Sparser, better, faster, stronger

Automatic differentiation with a lot of zeros

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Agenda

1. Motivation
2. Automatic differentiation
3. Leveraging sparsity
4. Implementation

Motivation

Newton's method

Root-finding

Solve $F(x) = 0$ by iterating

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \underbrace{[\partial F(x_t)]}_{\text{Jacobian}}^{-1} F(x_t)$$

Optimization

Solve $\min_x f(x)$ by iterating

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \underbrace{\left[\nabla^2 f(x_t)\right]}_{\text{Hessian}}^{-1} \nabla f(x_t)$$

Linear system involving a derivative matrix A.

Implicit differentiation

Differentiate $x \mapsto y(x)$ knowing **conditions** $c(x, y(x)) = 0$.

Applications: fixed-point iterations, optimization problems.

Implicit function theorem:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} c(x, y(x)) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(x, y(x)) \cdot \partial y(x) = 0$$

$$\partial y(x) = -\underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(x, y(x))\right]^{-1}}_{\text{Jacobian}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} c(x, y(x))$$

Linear system involving a derivative matrix A.

Linear systems of equations

How to solve $Au = v$?

Direct method (LU, Cholesky)

1. Decompose the matrix A.
2. Get an exact solution by substitution.

Requires storing A explicitly.

Iterative method (CG, GMRES)

1. Rephrase as $\min_u \|Au - v\|^2$.
2. Get an approximate solution.

Only requires matrix-vector products $u \mapsto Au$.

Conventional wisdom

- Jacobian and Hessian matrices are **too large** to compute or store
- We can only access linear maps $u \mapsto Au$ (JVPs, VJPs, HVPs)
- Linear systems $A^{-1}v$ must be solved with **iterative methods**
- Downsides: each iteration is expensive, convergence is tricky

The benefits of sparsity

- Jacobian and Hessian matrices have **mostly zero coefficients**
- We can compute and store A explicitly
- Linear systems $A^{-1}v$ can be solved with iterative **or direct** methods
- Upsides: faster iterations or exact solves, efficient linear algebra

Automatic differentiation

Differentiation

Given $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, its **differential** $\partial f(x)$ is the **linear map** that best approximates f around x:

$$f(x + u) = f(x) + \partial f(x)[u] + o(u)$$

It can be represented by the Jacobian **matrix**, which I will denote by $\partial_{\text{mat}} f(x)$ instead.

Numeric differentiation

input	output
program computing the function $x \mapsto f(x)$	approximation of the differential with the same program $\partial f(x)[u] \approx \frac{f(x+\varepsilon u) - f(x)}{\varepsilon}$

Automatic / algorithmic differentiation

input	output
program computing the function $x \mapsto f(x)$	new program computing the exact differential $(x, u) \mapsto \partial f(x)[u]$ or $\partial f(x)^*[u]$

AD under the hood

Two ingredients only:

1. hardcode basic derivatives (+, ×, exp, log, ...)
2. handle composition $f = g \circ h$

Composition

For a function $f = g \circ h$, the **chain rule** gives its differential:

$$\text{standard} \qquad \partial f(x) = \partial g(h(x)) \circ \partial h(x)$$

$$\text{adjoint} \qquad \partial f(x)^* = \partial h(x)^* \circ \partial g(h(x))^*$$

These linear maps apply as follows:

$$\text{forward} \qquad \partial f(x) : u \xrightarrow{\partial h(x)} v \xrightarrow{\partial g(h(x))} w$$

$$\text{reverse} \qquad \partial f(x)^* : u \xleftarrow[\partial h(x)^*]{} v \xleftarrow[\partial g(h(x))^*]{} w$$

Why linear maps?

The chain rule has a matrix equivalent:

$$\partial_{\text{mat}}(g \circ h)(x) = \partial_{\text{mat}} g(h(x)) \cdot \partial_{\text{mat}} h(x)$$

$$\partial_{\text{mat}}(g \circ h)(x)^T = \partial_{\text{mat}} h(x)^T \cdot \partial_{\text{mat}} g(h(x))^T$$

Working with linear maps avoids allocation and manipulation of **intermediate Jacobian matrices**.

Essential for neural networks!

Pocket AD

```
# Basic rules

using LinearAlgebra

A, b = rand(2, 3), rand(2)
residuals(x) = A * x - b
∂(::typeof(residuals)) = x → (u → A * u)  # ℝ³ → ℝ²
∂ᵀ(::typeof(residuals)) = x → (v → adjoint(A) * v)  # ℝ² → ℝ³

sqnorm(r) = sum(abs2, r)
∂(::typeof(sqnorm)) = r → (v → dot(2r, v))  # ℝ² → ℝ
∂ᵀ(::typeof(sqnorm)) = r → (w → 2r .* w)  # ℝ → ℝ²
```

Pocket AD

```
# Composition

function ∂(f::ComposedFunction)
    g, h = f.outer, f.inner
    return x → ∂(g)(h(x)) ∘ ∂(h)(x)
end

function ∂ᵀ(f::ComposedFunction)
    g, h = f.outer, f.inner
    return x → ∂ᵀ(h)(x) ∘ ∂ᵀ(g)(h(x))
end
```

Pocket AD

```
julia> import ForwardDiff as FD, Zygote

julia> f = sqnorm ∘ residuals;

julia> x, Δx = rand(3), [1, 0, 0];
```

```
julia> ∂(f)(x)(Δx)  # partial derivative
0.8691056836969242

julia> ∂ᵀ(f)(x)(1)  # gradient
3-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.8691056836969242
 0.9973491983376236
 0.5768822265195823
```

```
julia> FD.derivative(t → f(x + t * Δx), 0)
0.8691056836969242

julia> Zygote.gradient(f, x)[1]
3-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.8691056836969242
 0.9973491983376236
 0.5768822265195823
```

Two modes

Forward-mode AD computes Jacobian-Vector Products (**JVPs**) = "pushforward" of an **input perturbation**:

$$u \mapsto \partial f(x)[u] = Ju$$

Reverse-mode AD computes Vector-Jacobian Products (**VJPs**) = "pullback" of an **output sensitivity**:

$$v \mapsto \partial f(x)^*[v] = J^T v = v^T J$$

Theorem (Baur-Strassen): cost of 1 JVP or VJP $\propto$ cost of 1 function evaluation

What about gradients?

Reverse mode computes **gradients for roughly the same cost** as the function itself:

$$\nabla f(x) = \partial f(x)^*[1]$$

Makes deep learning possible.

The devil is in the details: higher memory footprint.

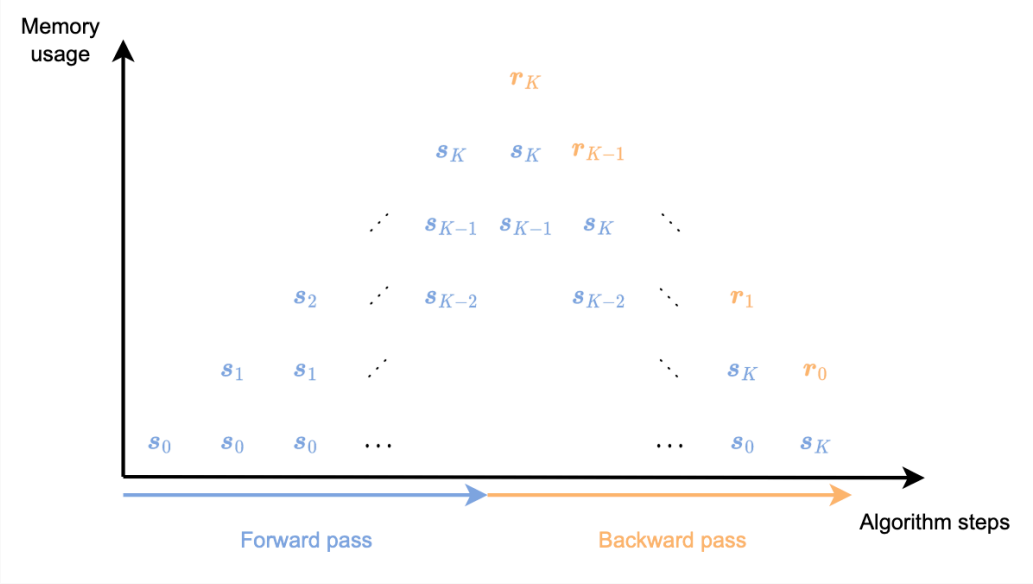


Figure 1: Blondel & Roulet (2024)

What about second order?

The Hessian matrix is the Jacobian matrix of the gradient function.

A Hessian-Vector Product (HVP) can be computed as the JVP of a VJP, in **forward-over-reverse mode**[2]:

$$\nabla^2 f(x)[v] = \partial(\nabla f)(x)[v] = \partial(\partial^* f(x)[1])[v]$$

[2] Pearlmutter (1994)

Leveraging sparsity

From maps to matrices

To compute the Jacobian matrix J of a composition $f : \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$:

- ~~product of intermediate Jacobian matrices~~
- reconstruction from several JVPs or VJPs

	forward mode	**reverse mode**
idea	1 JVP gives 1 column	1 VJP gives 1 row
formula	$J_{\cdot,j} = \partial f(x)[e_j]$	$J_{i,\cdot} = \partial f(x)^*[e_i]$
cost	n JVPs (input dimension)	m VJPs (output dimension)

Using fewer products

When the Jacobian is sparse, we can compute it faster[3].

If columns $j_1, \ldots, j_k$ of J are structurally **orthogonal** (their nonzeros never overlap), we deduce them all from a single JVP:

$$J_{j_1} + \ldots + J_{j_k} = \partial f(x)\left[e_{j_1} + \ldots + e_{j_k}\right]$$

Once we have grouped columns, sparse AD has two steps:

3. one JVP for each group $c = \{j_1, \ldots, j_k\}$
4. decompression into individual columns $j_1, \ldots, j_k$

[3]Curtis et al. (1974)

Two preliminary steps

When grouping columns, we want to

- guarantee orthogonality (correctness) ⇒ pattern detection
- form the smallest number of groups (efficiency) ⇒ coloring

preparation	**execution**
1. pattern detection 2. coloring	3. matrix-vector products 4. decompression

The preparation phase can be **amortized** across several inputs.

The gist in one slide

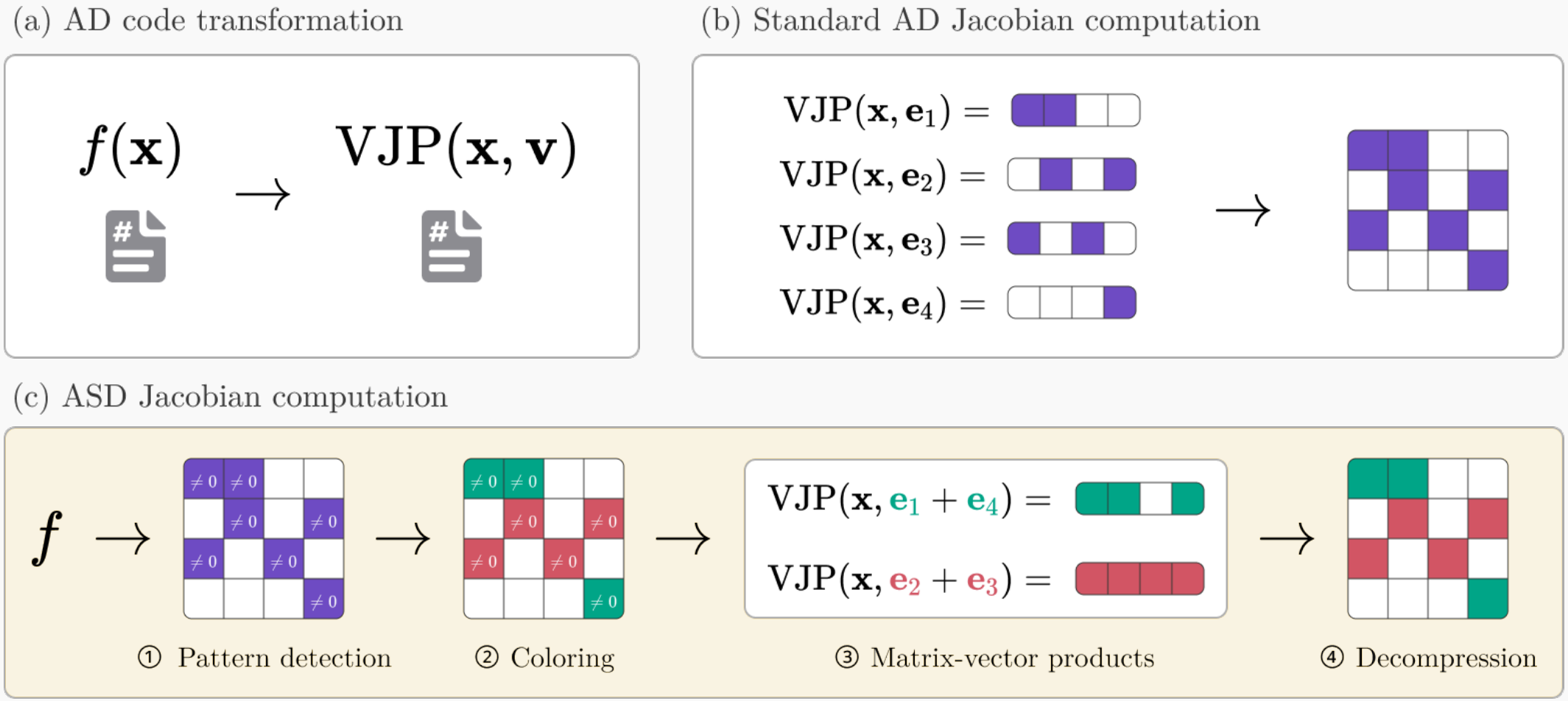
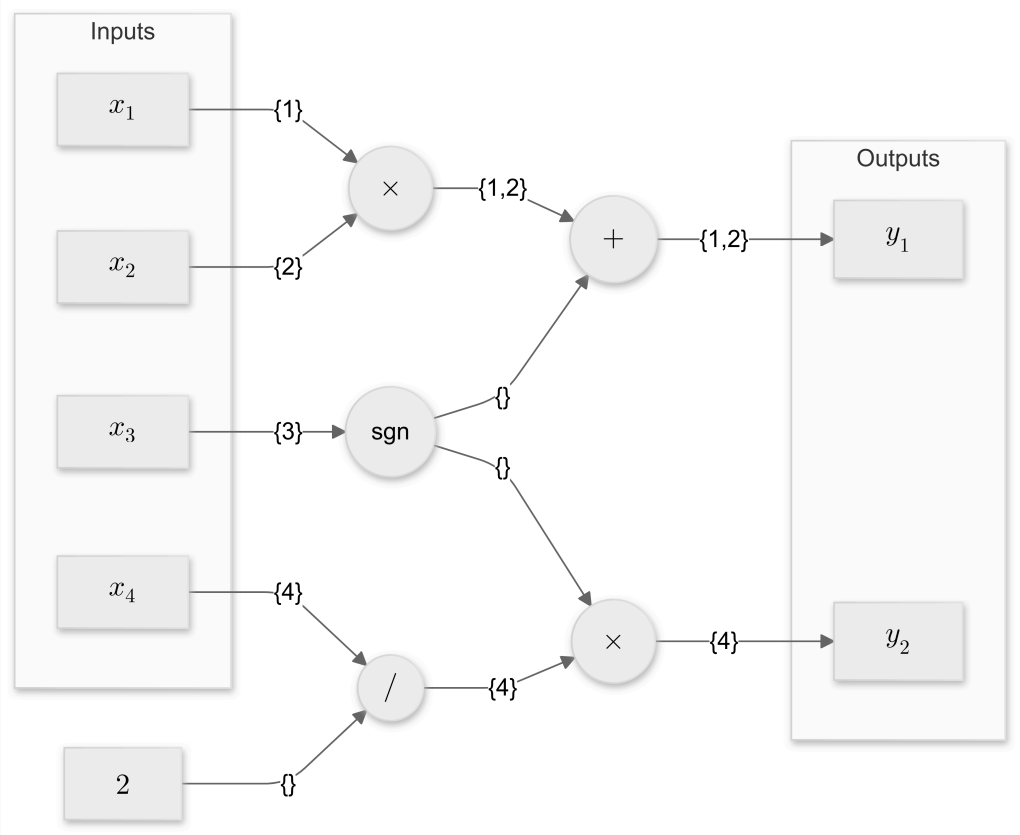


Figure 2: Hill & Dalle (2025)

Tracing dependencies in the computation graph



Computation graph for

$$y_1 = x_1 x_2 + \text{sign}(x_3)$$

$$y_2 = \text{sign}(x_3) \times \left(\frac{x_4}{2}\right)$$

Its Jacobian matrix will have 3 nonzero coefficients:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pocket pattern detection

```
import Base: +, *, /, sign

struct Tracer
  indices::Set{Int}
end

Tracer() = Tracer(Set{Int}())

+(a::Tracer, b::Tracer) = Tracer(a.indices ∪ b.indices)
*(a::Tracer, b::Tracer) = Tracer(a.indices ∪ b.indices)
/(a::Tracer, b::Real) = Tracer(a.indices)
sign(a::Tracer) = Tracer()  # zero derivatives
```

Pocket pattern detection

```
julia> f(x) = [x[1] * x[2] * sign(x[3]), sign(x[3]) * x[4] / 2];

julia> x = Tracer.(Set.([1, 2, 3, 4]))
4-element Vector{Tracer}:
 Tracer(Set([1]))
 Tracer(Set([2]))
 Tracer(Set([3]))
 Tracer(Set([4]))

julia> f(x)
2-element Vector{Tracer}:
 Tracer(Set([2, 1]))
 Tracer(Set([4]))
```

Coloring for Jacobians

Matrix problem

Orthogonal partition of the columns of A.

If $A_{ij_1} \neq 0$ and $A_{i,j_2} \neq 0$, then columns j_1 and j_2 are in different groups $c(j_1) \neq c(j_2)$

Graph problem

Partial distance-2 coloring of a bipartite graph $G = (\mathcal{I} \cup \mathcal{J}, \mathcal{E})$

If $(i, j_1) \in \mathcal{E}$ and $(i, j_2) \in \mathcal{E}$, then vertices j_1 and j_2 have different colors $c(j_1) \neq c(j_2)$.

These are equivalent[4] if we define the graph representation

$$\mathcal{E} = \{(i, j) \in \mathcal{I} \times \mathcal{J} : A_{i,j} \neq 0\}$$

[4] Gebremedhin et al. (2005)

Coloring for Jacobians, illustrated

Coloring of intersection graph / distance-2 coloring of bipartite graph

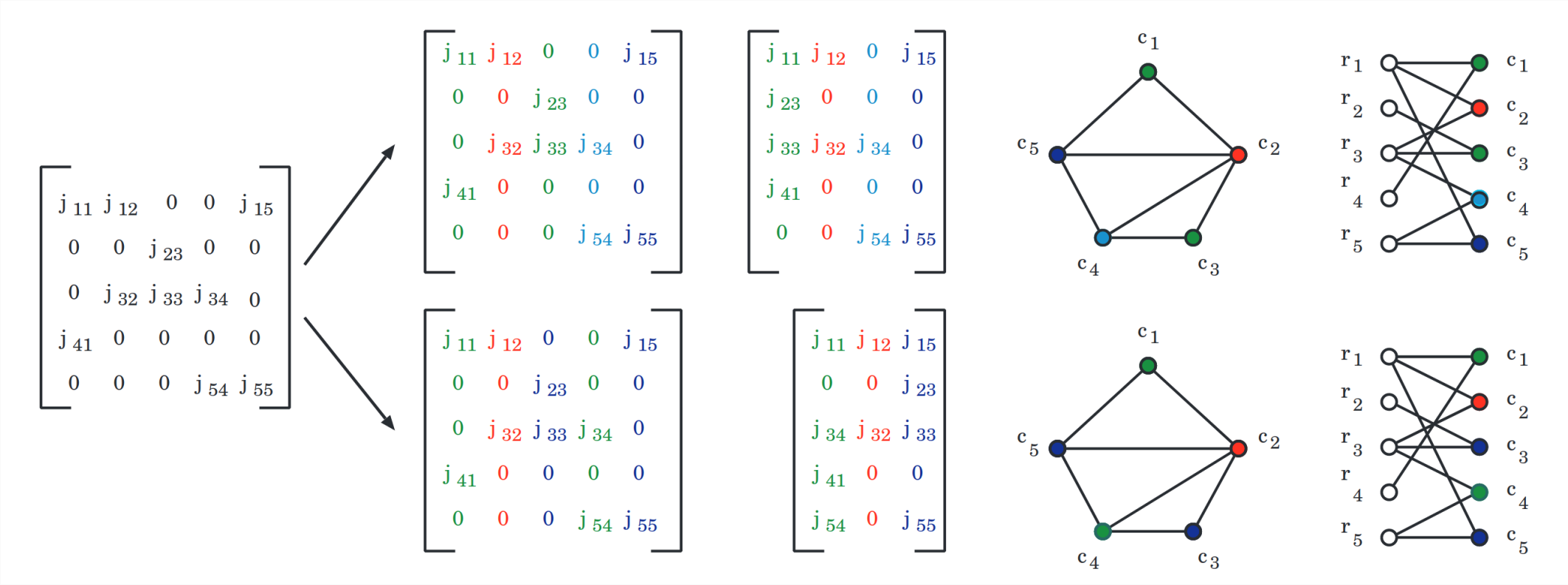
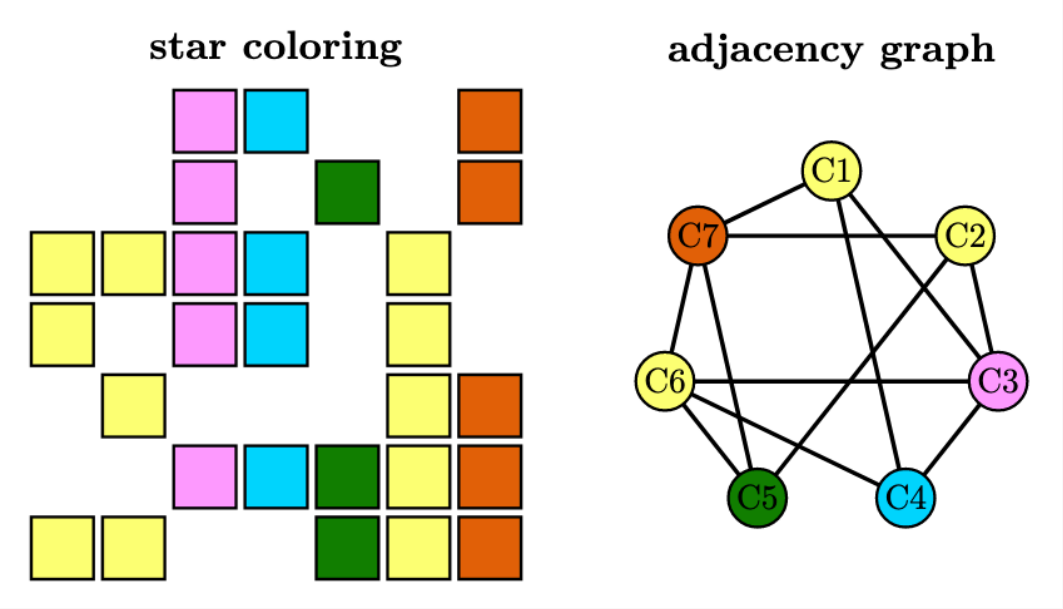


Figure 4: Gebremedhin et al. (2005)

Coloring for Hessians

What if our matrix has structure, like $A_{i,j} = A_{j,i}$?

We can compute a slightly different coloring[5] with fewer colors.

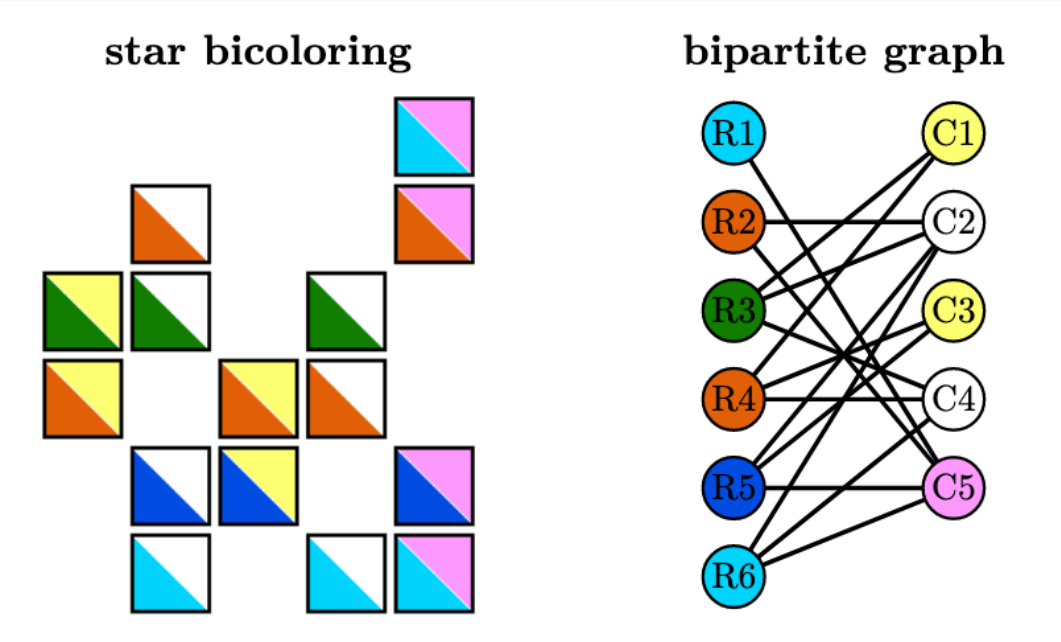


[5] Coleman & Moré (1984)

Coloring for bidirectional Jacobians

What if the columns are not orthogonal enough?

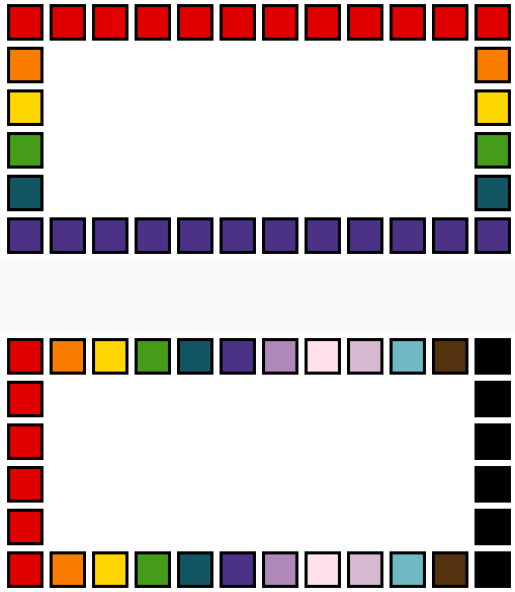
We can use both rows and columns[6] inside our coloring.



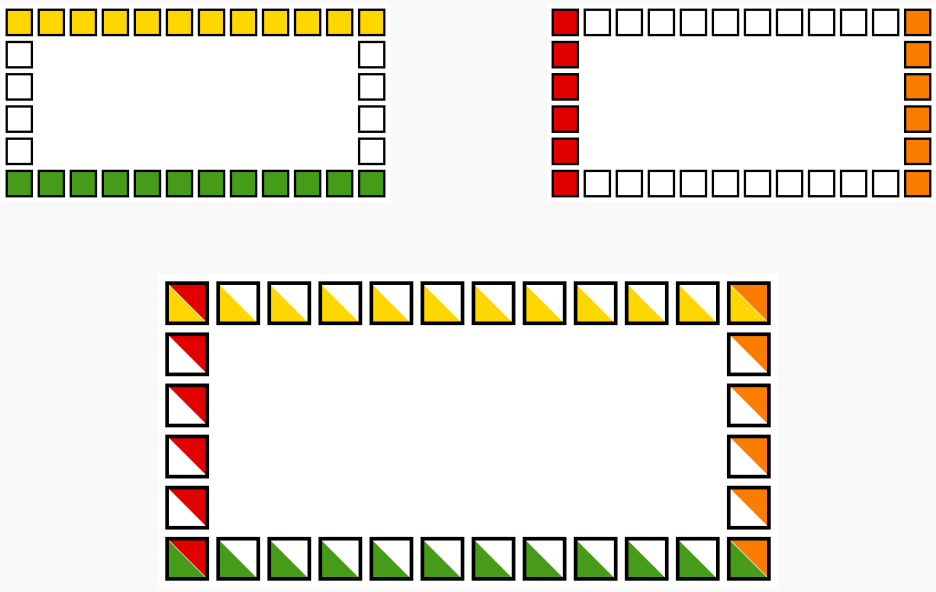
[6] Coleman & Verma (1998)

Benefits of bidirectional coloring

Compute Jacobians with a dense row **and** a dense column, using forward-mode AD + reverse-mode AD.



Unidirectional



Bidirectional

From bidirectional to symmetric [new]

To color the rows and columns of J, color the columns of $H = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & J \\ J & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

It sounds simple, but:

- Some colors may be redundant
- Detecting these is tightly linked to the two-colored structures
- Efficient decompression requires lots of preprocessing

Explanations and benchmarks in Montoison et al. (2025)

The sharp bits

Pattern detection

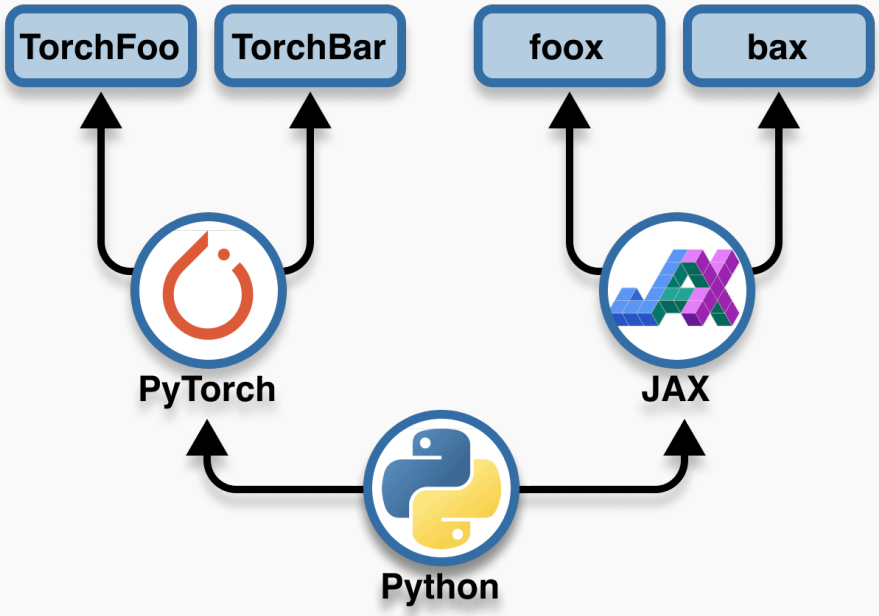
- Local versus global sparsity
- Control flow
- Linear and nonlinear interactions

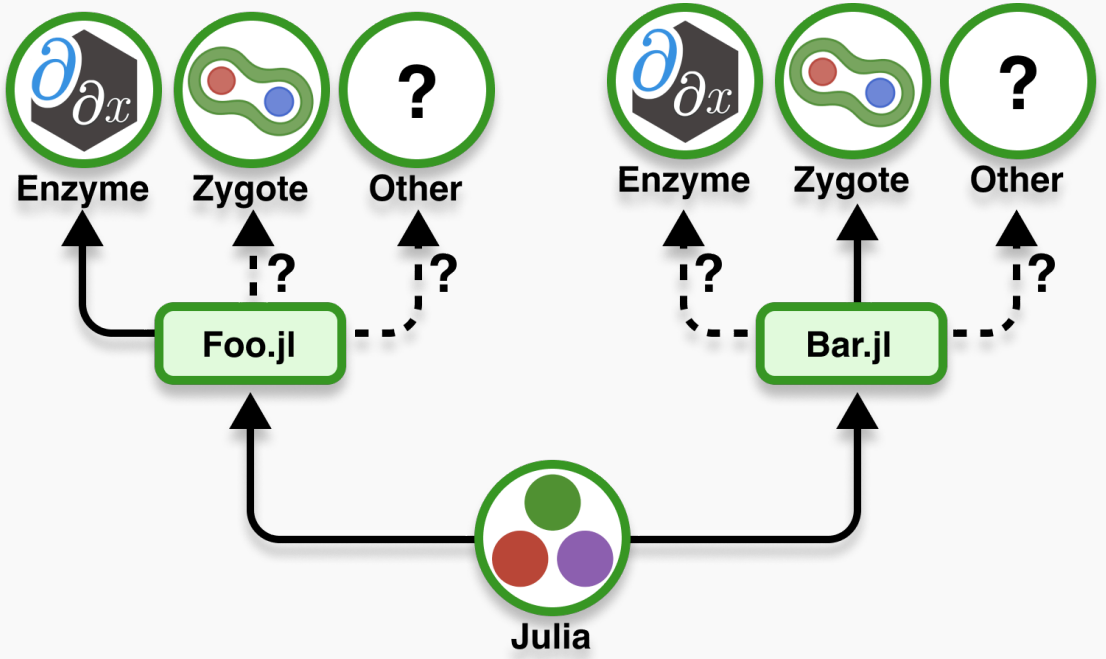
Coloring

- Only heuristic algorithms
- Vertex ordering matters a lot

Implementation

AD in Python & Julia





Interfaces for experimenting [new]

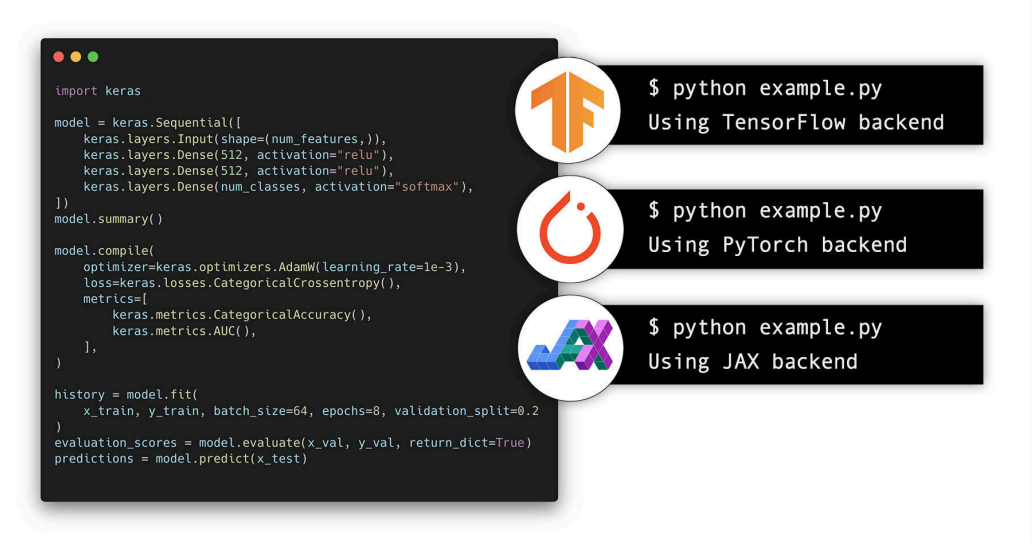


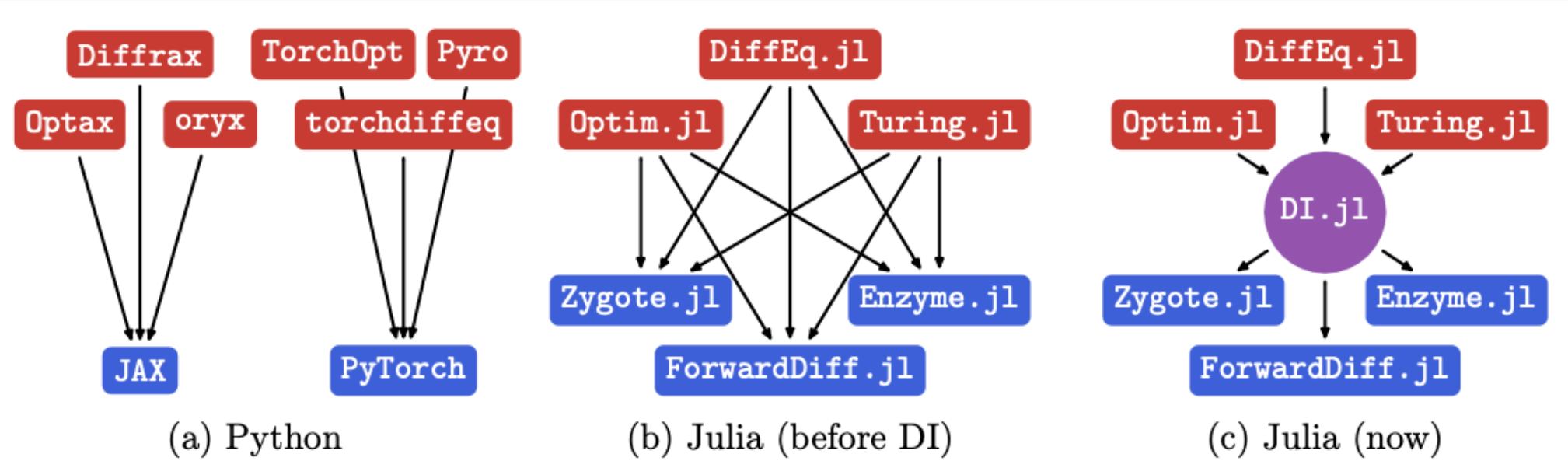
Figure 8: In Python, `Keras` supports Tensorflow, PyTorch and JAX.

Figure 9: In Julia, 14 AD backends inside `Differentiationterface.jl`

Once we have a common syntax, we can do more!

One API to rule them all

Decouple the scientific libraries from the AD underneath.



(a) Python (b) Julia (before DI) (c) Julia (now)

Previous implementations of sparse AD

- In low-level programming languages (C, Fortran)
- In closed-source languages (Matlab)
- In domain-specific languages (AMPL, CasADi)

Basically nothing in Python (either in JAX or PyTorch).

First drafts in Julia for scientific machine learning, but severely limited: single-backend, slow.

A modern sparse AD ecosystem [new]

Independent packages working together:

- Step 1: `SparseConnectivityTracer.jl` (Hill & Dalle, 2025)
- Steps 2 & 4: `SparseMatrixColorings.jl` (Montoison et al., 2025)
- Step 3: `Differentiationterface.jl` (Dalle & Hill, 2025)

	`SCT.jl`	`SMC.jl`	`DI.jl`
lines of code	5202	5184	19980
indirect dependents	461	487	896
downloads / month	7.8k	9.7k	33k

Compatible with generic code!

Impact

Users already include...

- Scientific computing: `SciML` (Julia's `scipy`)
  - Differential equations
  - Nonlinear solvers
  - Optimization
- Probabilistic programming: `Turing.jl`
- Symbolic regression: `PySR`

Live demo

This is the part where things go sideways.

Perspectives

- GPU-compatible pattern detection and coloring
- Pattern detection in JAX with program transformations
- New, unsuspected applications “just because we can”

Going further

On general AD:

- Baydin et al. (2018)
- Margossian (2019)
- Blondel & Roulet (2024)

On sparse AD:

- Gebremedhin et al. (2005)
- Griewank & Walther (2008)
- Hill et al. (2025)

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