\varepsilon})$
- As we will see today, ω is a fundamental constant in computer science!

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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 $\omega < 2.376$

Open Question

What is the right value of ω ?

Historical Remarks

- Strassen's work is not only important because it gives a faster matrix multiplication algorithm, but because it startled the community that the trivial cubic algorithm could be improved!

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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

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

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

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

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

$$\omega_{linear\ systems} \leq \omega$$

The Exponent of Linear Algebra

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

Matrix multiplication exponent fundamental to linear algebra!

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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.

want to prove that $\omega = \omega_{inv}$

we need to prove:

$$\omega \geq \omega_{inv}$$

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

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.

- Suppose we had an algorithm for inverting matrices
- Consider

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} I & A & 0 \\ 0 & I & B \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \quad 3n \times 3n$$

Matrix inverse vs matrix multiplication

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

- Then

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

submatrix of M^{-1} is the multiplication of two $n \times n$ matrices!

Matrix inverse vs matrix multiplication

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- How to prove this? *reductions!*

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

- Suppose we had an algorithm for inverting matrices
- Consider

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

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \\ \omega \leq \omega_{\text{inv}} + \epsilon \\ \alpha$$

- 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 $O(T)$.

$\alpha(n^a)$

$\alpha(n^a)$

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.”

in w's words:

$$\omega \geq \omega_{inv}$$

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.”
- Suppose we have an algorithm that performs matrix multiplication.
- Let $n = 2^k$, divide matrix M into blocks of size $n/2$

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

Matrix Multiplication vs Matrix Inversion

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

- 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 of M

Matrix Multiplication vs Matrix Inversion

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- How do we compute this?

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

Computing Inverse of Block Matrices

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

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

$$\begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ CA^{-1} & D - CA^{-1}B \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & \underbrace{D - CA^{-1}B}_S \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Computing Inverse of Block Matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} I-B \\ 0 \quad L \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{pmatrix} M \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} I-B & I-B \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & B \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix}}_I$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} I-B & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \cdot I \begin{pmatrix} I & B \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} = I$$

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

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

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.

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

$n \times n$

compute A^{-1}, S^{-1} { two $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices

+ some matrix multiplications

we have an algorithm $O(n^3)$ for this routine!

Runtime Analysis

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

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

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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- Recurrence relation:

$$I(n) \leq 2 \cdot I(n/2) + C \cdot (n/2)^\omega$$

↑
A and S need to be inverted

Solving Recurrence

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$\leq 2^2 \cdot I(2^{k-2}) + C \cdot (2^{\omega(k-1)} + 2^{\omega(k-2)})$

- Thus

$$I(n) = I(2^k) \leq \underline{2^k} \cdot I(1) + C \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 2^{\omega j}$$

$$\leq C' \cdot \left(\underline{2^k} + \frac{2^{\omega k} - 1}{2^\omega - 1} \right)$$

$$\leq C'' \cdot 2^{\omega k} = C'' n^\omega$$

geometric series

$\Rightarrow \boxed{\omega_{inu} \leq \omega}$

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

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

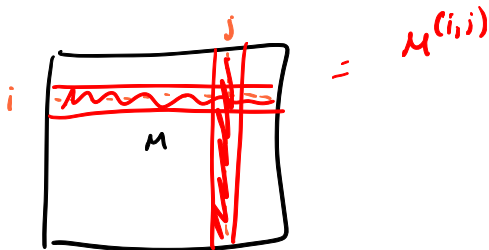
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- Determinant has a very special decomposition by minors: given any row i , we have

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

known as *Laplace Expansion*

det. of minor $M^{(i,j)}$
 (i,j) entry of M

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derivatives
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$$\partial_{ij} \det(M) = (-1)^{i+j} \cdot \det(M^{(i,j)})$$

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$$\det(M^{(i,j)}) = (-1)^{i+j} \partial_{i,j} \det(M)$$

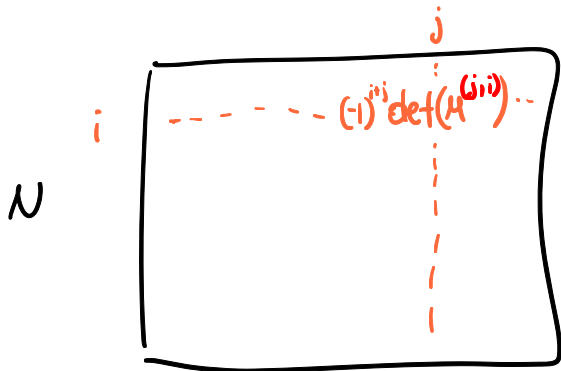
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- In particular, let $N \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ be the *adjugate matrix*

$$N_{i,j} = \det(M^{(j,i)}) \cdot (-1)^{i+j}$$



note the
transposition
of indices.

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- Note that

$$MN = \det(M) \cdot I$$

Practice problem: prove the above identity!

$$M \cdot \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{\det(M)} \cdot N \right)}_{M^{-1}} = I$$

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$$(M^{-1})_{i,j} = \frac{N_{i,j}}{\det(M)} = \frac{(-1)^{i+j} \det(M^{(j,i)})}{\det(M)}$$

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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

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(known in ML as back propagation)

Computing the Determinant

compute det. in $O(n^\alpha)$ \implies compute inverse in $O(n^\alpha)$

equiv: $w_{inv} \leq w_{det}$ ($w \leq w_{det}$)

- 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 $\det(M^{(i,j)}) / \det(M) (-1)^{i+j}$

total runtime: $O(n^\alpha)$ to compute det. n^2
and all partial derivatives

+ $O(n^2)$ to compute all fractions which are the entries of inverse

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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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

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

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is computed as above considering all other variables “constant”

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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?

Computing Partial Derivatives

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

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performing $4L$ operations!

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 - ① gradient descent methods
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- 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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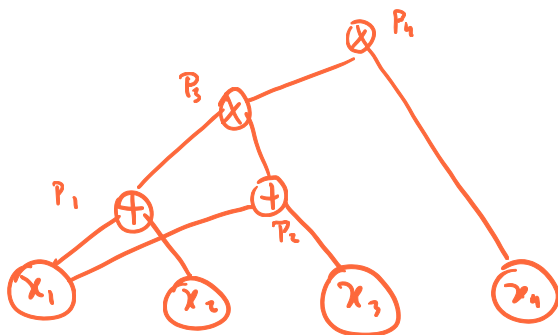
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 - 3 Have to compute partial derivatives “in reverse”

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- Consider the following computation:

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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
$P_3 = P_1 P_2$	$P_2 \cdot \partial_1 P_1 + P_1 \cdot \partial_1 P_2$	$P_2 \cdot \partial_2 P_1$	$P_1 \cdot \partial_3 P_2$	0
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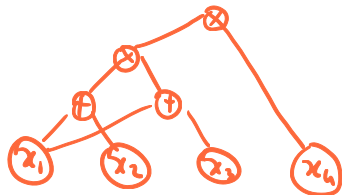
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- Now let's see how to "do it in reverse"

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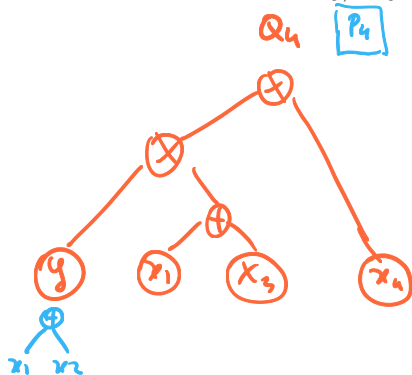
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Computing Partial Derivatives - Proof

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$$1 \leq i \leq 4$$

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- 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

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

- 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