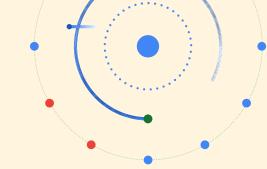
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# **Automatic differentiation**

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November 21, 2020

# **Gradient-based learning**

- Gradient-based training algorithms are the workhorse of modern machine learning.
- Deriving gradients by hand is tedious and error prone.
- This becomes quickly infeasible for complex models.
- Changes to the model require rederiving the gradient.
- Deep learning = GPU + data + autodiff

#### **Automatic differentiation**

- Evaluates the derivatives of a function at a given point.
- Not the same as numerical differentiation.
- Not the same as symbolic differentiation, which returns a "human-readable" expression.
- In a neural network context, reverse autodiff is often known as backpropagation.

#### **Automatic differentiation**

- A program is defined as the composition of primitive operations that we know how to derive.
- The user can focus on the forward computation / model.

```
import jax.numpy as jnp
from jax import grad, jit
def predict(params, inputs):
 for W, b in params:
    outputs = jnp.dot(inputs, W) + b
    inputs = jnp.tanh(outputs)
 return outputs
def logprob_fun(params, inputs, targets):
 preds = predict(params, inputs)
 return jnp.sum((preds - targets)**2)
grad_fun = jit(grad(logprob_fun))
```

#### **Automatic differentiation**

Modern frameworks support higher-order derivatives

```
def tanh(x):
 y = jnp.exp(-2.0 * x)
 return (1.0 - y) / (1.0 + y)
fp = grad(tanh)
fpp = grad(grad(tanh))
```

### **Outline**

- 1 Numerical differentiation
- 2 Chain compositions
- 3 Computational graphs
- 4 Implementation
- 5 Advanced topics
- 6 Conclusion

#### **Derivatives**

■ Definition of derivative of  $g \colon \mathbb{R} o \mathbb{R}$ 

$$g'(a) = \frac{\partial g(a)}{\partial a} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{g(a+h) - g(a)}{h}$$

- $\mathbf{g}'(a)$  is called Lagrange notation.
- $\frac{\partial g(a)}{\partial a}$  is called Leibniz notation.
- Interpretations: instantaneous rate of change of g, slope of the tangent of g at a.

#### Gradient

■ The gradient of  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

i.e., a vector that gathers the partial derivatives of f.

Applying the definition of derivative coordinate-wise:

$$[\nabla f(\mathbf{x})]_j = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_j) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h} \quad j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_j = [0, 0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{1}_j, 0, \dots, 0]^\top \in \{0, 1\}^n$  is the  $j^{\text{th}}$  standard basis vector.

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# **Numerical gradient**

Finite difference:

$$[\nabla f(\mathbf{x})]_j = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon \mathbf{e}_j) - f(\mathbf{x})}{\varepsilon} \quad j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is a small value (e.g.,  $10^{-6}$ ).

Central finite difference:

$$[\nabla f(\mathbf{x})]_j = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon \mathbf{e}_j) - f(\mathbf{x} - \varepsilon \mathbf{e}_j)}{2\varepsilon} \quad j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

■ Computing  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$  approximately by (central) finite difference is n+1 times (2n times) as costly as evaluating f.

#### **Directional derivative**

■ Derivative of  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h} \in \mathbb{R}$$

- Interpretation: rate of change of f in the direction of v, when moving away from x.
- $[\nabla f(\mathbf{x})]_i$  is the derivative in the direction of  $\mathbf{e}_i$ .
- Finite difference (and similarly for the central finite difference):

$$D_{\mathbf{V}}f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon \mathbf{V}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{\varepsilon}$$

Only 2 calls to f are needed, i.e., independent of n.

#### **Directional derivative**

■ **Fact.** The directional derivative is equal to the scalar product between the gradient and **v**, i.e.,

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

**Proof.** Let  $g(t) = f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v})$ . We have

$$g'(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + (t+h)\mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v})}{h}$$

and therefore  $g'(0) = D_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x})$ . By the chain rule, we also have

$$g'(t) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}.$$

Hence,  $g'(0) = D_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$ .

### **Jacobian**

■ The Jacobian of  $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ 

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_1(\mathbf{x})^\top \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_m(\mathbf{x})^\top \end{bmatrix}$$

- The size of the Jacobian matrix is  $m \times n$ .
- The gradient's transpose is thus a "wide" Jacobian (m = 1).

## Jacobian vector product ("JVP")

**Right-multiply the Jacobian with a vector**  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_{1}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_{m}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_{1}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_{m}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{v})}{h}$$

Finite difference (and similarly for the central finite difference):

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v} \approx \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon \mathbf{v}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\varepsilon}$$

Computing the JVP approximately by (central) finite difference requires only 2 calls to f.

# **Vector Jacobian Product ("VJP")**

Left-multiply the Jacobian with a vector  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ 

$$u^{\top} \textit{J}_f(x) = u^{\top} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \textit{x}_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \textit{x}_n} \right] = \left[ u \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \textit{x}_1}, \dots, u \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \textit{x}_n} \right]$$

Finite difference (and similarly for the central finite difference):

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_i} \approx \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon \mathbf{e}_i) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})}{\varepsilon}$$

Computing the VJP approximately by (central) finite difference requires n + 1 calls (2n calls) to  $\mathbf{f}$ .

### **Outline**

- 1 Numerical differentiation
- Chain compositions
- 3 Computational graphs
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#### Chain rule

Let  $F(x) = f(g(x)) = f \circ g(x)$ , where  $f, g \colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then,

$$F'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

■ Alternatively, let y = g(x) and z = f(y), then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=g(x)} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x}$$

Let  $f(\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}))$ , where  $\mathbf{g} \colon \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $h \colon \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then,

$$\underbrace{\nabla f(\mathbf{x})}_{n \times 1} = \underbrace{(\nabla h(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}))^{\top}}_{1 \times d} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{g}}(\mathbf{x})}_{d \times n})^{\top} = \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{g}}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}}_{n \times d} \underbrace{\nabla h(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}))}_{d \times 1}$$

and similarly using Leibniz notation

# **Chain compositions**



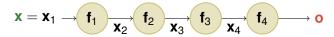
■ Assume  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  decomposes as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & o = f(x) \\ & = f_4 \circ f_3 \circ f_2 \circ f_1(x) \\ & = f_4(f_3(f_2(f_1(x)))) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{f}_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^{m_1}$ ,  $\mathbf{f}_2 : \mathbb{R}^{m_1} \to \mathbb{R}^{m_2}$ , ...,  $\mathbf{f}_4 : \mathbb{R}^{m_3} \to \mathbb{R}^m$ .

■ How to compute the Jacobian  $J_f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{0}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  efficiently?

#### Chain rule



Sequence of operations

$$\begin{aligned} & \textbf{x}_1 = \textbf{x} \\ & \textbf{x}_2 = \textbf{f}_1(\textbf{x}_1) \\ & \textbf{x}_3 = \textbf{f}_2(\textbf{x}_2) \\ & \textbf{x}_4 = \textbf{f}_3(\textbf{x}_3) \\ & \textbf{o} = \textbf{f}_4(\textbf{x}_4) \end{aligned}$$

By the chain rule, we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \\ &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_4(\mathbf{x}_3)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_3(\mathbf{x}_2)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{x}_1)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \\ &= J_{\mathbf{f}_4}(\mathbf{x}_4) J_{\mathbf{f}_3}(\mathbf{x}_3) J_{\mathbf{f}_2}(\mathbf{x}_2) J_{\mathbf{f}_1}(\mathbf{x}) \end{split}$$

- Recall that  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_j} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the  $j^{\text{th}}$  column of  $J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})$ .
- Jacobian vector product (JVP) with  $\mathbf{e}_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$  "reveals" the  $j^{\text{th}}$  column

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_{1} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_{1}}$$

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_{2} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_{2}}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_{n} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_{n}}$$

Computing a gradient (m = 1) requires n JVPs with  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ .

■ Jacobian-vector product with  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v} = \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_4}(\mathbf{x}_4)}_{m \times m_3} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_3}(\mathbf{x}_3)}_{m_3 \times m_2} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_2}(\mathbf{x}_2)}_{m_2 \times m_1} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_1}(\mathbf{x})}_{m_1 \times n} \mathbf{v}$$

Multiplication from right to left is more efficient.

Cost of computing n JVPs:

$$n(mm_3 + m_3m_2 + m_2m_1 + m_1n)$$

Cost of computing a gradient (m = 1,  $m_3 = m_2 = m_1 = n$ ):

$$O(n^3)$$

$$[J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})]_{:,j} = J_{\mathbf{f}_{\mathcal{K}}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}}) \dots J_{\mathbf{f}_{2}}(\mathbf{x}_{2}) J_{\mathbf{f}_{1}}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_{j} \qquad j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

#### Algorithm 1 Compute o = f(x) and $J_f(x)$ alongside

- 1: Input:  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2:  $\mathbf{x}_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{x}$
- 3:  $\mathbf{V}_j \leftarrow \mathbf{e}_j \in \mathbb{R}^n \ j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$
- 4: **for** k = 1 to K **do**
- 5:  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{x}_k)$
- 6:  $\mathbf{v}_j \leftarrow J_{\mathbf{f}_k}(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{v}_j \quad j \in \{1,\ldots,n\}$
- 7: end for
- 8: **Returns:**  $o = \mathbf{x}_{K+1}, [J_f(\mathbf{x})]_{:,j} = \mathbf{v}_j \ j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

#### **Backward differentiation**

- Recall that  $\nabla f_i(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of  $J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})$ .
- Vector Jacobian product (VJP) with  $\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$  "reveals" the  $i^{th}$  row

$$\mathbf{e}_{1}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f_{1}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}$$

$$\mathbf{e}_{2}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f_{2}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{e}_{m}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f_{m}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}$$

Computing a gradient (m = 1) requires only 1 VJP with  $\mathbf{e}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^1$ .

#### **Backward differentiation**

■ Vector Jacobian product with  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ 

$$\mathbf{u}^{\top} \underbrace{ \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_{4}}(\mathbf{x}_{4})}_{m \times m_{3}} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_{3}}(\mathbf{x}_{3})}_{m_{3} \times m_{2}} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_{2}}(\mathbf{x}_{2})}_{m_{2} \times m_{1}} \underbrace{J_{\mathbf{f}_{1}}(\mathbf{x})}_{m_{1} \times n}}_{\mathbf{x}_{1} \times n}$$

Multiplication from left to right is more efficient.

Cost of computing m VJPs:

$$m(mm_3 + m_3m_2 + m_2m_1 + m_1n)$$

Cost of computing a gradient (m = 1,  $m_3 = m_2 = m_1 = n$ ):

$$O(n^2)$$

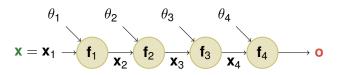
#### **Backward differentiation**

$$[J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})]_{i,:} = \mathbf{e}_{i}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}_{K}}(\mathbf{x}_{K}) \dots J_{\mathbf{f}_{2}}(\mathbf{x}_{2}) J_{\mathbf{f}_{1}}(\mathbf{x}) \qquad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$$

#### Algorithm 2 Compute o = f(x) and $J_f(x)$

- 1: Input:  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2:  $\mathbf{x}_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m \quad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$
- 3: **for** k = 1 to K **do**
- 4:  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{x}_k)$
- 5: end for
- 6: **for** k = K to 1 **do**
- 7:  $\mathbf{u}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{u}_i^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}_k}(\mathbf{x}_k) \quad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$
- 8: end for
- 9: **Returns:**  $\mathbf{o} = \mathbf{x}_{K+1}, [J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})]_{i,:} = \mathbf{u}_{i} \quad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$

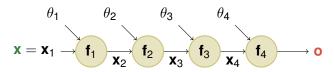
#### **Feedforward networks**



- Each function can now have two arguments:  $\mathbf{f}_{k}(\mathbf{x}_{k}, \theta_{k})$ , where  $\mathbf{x}_{k}$  is the previous output and  $\theta_{k}$  are learnable parameters.
- Example one hidden layer, one output layer, squared loss

$$\begin{split} \textbf{f} &= \textbf{f}_{4} \circ \cdots \circ \textbf{f}_{1} \\ \textbf{x}_{2} &= \textbf{f}_{1}(\textbf{x}, \, W_{1}) = \, W_{1}\textbf{x} \\ \textbf{x}_{3} &= \textbf{f}_{2}(\textbf{x}_{2}, \emptyset) = \text{relu}(\textbf{x}_{2}) \\ \textbf{x}_{4} &= \textbf{f}_{3}(\textbf{x}_{3}, \, W_{3}) = \, W_{3}\textbf{x}_{3} \\ \textbf{o} &= \textbf{f}_{4}(\textbf{x}_{4}, \textbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2}\|\textbf{x}_{4} - \textbf{y}\|^{2} \end{split}$$

# Feedforward network example



Applying the chain rule once again we have

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \theta_4} \\ &\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \theta_3} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \theta_3} \\ &\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \theta_2} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_3}{\partial \theta_2} \\ &\vdots \end{split}$$

■ Apart from the last multiplication, the Jacobians  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_k}$  and  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \theta_k}$  share the same computations!

# **Backprop for feedforward networks**

#### **Algorithm 3** Compute $\mathbf{o} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_K)$ and its Jacobians.

```
1: Input: \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_K
  2: \mathbf{X}_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{X}
  3: \mathbf{u}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m \quad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}
  4: for k = 1 to K do
  5: \mathbf{x}_{k+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{x}_k, \theta_k)
  6. end for
  7: for k = K to 1 do
  8: \mathbf{j}_{i,k} \leftarrow \mathbf{u}_i^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{x}_k, \theta_k)}{\partial \theta_k} \quad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}
          \mathbf{u}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{u}_i^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{x}_k, \theta_k)}{\partial \mathbf{v}_i} \quad i \in \{1, \dots, m\}
10: end for
11: Returns: \mathbf{o} = \mathbf{x}_{K+1}, \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}\right]_{i,:} = \mathbf{u}_i, \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \theta_k}\right]_{i,:} = \mathbf{j}_{i,k} \quad i \in \{1,\ldots,m\}, \ k \in \{1,\ldots,K\}
```

# **Examples of VJPs**

Let  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{a \times b}$ ,  $u \in \mathbb{R}^a$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^b$ .

- f(x) = g(x) (element-wise)
  - **f** maps  $\mathbb{R}^b$  to  $\mathbb{R}^b$
  - $J_f(x) = J_f(x)^\top = \text{diag}(g'(x))$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^b$  to  $\mathbb{R}^b$ , i.e.,  $b \times b$  matrix
  - $\mathbf{u}^{\top}J_{\mathbf{f}}(x)=J_{\mathbf{f}}(x)^{\top}u=u*g'(x)\in\mathbb{R}^{b},$  where \* means element-wise multiplication
- f(x) = Wx
  - **f** maps  $\mathbb{R}^b$  to  $\mathbb{R}^a$
  - $J_f(x) = W$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^b$  to  $\mathbb{R}^a$ , i.e.,  $a \times b$  matrix
  - $J_{\mathbf{f}}(x)^{\top} = W^{\top}$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^a$  to  $\mathbb{R}^b$ , i.e.,  $b \times a$  matrix
  - $\mathbf{U}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(x) = J_{\mathbf{f}}(x)^{\top} u = \mathbf{W}^{\top} u \in \mathbb{R}^{b}$

# **Examples of VJPs**

- f(W) = Wx
  - **f** maps  $\mathbb{R}^{a \times b}$  to  $\mathbb{R}^a$
  - $J_f(W)$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^{a \times b}$  to  $\mathbb{R}^a$ , i.e.,  $a \times (a \times b)$  matrix
  - $J_{\mathbf{f}}(W)^{\top}$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^a$  to  $\mathbb{R}^{a \times b}$ , i.e.,  $(a \times b) \times a$  matrix
  - $J_{\mathbf{f}}(W)^{\top}u = ux^{\top}$

VJPs make things easier when dealing with matrix or tensor inputs.

# **Summary: Forward vs. Backward**

#### Forward

- Uses Jacobian vector products (JVPs)
- Each JVP call builds one column of the Jacobian
- Efficient for tall Jacobians  $(m \ge n)$
- Need not store intermediate computations

#### Backward

- Uses vector Jacobian products (VJPs)
- Each VJP call builds one row of the Jacobian
- Efficient for wide matrices  $(m \le n)$
- Needs to store intermediate computations

# Machine learning use case

Most objectives in machine learning can be written in the form

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \ell_i(f_i(\mathbf{x}))$$

where  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^M$  and  $\ell_i: \mathbb{R}^M \to \mathbb{R}$ .

- The minimization needs to be w.r.t. a scalar valued loss.
- This corresponds to the m = 1 setting, for which backward differentiation is more efficient.
- This explains the immense success of reverse autodiff in machine learning.

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- 1 Numerical differentiation
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# **Computational graph**

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_2 e^{x_1} \sqrt{x_1 + x_2 e^{x_1}}$$

Operations in topological order

$$x_3 = f_3(x_1) = e^{x_1}$$

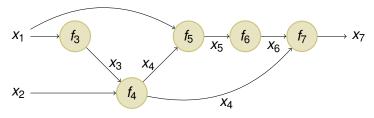
$$x_4 = f_4(x_2, x_3) = x_2 x_3$$

$$x_5 = f_5(x_1, x_4) = x_1 + x_4$$

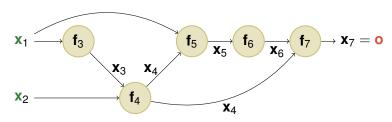
$$x_6 = f_6(x_5) = \sqrt{x_5}$$

$$x_7 = f_7(x_4, x_6) = x_4 x_6$$

Directed acyclic graph traversal



## Forward differentiation example



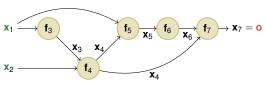
■ **x**<sub>4</sub> is influenced by **x**<sub>3</sub> and **x**<sub>2</sub>, therefore

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$

 $\mathbf{x}_7$  is influenced by  $\mathbf{x}_4$  and  $\mathbf{x}_6$ , therefore

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_6} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_6}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$

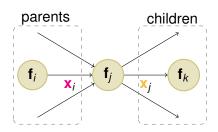
# Forward differentiation example



Recurse in topological order

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} &= \mathsf{Id}_n \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} &= \mathsf{Id}_n \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \\ \vdots \end{split}$$

Everything can be computed in terms of JVPs

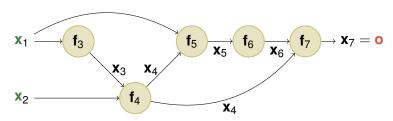


In the general case, we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_j}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} = \sum_{i \in \text{Parents}(j)} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_j}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$

- $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}$  is easy to compute as  $f_i$  is a direct function of  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .
- $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$  is obtained from the previous iterations in topological order.

## **Backward differentiation example**



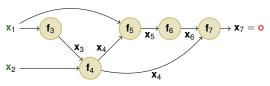
**x**<sub>5</sub> influences only **x**<sub>6</sub>, therefore

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_5} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_6} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_6}{\partial \mathbf{x}_5}$$

 $\mathbf{x}_4$  influences  $\mathbf{x}_5$  and  $\mathbf{x}_7$ , therefore

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_5} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_5}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_7} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}$$

## **Backward differentiation example**



Recurse in reverse topological order

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_7} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_7} = \mathrm{Id}_m$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_6} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_7} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_6}$$

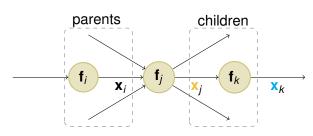
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_5} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_6} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_6}{\partial \mathbf{x}_5}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_5} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_5}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_7} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_7}{\partial \mathbf{x}_4}$$

$$\vdots$$

Everything can be computed in terms of VJPs

#### **Backward differentiation**



In the general case, we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_j} = \sum_{k \in \mathsf{Children}(j)} \frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_k} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_k}{\partial \mathbf{x}_j}$$

- $\frac{\partial \mathbf{o}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_k}$  is obtained from previous iterations (reverse topological order) and is known as "adjoint".
- $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_k}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}$  is easy to compute as  $f_k$  is a direct function of  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .

#### **Outline**

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- 2 Chain compositions
- 3 Computational graphs
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## Obtaining the computational graph

#### Ahead of time

- Read from source or abstract syntax tree (AST). Ex: Tangent.
- API for composing primitive operations (the graph is fully built before the program is evaluated). Ex: Tensorflow.

#### Just in time

 Tracing: monitor the program execution (the graph is built while the program is being executed). Ex: Tensorflow Eager, JAX, PyTorch.

```
import jax.numpy as jnp
from jax import grad

def add(a, b):
    return a + b

a = jnp.array([1, 2, 3])
b = jnp.array([4, 5, 6])
print(grad(add)(a, b))
```

# Key components of an implementation

- VJP for all primitive operations
- Node class
- Topological sort
- Forward pass
- Backward pass

We will now briefly review each component using a rudimentary implementation (mine;-)).

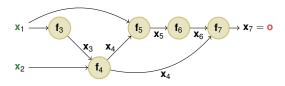
# **VJPs** for primitive operations

```
def dot(x, W):
 return np.dot(W, x)
def dot_make_vip(x, W):
  def vjp(u):
   return W.T.dot(u), np.outer(u, x)
  return vjp
dot.make_vjp = dot_make_vjp
def add(a, b):
 return a + b
def add_make_vjp(a, b):
  gprime = np.ones(len(a))
  def vjp(u):
   return u * gprime, u * gprime
 return vjp
add.make_vjp = add_make_vjp
```

#### Node class

```
class Node(object):
  def __init__(self, value=None, func=None, parents=None, name="")
    # Value stored in the node.
    self.value = value
    # Function producing the node.
    self.func = func
    # Inputs to the function.
    self.parents = [] if parents is None else parents
    # Unique name of the node (for debugging and hashing).
    self.name = name
    # Gradient / Jacobian.
    self.grad = 0
    if not name:
     raise ValueError("Each node must have a unique name.")
  def __hash__(self):
   return hash(self.name)
  def repr (self):
   return "Node(%s)" % self.name
```

#### **DAG**



```
def create_dag(x):
    x1 = Node(value=np.array([x[0]]), name="x1")
    x2 = Node(value=np.array([x[1]]), name="x2")
    x3 = Node(func=exp, parents=[x1], name="x3")
    x4 = Node(func=mul, parents=[x2, x3], name="x4")
    x5 = Node(func=add, parents=[x1, x4], name="x5")
    x6 = Node(func=sqrt, parents=[x5], name="x6")
    x7 = Node(func=mul, parents=[x4, x6], name="x7")
    return x7
```

A good implementation would support tracing, instead of building the DAG manually.

## **Topological sort**

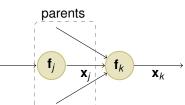
```
def dfs(node, visited):
 visited.add(node)
 for parent in node.parents:
   if not parent in visited:
      # Yield parent nodes first.
      yield from dfs(parent, visited)
  # And current node later
 vield node
def topological_sort(end_node):
 visited = set()
  sorted_nodes = []
  # All non-visited nodes reachable from end_node.
 for node in dfs(end_node, visited):
    sorted_nodes.append(node)
 return sorted_nodes
```

## **Forward pass**

```
def evaluate_dag(sorted_nodes):
   for node in sorted_nodes:
     if node.value is None:
       values = [p.value for p in node.parents]
       node.value = node.func(*values)
   return sorted_nodes[-1].value
```

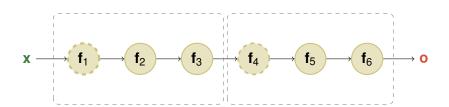
# **Backward pass**

```
def backward_diff_dag(sorted_nodes):
 value = evaluate_dag(sorted_nodes)
 m = value.shape[0] # Output size
  # Initialize recursion.
 sorted_nodes[-1].grad = np.eye(m)
 for node_k in reversed(sorted_nodes):
   if not node_k.parents:
      # We reached a node without parents.
      continue
    # Values of the parent nodes.
    values = [p.value for p in node_k.parents]
    # Iterate over outputs.
   for i in range(m):
      # A list of size len(values) containing the vjps.
      vjps = node_k.func.make_vjp(*values)(node_k.grad[i])
      for node_j, vjp in zip(node_k.parents, vjps):
        node_j.grad += vjp
```

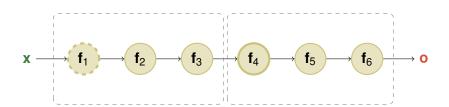


return sorted\_nodes

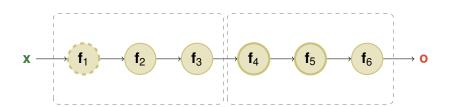
- During the forward pass, save computations at intermediate locations only (checkpoints).
- During the backward pass, recompute other locations on the fly, starting from the checkpoints.
- Tradeoff between memory and computation time.



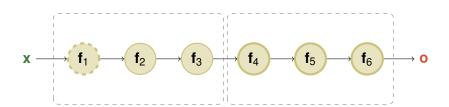
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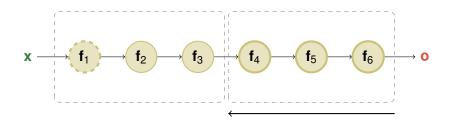
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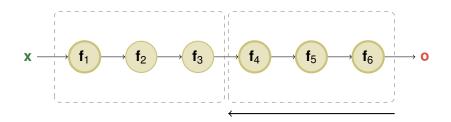
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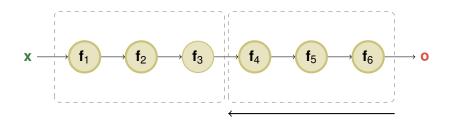
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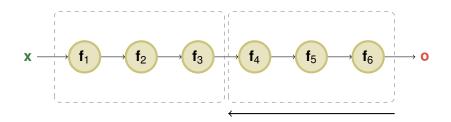
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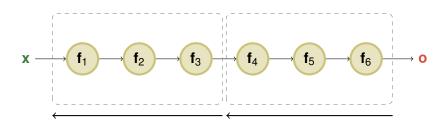
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#### **JAX**

- Automatic differentiation (grad)
- Just-in-time compilation (jit)
- NumPy and SciPy compatible
- Automatic vectorization (vmap)
- Code transformations are composable
- Actively developed by Google
- Gaining a lot of popularity among ML and science researchers



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#### Hessian

The matrix gathering second-order derivatives

$$\nabla^{2} f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1}^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{n}} \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{n} \partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{n} \partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{n}^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Hessian vector product = gradient of directional derivative

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v} = \nabla(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v})$$

JAX supports fully closed tracing: we can "trace through tracing"

# **Recovering JVPs from VJPs**

- Suppose we already have a VJP routine for computing  $\mathbf{u}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})$
- By linearity we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{u}} = J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}$$

and therefore

$$\mathbf{v}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{v}^{\top} J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} = (J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v})^{\top}$$

- The VJP w.r.t. u of the VJP w.r.t. x is equal to the transopose of the JVP w.r.t. x.
- The trick does not work in the other direction!

Consider the function

$$f(\theta) = \min_{\mathbf{x}} E(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = E(\mathbf{x}^{\star}(\theta), \theta)$$

From Danskin's theorem (a.k.a. envelope theorem)

$$\nabla f(\theta) = \nabla_2 E(x^*(\theta), \theta)$$

where  $\nabla_2$  indicates the gradient w.r.t. the second argument.

Informally, the theorem says that we can treat  $x^*(\theta)$  as if it did not depend on  $\theta$ .

Now, consider the function

$$x^*(\theta) = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} E(x, \theta)$$
  
 $f(\theta) = L(x^*(\theta), \theta)$ 

By the chain rule, we have

$$\nabla f(\theta) = (J \, X^{\star}(\theta))^{\top} \nabla_{1} L(X^{\star}(\theta), \theta) + \nabla_{2} L(X^{\star}(\theta), \theta)$$

■ How to compute  $J x^*(\theta) = \frac{\partial x^*(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$ ?

# **Fixed points**

Consider the following fixed point iteration

$$x^*(\theta) = g(x^*(\theta), \theta) \Leftrightarrow h(x^*(\theta), \theta) = 0$$

where 
$$h(x, \theta) = x - g(x, \theta)$$

By the implicit function theorem

$$J x^{\star}(\theta) = -(J_1 h(x^{\star}(\theta), \theta))^{-1} J_2 h(x^{\star}(\theta), \theta)$$

where  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  are the Jacobians w.r.t. the 1st and 2nd variables

Recall that

$$x^*(\theta) = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} E(x, \theta)$$

We have the fixed point iteration (gradient descent)

$$\mathbf{X}^{\star}(\theta) = \mathbf{X}^{\star}(\theta) - \nabla_{1}\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{X}^{\star}(\theta), \theta)$$

Choosing  $h(x, \theta) = \nabla_1 E(x, \theta)$ , we get

$$J x^{*}(\theta) = -(J_{1}\nabla_{1}E(x^{*}(\theta), \theta))^{-1}J_{2}\nabla_{1}E(x^{*}(\theta), \theta)$$
$$= -(\nabla_{1}^{2}E(x^{*}(\theta), \theta))^{-1}J_{2}\nabla_{1}E(x^{*}(\theta), \theta)$$

In practice, we need to replace  $x^*(\theta)$  by an approximate solution.

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Example: hyper-parameter optimization for ridge regression

$$E(x,\theta) = \frac{1}{2} ||Ax - b||^2 + \frac{\theta}{2} ||x||^2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\nabla_1 E(x,\theta) = A^{\top} (Ax - b) + \theta x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$$\nabla_1^2 E(x,\theta) = A^{\top} A + \theta I \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

$$J_2 \nabla_1 E(x,\theta) = x \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$$

$$x^*(\theta) = (A^{\top} A + \theta I)^{-1} A^{\top} b$$

lacksquare J  $x^{\star}(\theta)$  is therefore obtained by solving the following linear system

$$(A^{\top}A + \theta I)[J \ X^{\star}(\theta)] = -X^{\star}(\theta)$$

■ An alternative idea to obtain  $J x^*(\theta)$  is to to backpropagate through gradient descent:

$$\mathbf{x}^{t+1}(\theta) = \mathbf{x}^{t}(\theta) - \eta_t \nabla_1 \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}^{t}(\theta), \theta)$$

- No longer needs to solve a linear system...
- ...but needs to store intermediate iterates  $x^t(\theta)$  or checkpoints
- Possibility to use truncated backpropagation
- Possibility to use reversible dynamics in some cases

# Inference in graphical models

Gibbs distribution

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = y; \theta) \propto \exp(y \cdot \theta)$$

where  $y \in \mathcal{Y} \subset \{0,1\}^n$ 

Log-partition function

$$f(\theta) = \log \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(y \cdot \theta)$$

Fact.

$$(\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1; \theta))_{i=1}^n = \mathbb{E}[Y] = \nabla f(\theta)$$

If we know how to compute  $f(\theta)$ , we can get expectations / marginal probabilities by autodiff! Recovers forward-backward algorithms as special case. For a proof, see e.g. this paper.

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## **Summary**

- Automatic differentiation is one of the keys that enabled the deep learning "revolution".
- Backward / reverse differentiation is more efficient when the function has more inputs than outputs.
- Which is the de-facto setting in machine learning!
- Even if you use Tensorflow / JAX / PyTorch, implementing a rudimentary autodiff library is a very good exercise.

#### References

The following tutorials have been a great inspiration:

- Automatic Differentiation, Matthew Johnson, Deep Learning Summer School Montreal, 2017.
- Differential programming, Gabriel Peyré, Mathematical Coffees, 2018.

Two minimalist implementations of autodiff:

- Autodidact, by Matthew Johnson.
- Micrograd, by Andrej Karpathy.