





Administrivia

Changes in the Teaching Staff

- Clara Meister (Head TA)
 - BSc/MSc from Stanford University
 - Despite the last name, my German ist sehr schlecht
- Niklas Stoehr
 - Germany → China → UK → Switzerland
 - I like interdisciplinarity: NLP meets political and social science
- Pinjia He
 - PhD from The Chinese University of Hong Kong
 - Focus: robust NLP, NLP meets software engineering
- New TA: Rita Kuznetsova
 - PhD from Moscow Institute of Physics and Technology
 - Postdoc in the BMI Lab



Course Assignment / Project Update

- About 60% of you want to do a long problem set that will also involve some coding
 - The teaching staff is preparing the assignment
 - We will update you as things become clearer!
- About 40% of you want to write a research paper
 - You should form groups of 2 to 4 people
 - Feel free to use Piazza to reach out to other students in the course
 - We will require you to write a 1-page project proposal where we will give you feedback on the idea
 - Expect to turn this in before the end of October; date will be given soon





Why Front-load Backpropagation?

NLP is Mathematical Modeling

- Natural language processing is a mathematical modeling field
- We have problems (tasks) and models
- Our models are almost exclusively data driven
 - When statistical, we have to estimate parameters from data
 - Our How do we estimate the parameters?
- Typically parameter estimation is posed as an optimization problem
- We almost always use gradient-based optimization
 - This lecture teaches you how to compute the gradient of virtually any model efficiently



Why front-load backpropagation?

- We are front-loading a very useful technique: backpropagation
 - Many of you may find it irksome, but we are teaching backpropagation out of the context of NLP

- Why did we make this choice?
 - Backpropagation is the 21th century's algorithm: You need to know it
 - At many places in this course, I am going to say: You can compute X with backpropagation and move on to cover more interesting things
 - Many NLP algorithms come in duals where one is the "backpropagation version" of the other
 - Forward → Forward-Backward (by backpropagation)
 - Inside → Inside—Outside (by backpropagation)
 - Computing a normalizer → computing marginals



Warning: This lecture is very technical

- At subsequent moments in this course, we will need gradients
 - To optimize functions
 - To compute marginals
- Optimization is well taught in other courses
 - Convex Opt for ML at ETHZ (401-3905-68L)
- Automatic differentiation (backpropagation) is rarely taught at all
- Endure this lecture now, but then go back to it at later points in the class!

Structure of this Lecture



Backpropagation (2) Calculus Review (3) Computation Graphs (4) Reverse-Mode AD





Supplementary Material

Chris Olah's Blog, Justin Domke's Notes, Tim Vieira's Blog, Moritz Hardt's Notes, Baur and Strassen (1983), Griewank and Walter (2008), Eisner (2016)





Backpropagation

 Backpropagation is the single most important algorithm in modern machine learning

 Despites its importance, most people don't understand it very well! (Or, at all)

This lecture aims to fill that technical lacuna

What people think backpropagation is...

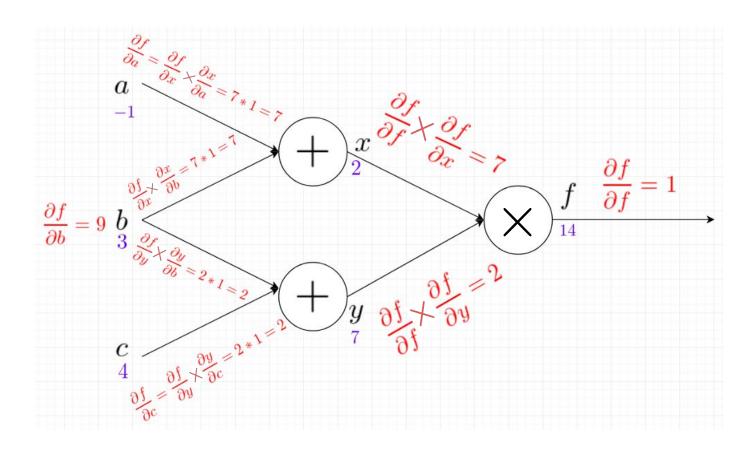
The Chain Rule

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}[f(g(x))] = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$



What backpropagation actually is...

A linear-time dynamic program for computing derivatives





Backpropagation – a Brief History

- Building blocks of backpropagation go back a long time
 - The chain rule (Leibniz, 1676; L'Hôpital, 1696)
 - Dynamic Programming (DP, Bellman, 1957)
 - Minimisation of errors through gradient descent (Cauchy 1847, Hadamard, 1908)
 - in the parameter space of complex, nonlinear, differentiable, multi-stage, NN-related systems (Kelley, 1960; Bryson, 1961; Bryson and Denham, 1961; Pontryagin et al., 1961, ...)
- Explicit, efficient error backpropagation (BP) in arbitrary, discrete, possibly sparsely connected, NN-like networks apparently was first described in 1970 by Finnish master student Seppo Linnainmaa
- One of the first NN-specific applications of efficient BP was described by Werbos (1982)
- Rumelhart, Hinton and William, 1986 significantly contributed to the popularization of BP for NNs as computers became faster



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Function Approximation

- Given inputs \mathbf{x} and outputs \mathbf{y} from a set of data $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_n)\}_{n=1}^N$, we want to fit some function $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ (using parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$) such that it predicts \mathbf{y} well
- I.e., for a loss function L we want to minimize

$$\sum_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\in\mathcal{D}} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x};oldsymbol{ heta}),\mathbf{y})$$

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(unconstrained) optimization problem!

Parameter estimation in a statistical model is optimization

$$\min_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \sum_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\in\mathcal{D}} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x};oldsymbol{ heta}),\mathbf{y})$$

- Many tools for solving such problems, e.g. gradient descent, require that you have access to the gradient of a function
 - This is about computing that gradient

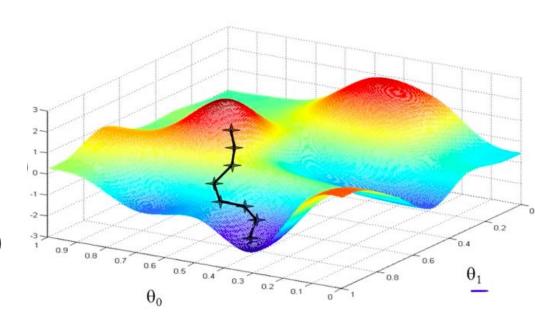
Parameter estimation in a statistical model is optimization

$$\min_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \sum_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{D}} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x};oldsymbol{ heta}),\mathbf{y})$$

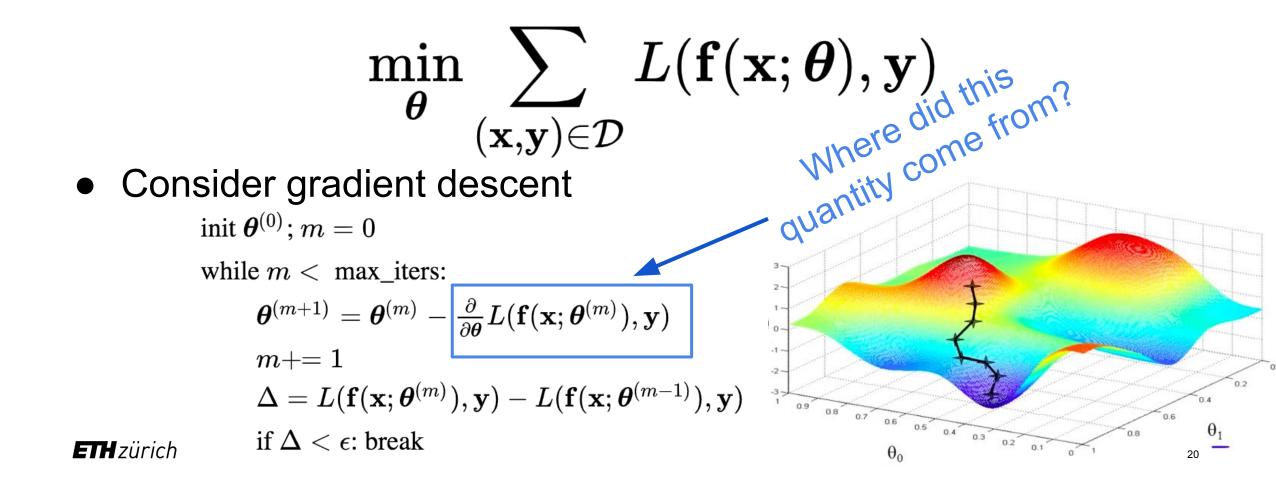
Consider gradient descent

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$$\begin{array}{l} \text{init } \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}; \, m = 0 \\ \text{while } m < \max_\text{iters:} \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m+1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m)} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m)}), \mathbf{y}) \\ m += 1 \\ \Delta = L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m)}), \mathbf{y}) - L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m-1)}), \mathbf{y}) \\ \text{if } \Delta < \epsilon \text{: break} \end{array}$$



Parameter estimation in a statistical model is optimization



- For a composite function \mathbf{f} , e.g., a neural network, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{y})$ might be time-consuming to derive by hand
- Backpropagation is an all-purpose algorithm to the rescue!





Automatic Differentiation



Reverse-Mode Automatic Differentiation





Big Picture:

• Backpropagation (a.k.a. reverse-mode AD) is a popular technique that exploits the composite nature of complex functions to compute $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{y})$ efficiently

More Detail:

- Backpropagation is another name for reverse-mode automatic differentiation ("autodiff").
- It recursively applies the chain rule along a computation graph to calculate the gradients of all inputs and intermediate variables efficiently using dynamic programming

Big Picture:

• Backpropagation (a.k.a. reverse-mode AD) is a popular technique that exploits the composite nature of complex functions to compute $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta), \mathbf{y})$ efficiently

More Detail:

Theorem: Reverse-mode automatic differentiation can compute the gradient in the same time complexity as computing **f**!



Calculus Background

Derivatives: Scalar Case

- Derivatives measures change in a function over values of a variable. Specifically, the instantaneous rate of change.
- In the scalar case, given a differentiable function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, the derivative of f at a point $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is defined as:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h o 0} rac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$$

where f is said to be differentiable at x if such a limit exists. Generally, this simply requires that f be smooth and continuous at x.

For notational ease, the derivative of y = f(x) with respect to x is commonly written as $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

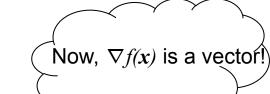


Derivatives: Scalar Case

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h o 0} rac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- Hand-wavey: if x were to change by ε then y (where y = f(x)) would change by approximately $\varepsilon \cdot f'(x)$
- More Rigorously: f'(x) is the slope of the tangent line to the graph of f at x. The tangent line is the **best linear approximation** of the function near x.
 - \circ We can then use $f(x)pprox f(x_0)+f'(x_0)(x-x_0)$ as a locally linear approximation of f at x for some x_0

Gradients: Multivariate Case



• Given a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, the derivative of f at a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as:

$$abla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(\mathbf{x}), \cdots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(\mathbf{x}) \right)$$

where $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x})$ is the (partial) derivative of f with respect to x_i

- This partial derivative tells us the approximate amount by which f(x) will change if we move x along the ith coordinate axis.
- For notational ease, we can again take y = f(x) and similarly we have

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1}, \cdots, \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_n}\right)$$

Jacobians: Multivariate Case

• Given a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, for input $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and output $y = f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$egin{array}{c} rac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & rac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} \ drawnowsign & drawnowsign & drawnowsign & drawnowsign \ rac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & rac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_n} \ \end{array}
ight]$$

• The above m x n matrix (known as the Jacobian) reflects the relationship between each element of x and each element of y. I.e., the (i, j)-th element of $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ tells us the amount by which y_i will change if x_i is changed by a small amount.

The Multivariate Chain Rule

• Given variables x, y, z: knowing the instantaneous rate of change of z relative to y and that of y relative to x allows one to calculate the instantaneous rate of change of z relative to x:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$$

• This relationship holds in the multivariate case (i.e., when x, y, z are vectors and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$ and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{y}}$ are Jacobians). Consequently, we can form the Jacobian $\frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$ where

$$rac{\partial z_k}{\partial x_i} = \sum_{j=1}^m rac{\partial z_k}{\partial y_j} rac{\partial y_j}{\partial x_i}$$



Computation Graphs and Slow Gradients

Composite Functions

where f(x,y,z)=g

- An ordered series of (non-linear) equations.
- Each is only a function of the preceding equations

Ex:

$$f(x,y,z) = 2\sin(x^2 + y imes \exp(z))$$

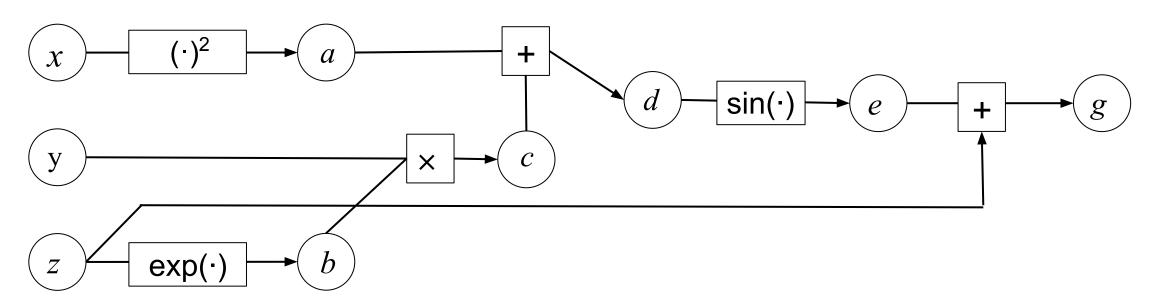
We can represent the above equation using intermediate variables:

$$egin{aligned} a &= x^2 \ b &= \exp(z) \ c &= y imes b \ d &= a + c \ e &= \sin(d) \ q &= 2 imes e \end{aligned}$$

Functions as Computation Graphs

- Any composite function can be described in terms of its computation graph.
- Formally, a computation graph is a **labeled**, **directed acyclic hypergraph** G= (V, E) where each node is a variable and each hyperedge is labeled with a function.

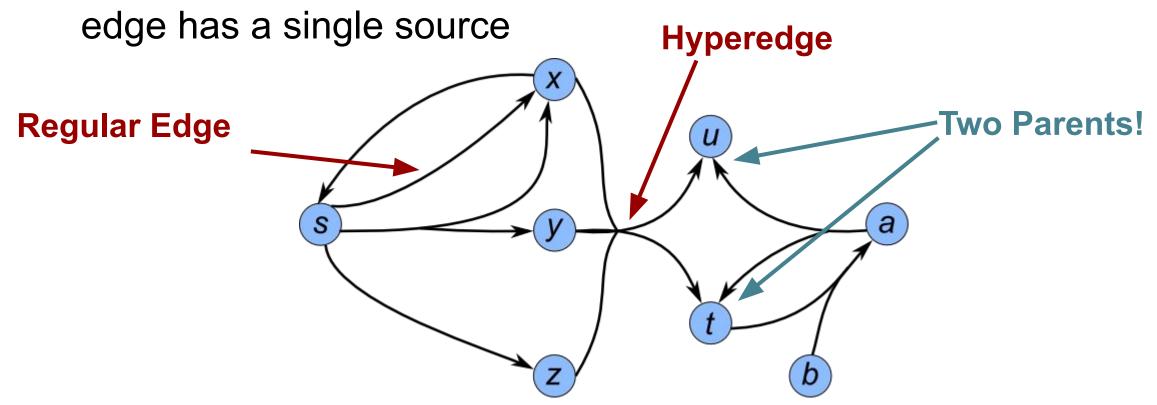
$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$



What is a hypergraph?

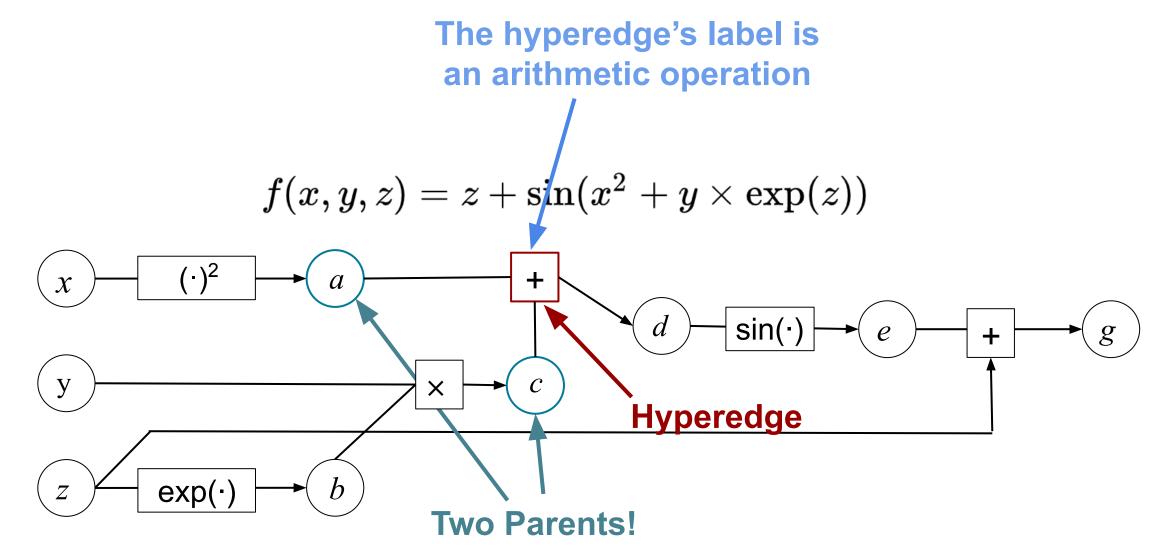
Sounds fancy, eh? It's really simple!

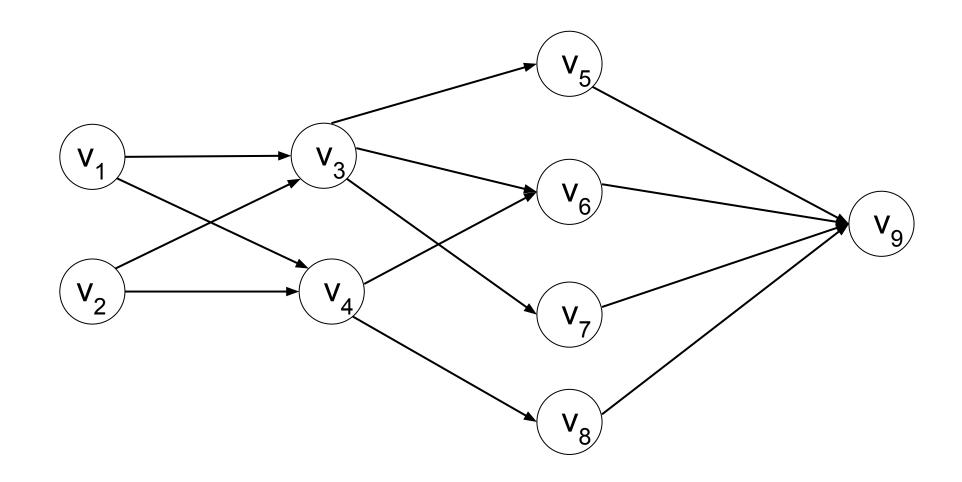
A hypergraph relaxes the assumption in a graph that every

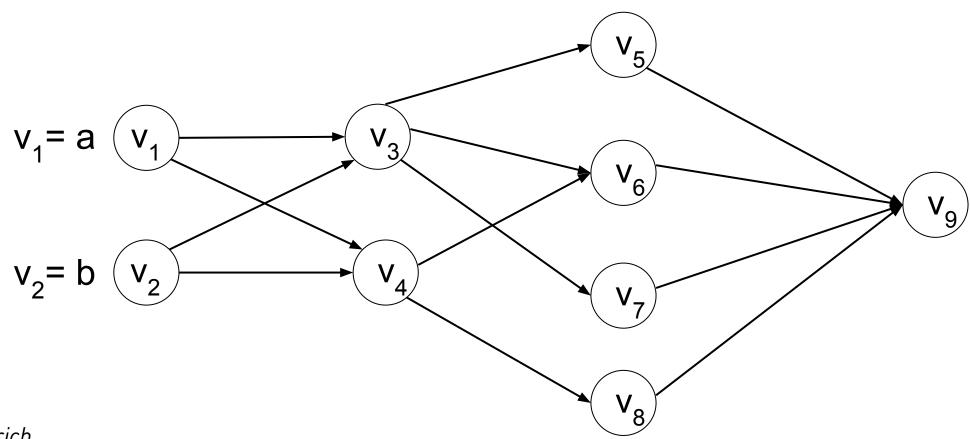


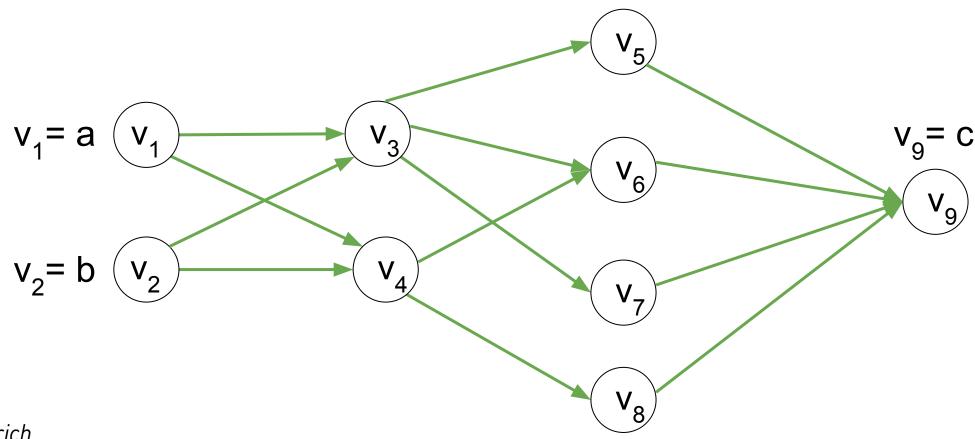


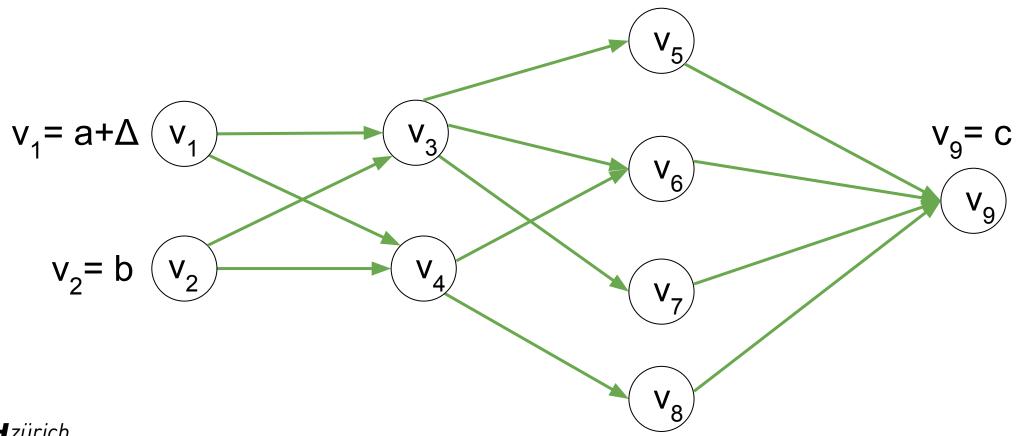
Why do we need a labeled hypergraph?











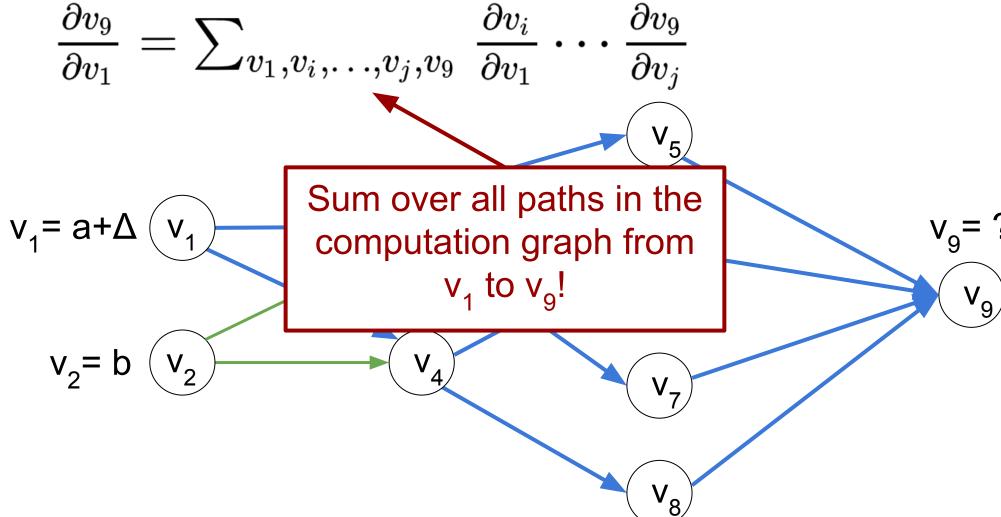
• The derivative is a sum over all of the paths:

$$\frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_1} = \sum_{v_1, v_i, \dots, v_j, v_9} \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial v_1} \cdots \frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_j}$$

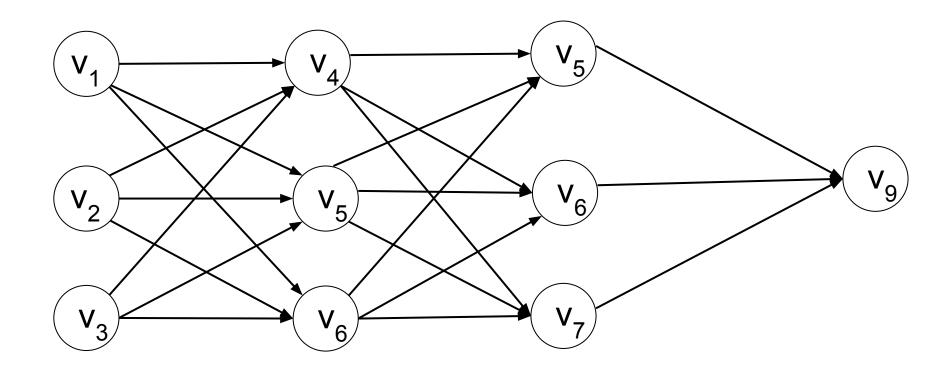
$$v_1 = \mathbf{a} + \Delta \quad v_1 \qquad v_3 \qquad v_9 = \mathbf{v}_1$$

$$v_2 = \mathbf{b} \quad v_2 \qquad v_4 \qquad v_7 \qquad v_8$$

• The derivative is a sum over all of the paths of influence:

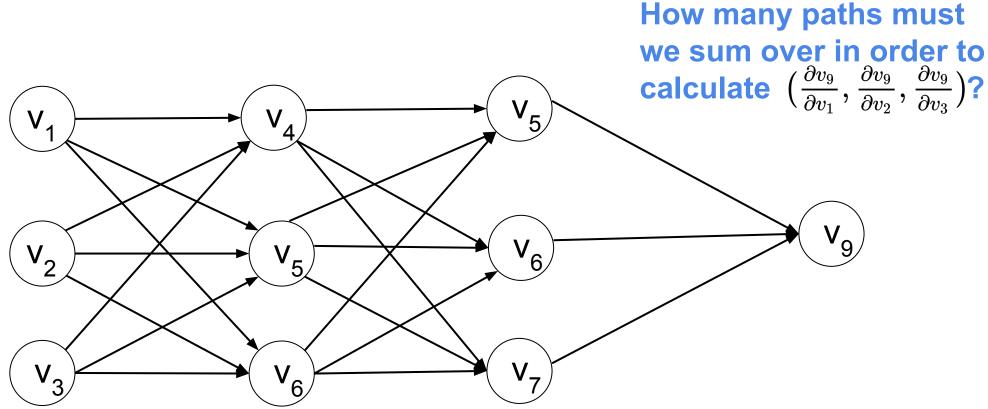


- How bad is this naive gradient computation algorithm?
- Consider a "fully connected" computation graph:



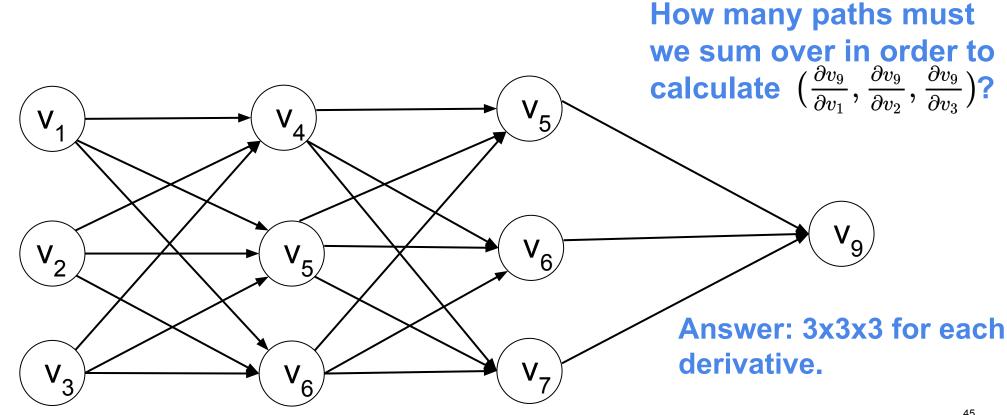


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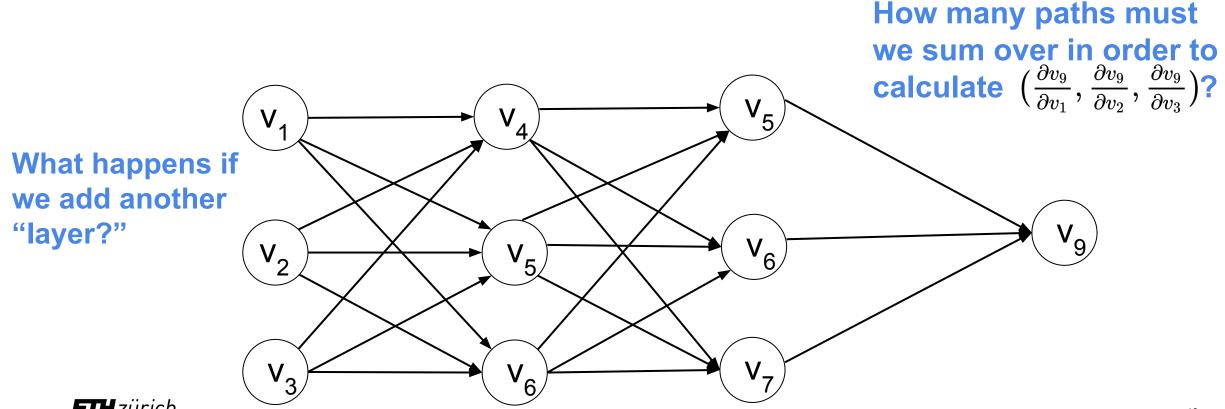




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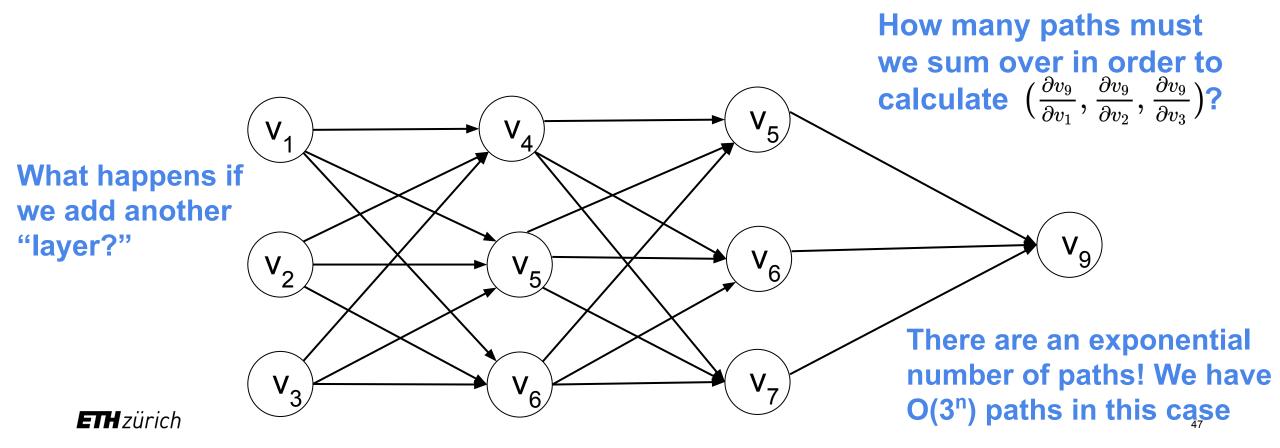


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- How bad is this naive gradient computation algorithm?
- Consider a "fully connected" computation graph:



 If you apply the chain rule naively, your algorithm will run in exponential time!

- This problem has the same structure as finding the shortest path!
- So, if you wanted to find the shortest path in a graph, would you
 - (a) Enumerate all of the exponentially many paths and select the shortest one?
 - (b) Run a linear-time dynamic-programming algorithm?

 If you apply the chain rule naively, your algorithm will run in exponential time!

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The Magic of Backpropagation

- Backpropagation also runs fast even though it explores an exponentially large space!
- Just as with the shortest path problem, backpropagation is also a dynamic program
- Other relatives you will see in this course
 - minimum edit distance
 - Cocke-Kasami-Younger





The Magic of Backpropagation

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The Nitty-Gritty of Backpropagation (a.k.a. Reverse-Mode Automatic Differentiation)

Automatic Differentiation

 Main idea behind AD: as long as as we have access to the derivatives of a set of primitives, e.g. the derivative of cos(x) is -sin(x), then we can stich these together to get the derivative of any composite function

Saving the values of intermediate variables (dynamic programming!)
allows for low computational complexity. Indeed, we go from exponential
down to linear

 The one drawback is that we require knowledge of how the function was built out of primitives and cannot treat it as a true black box

General Automatic Differentiation Framework

Set of primitives

$$f(y,z) = y + z$$
 $f(y,z) = y imes z$
 $f(y) = y^3$
 $f(y) = \sin(y)$
 $f(y) = \exp(y)$
 $f(y) = \log(y)$

And their derivatives

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y,z)&=rac{\partial y}{\partial x}+rac{\partial z}{\partial x}\ rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y,z)&=yrac{\partial z}{\partial x}+zrac{\partial y}{\partial x}\ rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y)&=3y^2rac{\partial y}{\partial x}\ rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y)&=\cos(y)rac{\partial y}{\partial x}\ rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y)&=\exp(y)rac{\partial y}{\partial x}\ rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y)&=rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y)&=rac{\partial}{\partial x}f(y) = rac{\partial}{$$

General Automatic Differentiation Framework

Step 1: Write down a composite function as a hypergraph with intermediate variables as nodes and hyperedges are labeled with the primitives

Again, why a hypergraph? An intermediate variable may be a function of **more than one** preceding intermediate variable.

Step 2: Given a set of inputs, perform a forward pass through the graph to compute the function's value; this is called forward propagation

Step 3: Run backpropagation on the graph using the stored forward values. This computes the derivative

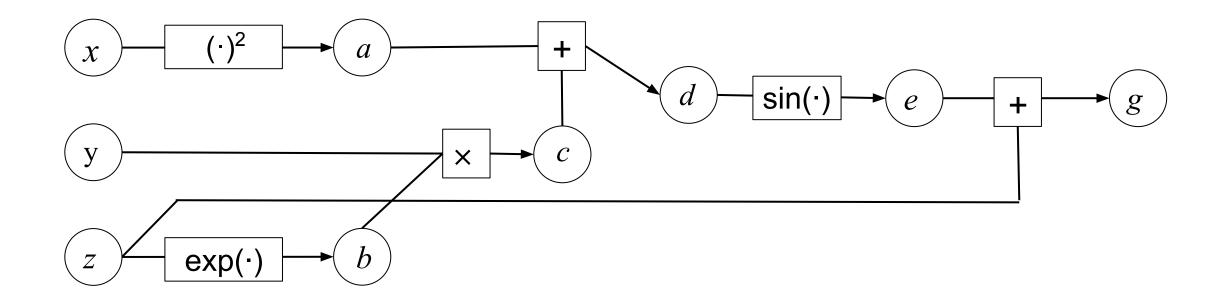
• Perform a "forward pass" through the computation graph where the value of each node is calculated based on its ancestors, which computes the value of $f(\cdot)$

- Not to be confused with "forward-mode differentiation"
 - Backpropagation is a synonym for reverse-mode differentiation
 - You can also do one-pass AD, but it's generally slower for the functions we care about



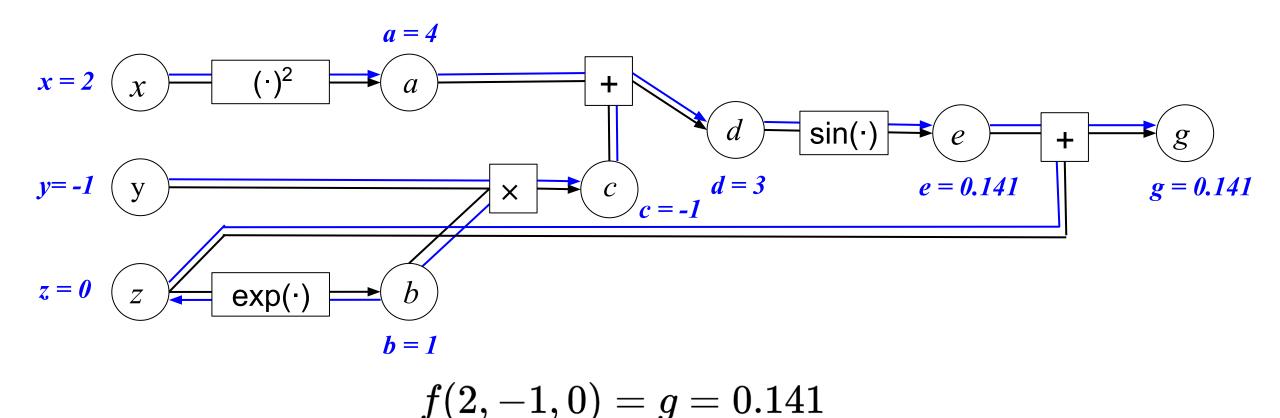
Example:

$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$



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- Input a function f encoded as a labeled, directed acyclic hypergraph with N edges and labels p_i (for primitives) on the hyperarcs
- Assume the edges are topologically sorted so i < j implies v_i is before v_j
- We assume the first n nodes are input nodes and set to x
- We use bracket notation <> to represent an ordered set

```
egin{aligned} 	ext{forward-propagate}(f,\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n) \ v_i \leftarrow egin{cases} x_i & 	ext{if } i \leq n \ 0 & 	ext{otherwise} \end{cases} \ 	ext{for } i = N-n,\dots,N: \ v_i \leftarrow p_i(\langle v_{	ext{Pa}(i)} 
angle) \ 	ext{return } [v_1,\dots,v_N] \end{aligned}
```

• The "differentiation" component of our framework

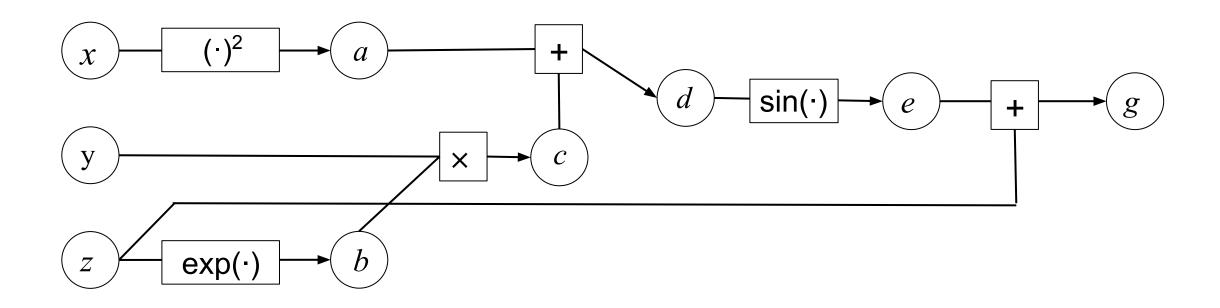
 Computing for derivative of the output with respect to intermediate variables including the input

This is also known as reverse-mode differentiation



Example:

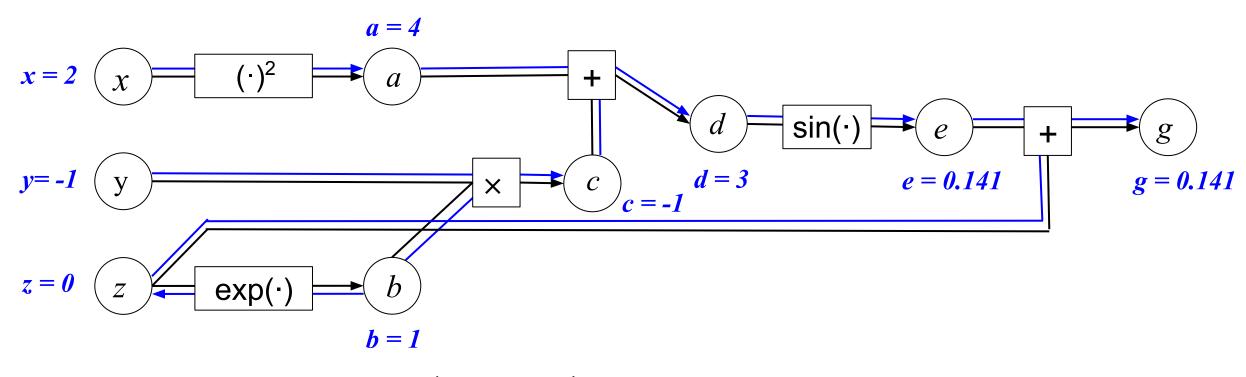
$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$



Example:

Perform forward propagation!

$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$

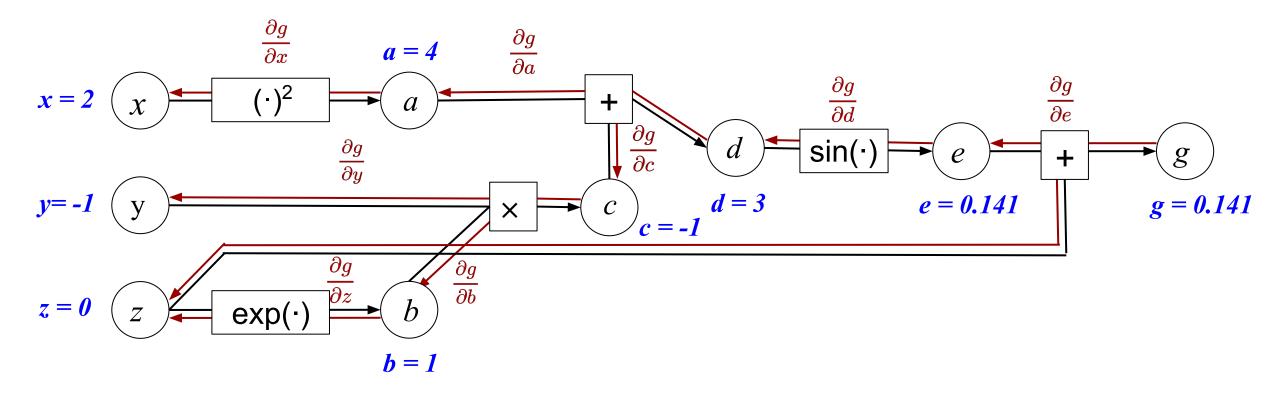


$$f(2,-1,0)=g=0.141$$

Example:

Compute values of intermediate derivatives!

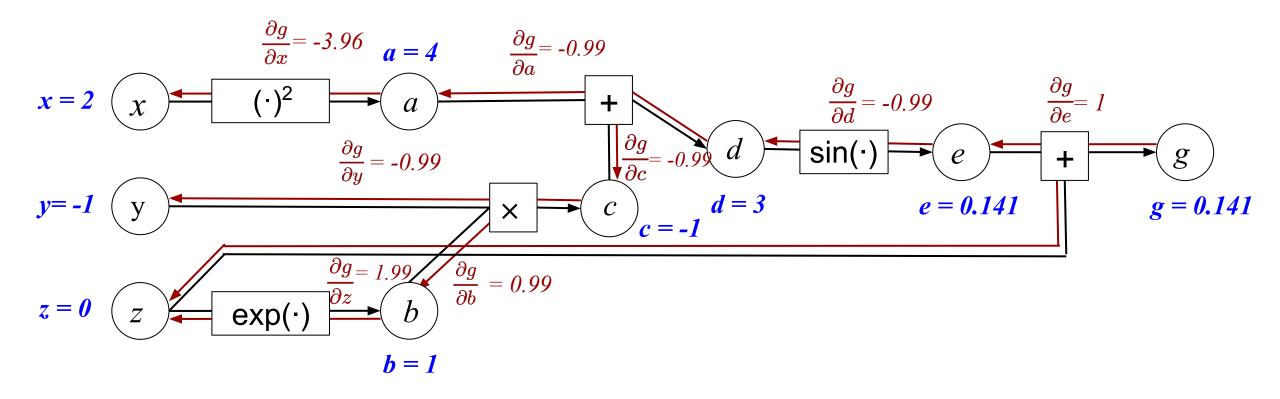
$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$



Example:

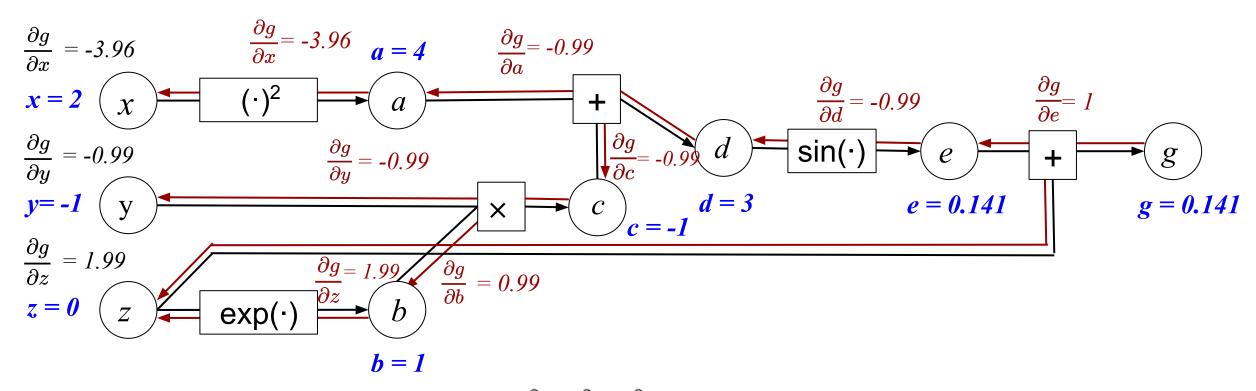
Compute values of intermediate derivatives!

$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$



Example:

$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$



$$abla f(2,-1,0) = \langle rac{\partial g}{\partial x}, rac{\partial g}{\partial y}, rac{\partial g}{\partial z}
angle = \langle -3.96, -0.99, 1.99
angle$$



Calculating Gradients

$$egin{aligned} f(x,y,z) &= z + \sin(x^2 + y imes \exp(z)) \ extbf{Example}: & rac{\partial g}{\partial e} &= 1 \ & rac{\partial g}{\partial d} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial e} rac{\partial e}{\partial d} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial e} \cos(d) \ & rac{\partial g}{\partial c} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial d} rac{\partial d}{\partial c} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial d} 1 \ & rac{\partial g}{\partial b} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial c} rac{\partial c}{\partial b} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial c} y \ & rac{\partial g}{\partial z} &= rac{\partial g}{\partial b} rac{\partial b}{\partial z} + 1 &= rac{\partial g}{\partial b} \exp(z) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

- We can easily write down the derivatives of individual terms in the graph
- Given all these, we can work backwards to compute the derivative of g = f(x, y, z) with respect to each variable: a simple application of the chain rule!

- Input a function f encoded as a labeled, directed acyclic hypergraph with N edges and labels p_i (for primitives) on the hyperarcs
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 $ext{forward-propagate}(f, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$ | $ext{back-propagate}(f, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$

$$v_i \leftarrow egin{cases} x_i & ext{if } i \leq n \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for
$$i = N - n, \ldots, N:$$
 $v_i \leftarrow p_i(\langle v_{\mathrm{Pa}(i)}
angle)$

return
$$[v_1,\ldots,v_N]$$

$$\mathbf{back\text{-}propagate}(f,\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\mathbf{v} \leftarrow \mathbf{forward\text{-}propagate}(f, \mathbf{x})$$

$$rac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} \leftarrow 0, \,\, orall i \in \{1,\dots,N\}$$

for
$$i = N, ..., 1$$
:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} \leftarrow \sum_{j:i \in \operatorname{Pa}(j)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_j} p_i'(\langle v_{\operatorname{Pa}(i)} \rangle)$$

return
$$\left\lceil \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_N} \right
ceil$$

$$p_i'(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) = rac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_i}$$

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- We use bracket notation <> to represent an ordered set

 $ext{forward-propagate}(f, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$ | $ext{back-propagate}(f, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$

$$v_i \leftarrow egin{cases} x_i & ext{if } i \leq n \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for
$$i = N - n, \ldots, N:$$
 $v_i \leftarrow p_i(\langle v_{\mathtt{Pa}(i)}
angle)$

return
$$[v_1,\ldots,v_N]$$

$$\mathbf{back\text{-}propagate}(f,\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\mathbf{v} \leftarrow \mathbf{forward\text{-}propagate}(f, \mathbf{x})$$

$$rac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} \leftarrow 0, \,\, orall i \in \{1,\dots,N\}$$

for
$$i=N,\ldots,1$$
:

$$rac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} \leftarrow \sum_{j:i \in \mathrm{Pa}(j)} rac{\partial f}{\partial v_j} p_i'(\langle v_{\mathrm{Pa}(i)}
angle)$$

return
$$\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_1},\ldots,\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_N}\right]$$

$$p_i'(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) = rac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_i}$$

base case for output node:

$$rac{\partial f}{\partial v_N}=1$$



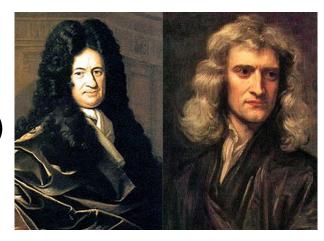
So, why isn't backprop just the chain rule?

- Automatic differentiation works because of the chain rule
 - It is part of the proof of correctness of the algorithm
- Evaluating $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ is provably as fast as evaluating y = f(x)
 - Use of intermediate variables (i.e., a,b,c,...) means resulting computation for the gradient has the same structure as the original function
 - Not necessarily (or usually) the case when the chain rule is used in symbolic differentiation!
- Autodiff can differentiate algorithms, not just expressions
 - \circ Code for $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ can be derived by a rote program transformation, even if the code has control flow structures like loops and intermediate variables



Analyzing Runtime of Backprop

- Enumerating all paths of influence takes O(2ⁿ) time where n is the number of nodes
- With dynamic programming, we can speed this up to O(n)
 - The same analysis as the shortest-path problem
- This is why backprop is computer science and not just calculus
 - Neither Newton nor Leibniz talked about runtime!
- Next time your friend says backprop is just the chain rule, you can retort:
 - Actually, it's an algorithm that propagates the chain rule through complex expressions efficiently by using dynamic programming





Three Types of Differentiation on your Computer

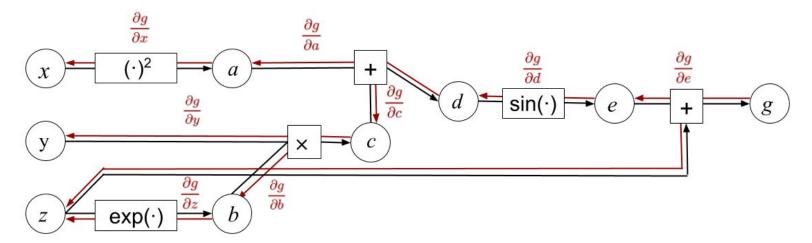
• Symbolic Differentiation:

$$rac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial z} = 1 + \cos(x^2 + y imes \exp(z)) imes y imes \exp(z)$$

- Numerical Differentiation:
 - The finite-difference approximation

$$rac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial z}pprox rac{f(x,y,z+h)-f(x,y,z)}{h}$$

Automatic Differentiation (backpropagation falls under here):



Three Types of Differentiation on your Computer

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 cal Differentiation:

repeated computation

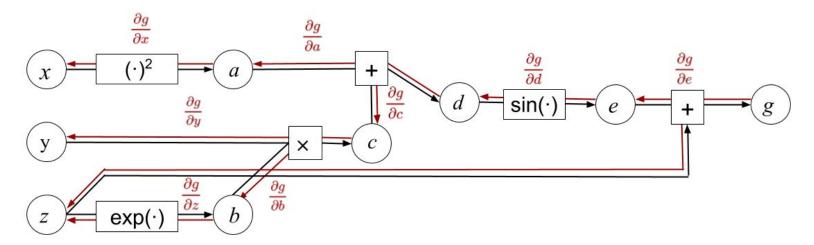
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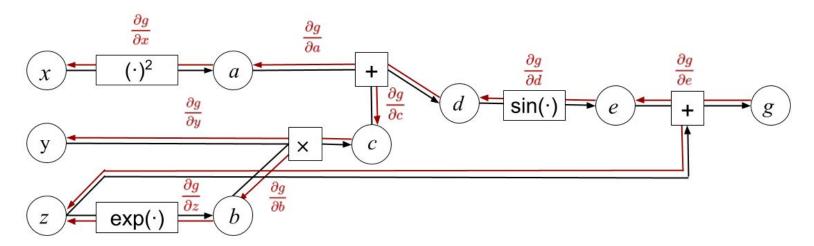
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 - The finite-difference approximation

$$rac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial z}pproxrac{f(x,y,z+h)-f(x,y,z)}{h}$$
 $ightharpoonup$ Much, much slower in general

Automatic Differentiation (backpropagation falls under here):





Three Types of Differentiation on your Computer

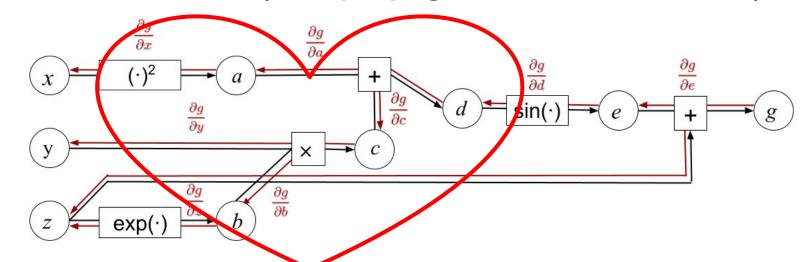
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Automatic Differentiation (backpropagation falls under here):





A Fun Interpretation of Backprop as Optimization (Optional Bonus Section)

• Take the intermediate variables in our computational graph $(v_1, ..., v_N)$ as simple equality constraints for a constrained optimization problem.

Example:

$$f(x,y,z) = z + \sin(x^2 + y \times \exp(z))$$

$$argmax\ g$$
 $s.t.$ $a=x^2$
 $b=\exp(z)$
 $c=y imes b$
 $d=a+c$
 $e=\sin(d)$
 $g=e+z$

• Take the intermediate variables in our computational graph $(v_1, ..., v_N)$ as simple equality constraints for a constrained optimization problem.

General Case:

- Input a function f encoded as a labeled, directed acyclic hypergraph with N edges and labels p_i (for primitives) on the hyperarcs
- Assume the edges are topologically sorted so i < j implies v_i is before v_i
- We assume the first n nodes are input nodes and set to x

$$\underset{oldsymbol{x}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ v_N$$

s.t.
$$v_i = x_i$$
 for $1 \leq i \leq n$ $v_i = p_i(\langle v_{\operatorname{Pa}(i)}
angle)$ for $n < i \leq N$

 Using the standard method for solving constrained optimization problems—with Lagrange multipliers—we can exactly recover the intermediate derivatives in the backprop algorithm.

Derivation:



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$$egin{aligned} v_i &= x_i & ext{for } 1 \leq i \leq n \ v_i &= p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) & ext{for } n < i \leq N \end{aligned}$$

 Using the standard method for solving constrained optimization problems—with Lagrange multipliers—we can exactly recover the intermediate derivatives in the backprop algorithm.

Derivation:

Optimality Condition (setting Lagrangian equal to zero):

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\left(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{v},oldsymbol{\lambda}
ight) &= v_N - \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \cdot \left(v_i - p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle)
ight) \ &
abla \mathcal{L}\left(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{v},oldsymbol{\lambda}
ight) = 0 \ &
abla \mathcal{L} = v_i - p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad v_i = p_i(\langle z_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) \end{aligned}$$

Using the standard method for solving constrained optimization problems—with Lagrange multipliers—we can exactly recover the intermediate derivatives in the backprop algorithm.

Derivation:

Solving the equations

$$egin{aligned} 0 &=
abla_{\!v_j} \mathcal{L} \ &=
abla_{\!v_j} igg[v_N - \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \cdot igg(v_i - p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) igg) igg] &= - igg(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i
abla_{\!v_j} igg[v_i - p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) igg) igg] &= - \lambda_j + \sum_{i:j \in \operatorname{Pa}(i)} \lambda_i rac{\partial p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle)}{\partial v_j} \ &= - \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i
abla_{\!v_j} igg[igg(v_i - p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
angle) igg) igg] & \lambda_j = \sum_{i:j \in \operatorname{Pa}(i)} \lambda_i rac{\partial p_i(\langle v_{ ext{Pa}(i)}
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$$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} & = -\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i
abla_{v_j}[v_i]
ight) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i
abla_{v_j}\left[p_i(\langle v_{\operatorname{Pa}(i)}
angle)
ight] \end{aligned} \ & = -\lambda_j + \sum_{i:j\in\operatorname{Pa}(i)} \lambda_i rac{\partial p_i(\langle v_{\operatorname{Pa}(i)}
angle)}{\partial v_j} \ & \updownarrow \ \lambda_j = \sum_{i:j\in\operatorname{Pa}(i)} \lambda_i rac{\partial p_i(\langle v_{\operatorname{Pa}(i)}
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angle)
ight)
ight] &= - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i
abla_{v_j} [v_i]
ight) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i
abla_{v_i}
abla_{v_j} [v_i]
ight) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i
abla_{v_i}
abla_$$

Recall our backprop algorithm:

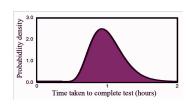
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{back\text{-propagate}}(f,\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n) \\ \mathbf{v} &\leftarrow \mathbf{forward\text{-propagate}}(f,\mathbf{x}) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} &\leftarrow 0, \ \forall i \in \{1,\dots,N\} \\ \mathbf{for} \ i &= N,\dots,1: \\ \boxed{\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} \leftarrow \sum_{j:i \in \operatorname{Pa}(j)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_j} p_i'(\langle v_{\operatorname{Pa}(i)} \rangle)} \\ \mathbf{return} \ \boxed{\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_1},\dots,\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_N}} \end{aligned}$$



Sneak Preview

Stay tuned for more NLP (and ML) essentials

Probability Refresher



$$p(y|x) = rac{p(x|y)p(y)}{\int p(x|y)p(y)\mathrm{d}y}$$

Log-Linear Models

$$p(y \mid \mathbf{x}, oldsymbol{ heta}) = rac{\exp(oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y))}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y'))}$$

Softmax Function

Softmax(
$$\mathbf{h}, y, T$$
) = $\frac{\exp(h_y/T)}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(h_{y'}/T)}$

The Exponential Family

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid oldsymbol{ heta}) = rac{1}{Z(oldsymbol{ heta})} h(\mathbf{x}) \exp(oldsymbol{ heta}^ op oldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}))$$

Afterwards: we are finally ready to do some NLP together!



Conclusion

Backpropagation

- Backpropagation is a fun dynamic program that is ubiquitous in machine learning
- Most people treat backprop as a blackbox (PyTorch) without understanding how it works
 - Life lesson: You should understand the tools you are using!
- Backpropagation is also a constructive theorem about the computational complexity of computing the derivative of a function
 - Same asymptotic complexity as the original function!
 - Many inefficient algorithms were published because the authors did not fully understand backpropagation



Backpropagation in a Meme

backprop is just chain rule

backprop is just the chain rule + memoization

backprop is an instance the method of Lagrange multipliers, which uses efficient blockcoordinate steps on the multipliers & intermediate variables!

That's why it's correct, linear time and linear space.

backprop is an instance the method of Lagrange multipliers, [...] which gives me the freedom to optimize & compute it with a million other methods!

One such method is reverse-mode (backprop), another is forward-mode, but actually there is a huge spectrum of methods that fall out of this elegant formulation; each give interesting algs with different time-space tradeoffs for gradient computation.

I can run optimization directly on the Lagrange dual moving away from the de facto block-coordinate scheme.

I can even support cyclic computations thanks to this wonder unified view!





Fin

