## Calculus Refresher

CMPUT 261: Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

GBC §4.1, 4.3

# Lecture Outline

- Recap
- Gradient-based Optimization & Gradients 2.
- 3. Numerical Issues

After this lecture, you should be able to:

- lacksquare
- $\bullet$

 Apply the chain rule of calculus to functions of one or multiple arguments Explain the advantages and disadvantages of the method of differences Describe the numerical problems with softmax and how to solve them Explain why log probabilities are more numerically stable than probabilities

# Loss Minimization

**Example:** Predict the **temperature** 

- Dataset: temperatures  $y^{(i)}$  from a random sample of days
- Hypothesis class: Always predict the same value  $\mu$
- Loss function:

 $L(\mu) = -$ 

#### In supervised learning, we choose a hypothesis to minimize a loss function

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \mu)^2$$

# Optimization

#### **Optimization:** finding a value of x that minimizes f(x)

• Temperature example: Find  $\mu$  that makes  $L(\mu)$  small

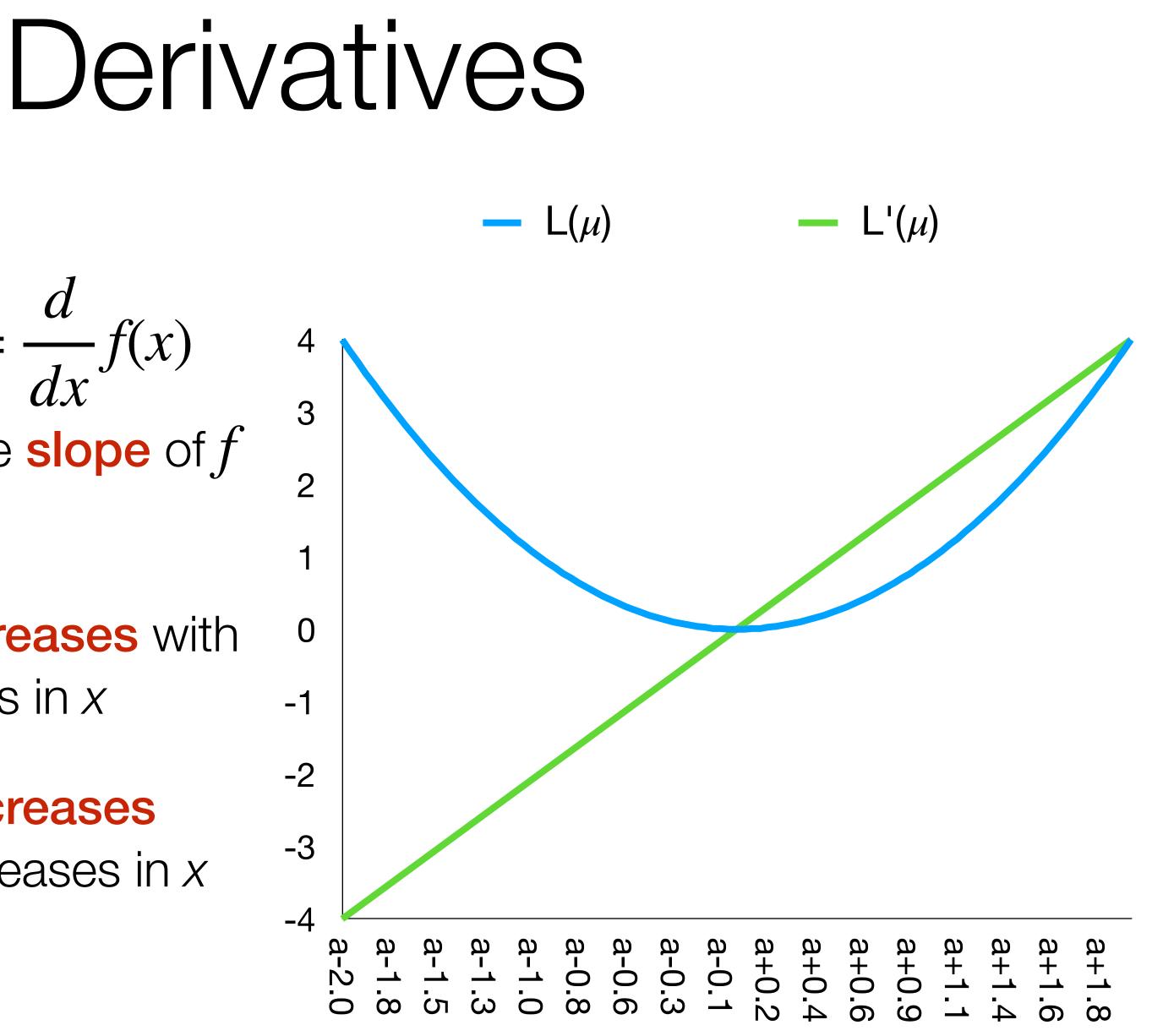
makes f(x) smaller

- For **discrete** domains, this is just **hill climbing**: Iteratively choose the **neighbour** that has minimum f(x)
- For **continuous** domains, neighbourhood is less well-defined

- $x^* = \arg\min f(x)$

**Gradient descent:** Iteratively move from current estimate in the direction that

- The derivative  $f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f(x)$ of a function f(x) is the **slope** of fat point x
- When f'(x) > 0, f increases with small enough increases in x
- When f'(x) < 0, f decreases with small enough increases in x



# Multiple Inputs

#### **Example:**

Predict the temperature **based on** pressure and humidity

• Dataset:  

$$\left(x_1^{(1)}, x_2^{(1)}, y^{(1)}\right), \dots, \left(x_1^{(m)}, x_2^{(m)}, y^{(m)}\right) = \left\{\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\right) \mid 1 \le i \le m\right\}$$

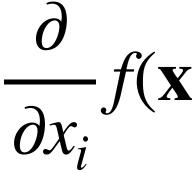
- Hypothesis class: Linear regression:  $h(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2$
- Loss function: lacksquare

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{(i)} - h(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \mathbf{w}) \right)^2$$

## Partial Derivatives

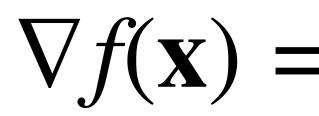
**Partial derivatives:** How much does  $f(\mathbf{x})$  change when we only change one of its inputs  $x_i$ ?

Can think of this as the derivative of a **conditional** function  $\bullet$  $g(x_i) = f(x_1, ..., X_i, ..., x_n)$ :

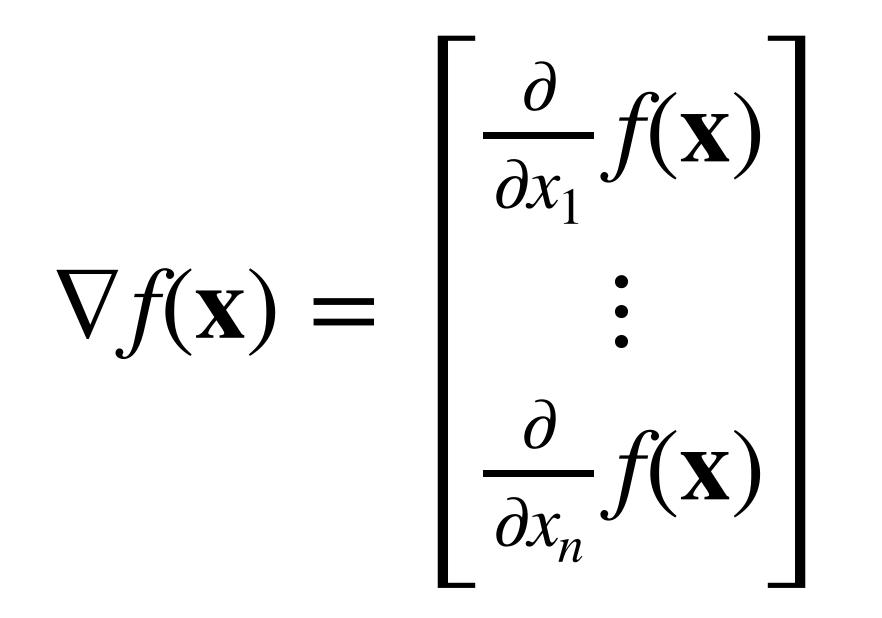


 $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{d}{dx_i} g(x_i).$ 

#### • The gradient of a function $f(\mathbf{x})$ is just a vector that contains all of its partial derivatives:



### Gradient



# Gradient Descent

- The gradient of a function tells how to change every element of a vector to **increase** the function
  - If the partial derivative of  $x_i$  is positive, increase  $x_i$

#### **Gradient descent:**

Iteratively choose new values of x in the (opposite) direction of the gradient:

- This only works for sufficiently small changes (why?)
- Question: How much should we change  $\mathbf{x}^{old}$ ?

 $\mathbf{x}^{new} = \mathbf{x}^{old} - \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{old}) \ .$ learning rate

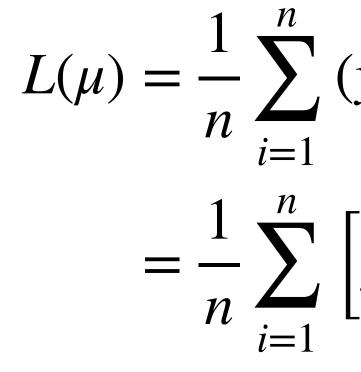


## Where Do Gradients Come From?

**Question:** How do we compute the gradients we need for gradient descent?

- Analytic expressions / direct derivation
- 2. Method of differences
- 3. The Chain Rule (of Calculus)

#### Analytic Expressions: 1D Derivatives



 $\frac{d}{d\mu}L(\mu) = \frac{1}{n}$ 

$$(y(i) - \mu)^2$$

$$\left[y(i)^2 - 2y(i)\mu + \mu^2\right]$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ -2y(i) + 2\mu \right]$$

### Analytic Expressions: Multiple Arguments

To analytically find the **gradient** of a multi-input function, find the **partial derivative** for each of the inputs (and then collect in a vector).

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{(i)} - \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \right)^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y^{(i)} - w_{1} x_{1}^{(i)} - w_{2} x_{1}^{(i)} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{1}^{2} x_{1}^{(i)2} + 2w_{1} w_{2} x_{1}^{(i)2}$$

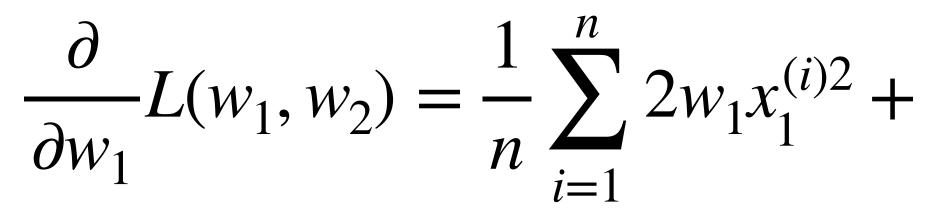
 $(x_2^{(i)})^2$ 

 $x_2^{(i)} - 2w_1 x_1^{(i)} y + w_2^2 x_2^{(i)2} - 2w_2 x_2^{(i)} y + y^2$ 

### Analytic Expressions: Multiple Arguments

To analytically find the **gradient** of a multi-input function, find the **partial derivative** for each of the inputs (and then collect in a vector).

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_1^2 x_1^{(i)2} + 2w_1 w_2 x_1^{(i)} x_2^{(i)} - 2w_1 x_1^{(i)} y + w_2^2 x_2^{(i)2} - 2w_2 x_2^{(i)} y + y^2$$



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_2} L(w_1, w_2) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 2w_2 x_2^{(i)2} - \frac{$$

$$2w_2 x_1^{(i)} x_2^{(i)} - 2x_1^{(i)} y$$

 $2w_1 x_1^{(i)} x_2^{(i)} + 2x_2^{(i)} y$ 

### Analytic Expressions: Multiple Arguments

To analytically find the **gradient** of a multi-input function, find the **partial derivative** for each of the inputs (and then collect in a vector).

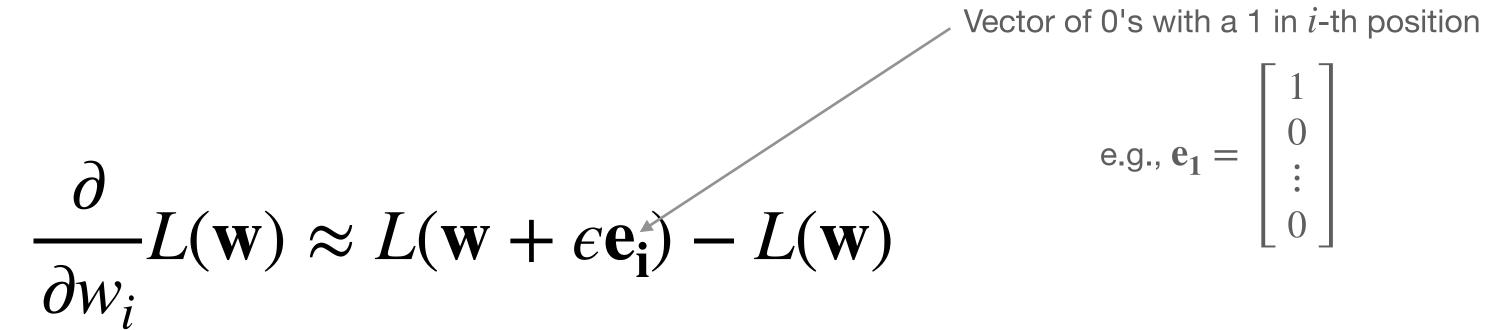
$$\nabla L(w_1, w_2) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 2w_1 x_1^{(i)2} + 2w_2 x_1^{(i)} x_2^{(i)} - 2x_1^{(i)} y \\ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 2w_2 x_2^{(i)2} - 2w_1 x_1^{(i)} x_2^{(i)} + 2x_2^{(i)} y \end{bmatrix}$$

### Method of Differences

(for "sufficiently" tiny  $\epsilon$ )

**Question:** Why would we ever do this?

**Question:** What are the drawbacks?



### Chain Rule (of Calculus): 1D Derivatives

i.e., h(x) = f(g(x)) =

- If we know formulas for the derivatives of **components** of a function, then we can build up the derivative of their composition mechanically
- Most prominent example: **Back-propagation** in neural networks

 $\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz \ dy}{dy \ dx}$ 

$$\implies h'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

#### Chain Rule (of Calculus): Multiple Intermediate Arguments

What if  $h(x) = f(g_1(x), g_2(x))$ ?

 $\frac{dh}{dx} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g_1}$ 

Question: Why do we add the partials via the two arguments?

$$\frac{dg_1}{dx} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial g_2} \frac{dg_2}{dx}$$

### Chain Rule (of Calculus): Multiple Arguments

For multiple outputs, things look more complicated, but it's the same idea:

$$\begin{split} h(w_1, w_2) &= f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2)) \\ \nabla h(w_1, w_2) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} g_1(w_1, w_2) & \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} g_2(w_1, w_2) \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \nabla_{g(\mathbf{w})} f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2)) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_1} & \frac{\partial g_2(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_1} \\ \frac{\partial g_1(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_2} & \frac{\partial g_2(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2))}{\partial g_1(w_1)} \\ \frac{\partial f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2))}{\partial g_2(w_2)} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2))}{\partial g_1(w_1)} & \frac{\partial g_1(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_1} + \frac{\partial f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2))}{\partial g_2(w_2)} \\ \frac{\partial f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2))}{\partial g_1(w_1)} & \frac{\partial g_1(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_2} + \frac{\partial f(g_1(w_1, w_2), g_2(w_1, w_2))}{\partial g_2(w_2)} & \frac{\partial g_2(w_1, w_2)}{\partial w_2} \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

# Approximating Real Numbers

- Computers store real numbers as finite number of bits
- Problem: There are an infinite number of real numbers in any interval
- Real numbers are encoded as floating point numbers:
  - $1.001...011011 \times 21001..0011$ significand exponent
  - Single precision: 24 bits significand, 8 bits exponent
  - Double precision: 53 bits significand, 11 bits exponent
- **Deep learning** typically uses single precision!

## Underflow

- down to **zero** 
  - rounded up to zero
- Sometimes that's okay! (Almost every number gets rounded)
- Often it's not (**when?**)
  - Denominators: causes divide-by-zero
  - log: returns -inf
  - log(negative): returns nan

1001...0011  $1.001...011010 \times 2$ exponent

significand

• Positive numbers that are smaller than  $1.00...01 \times 2^{-1111...1111}$  will be rounded

• Negative numbers that are bigger than  $-1.00...01 \times 2^{-1111...1111}$  will be

## Overflow

- $\bullet$ negative infinity
- **exp** is used very frequently
  - Underflows for very negative inputs
  - Overflows for "large" positive inputs
  - 89 counts as "large"

#### 1001...0011 $1.001...011010 \times 2$ exponent

significand

#### • Numbers bigger than $1.111...1111 \times 2^{1111}$ will be rounded up to infinity Numbers smaller than $-1.111...1111 \times 2^{1111}$ will be rounded down to

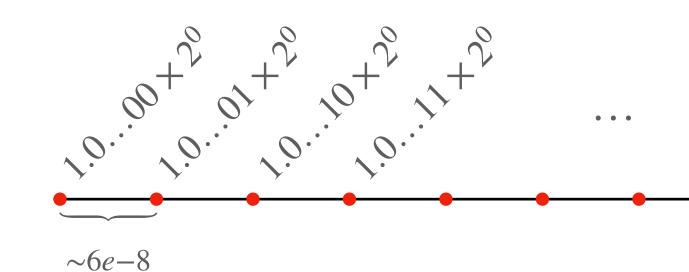
# Addition/Subtraction 1.001...011010 × 2

Adding a small number to a large number can have no effect (why?)

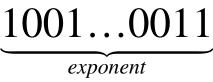
#### **Example:**

>>> A = np.array([0., le-8])
>>> A = np.array([0., le-8]).astype('float32')
>>> A.argmax()
1
>>> (A + 1).argmax()
0

>>> A+1 array([1., 1.], dtype=float32)



 $2^{-24} \approx 5.9 \times 10^{-8}$ 



# Softmax $softmax(\mathbf{x})_{i} = \frac{\exp(x_{i})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(x_{i})}$

- **Softmax** is a very common function
- distribution
  - Question: Why not normalize them directly without exp?
- But exp overflows very quickly:  $\bullet$

Solution: 
$$softmax(\mathbf{z})$$
 w

Used to convert a vector of activations (i.e., numbers) into a probability

where  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} - \max x_i$ 

Dataset likelihoods shrink exponentially quickly in the number of datapoints 

#### **Example:** $\bullet$

- Likelihood of a sequence of 5 fair coin tosses =  $2^{-5} = 1/32$
- Likelihood of a sequence of 100 fair coin tosses =  $2^{-100}$
- **Solution:** Use log-probabilities instead of probabilities

• log-prob of 1000 fair coin tosses is  $1000 \log 0.5 \approx -693$ 

 $\log(p_1p_2p_3...p_n) = \log p_1 + ... + \log p_n$ 

# General Solution

#### **Question:** $\bullet$ What is the most general solution to numerical problems?

#### Standard libraries

- (e.g., softmax, logsumexp, sigmoid)

• PyTorch, Theano, Tensorflow, etc. detect common unstable expressions

• scipy, numpy have stable implementations of many common patterns

# Summary

- Gradients are just vectors of partial derivatives
  - Gradients point "uphill"
- Chain Rule of Calculus lets us compute derivatives of function compositions using derivatives of simpler functions
- Learning rate controls how fast we walk uphill
- Deep learning is fraught with numerical issues:
  - Underflow, overflow, magnitude mismatches
  - Use standard implementations whenever possible