Automatic Differentiation – Lecture No 1

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- (2:nd order) Optimization: convexity.



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- (n:th order) High-order approximations, quadrature, differential equations.



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for $x_0 = +1$ and n = 1? [Undergraduate maths - but tedious]

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What is the value of $f^{(n)}(x_0)$, where

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for $x_0 = +1$ and n = 1? [Undergraduate maths - but tedious] for $x_0 = -2$ and n = 100? [Undergraduate maths - impossible?]



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- (Finite differences) Generates numerical approximations of the value of a derivative, e.g. $f'(x_0) \approx \frac{f(x_0+h)-f(x_0)}{h}$, based on

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + hf'(x_0) + h^2 f''(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(h^3).$$

Various errors: roundoff, cancellation, discretization. Which h is optimal? How does the error behave? Can't really handle high-order derivatives.

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Various errors: roundoff, cancellation, discretization. Which h is optimal? How does the error behave? Can't really handle high-order derivatives.

• (Complex differentiation) A nice "trick" using complex extensions: $f'(x_0) \approx \frac{\Im(f(x_0+ih))}{h}$, where $\Im(x+iy) = y$. Avoids cancellation, and gives quadratic approximation, but requires a complex extension of the function.

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Example

Consider our test function $f(x) = e^{\sin e^{\cos x + 2x^5}}$. Let $h = 2^{-k}$ for $k = 0, \dots, 80$, and compute the two approximations

$$f_x(h) = \frac{f(1) - f(1+h)}{h}$$
 and $f_z(h) = \frac{\Im(f(1+ih))}{h}$.



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Plot of k versus $f_z(h)$ and $f_z(h)$.

 $f_x(h)$ is plotted in blue, $f_z(h)$ is plotted in red. Notice that $f_z(h)$ is not affected by cancellation due to a small h.



Generates evaluations (and not formulas) of the derivatives. Based on a strategy similar to symbolic differentiation, but does not use placeholders for constants or variables. All intermediate expressions are evaluated as soon as possible; this saves memory, and removes the need for later simplification.



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Bonus properties



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Bonus properties

- No discretization errors.
- No huge memory consumption.
- No complex "tricks".
- Very easy to understand.



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An arithmetic for differentiation

We will perform all computations with ordered pairs of real numbers

$$\vec{u} = (u, u').$$



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The first component holds the value of the function $f(x_0)$; the second component holds the value of the derivative $f'(x_0)$. In what follows, we assume that $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.



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Basic arithmetic

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u} + \vec{v} &= (u + v, u' + v') \\ \vec{u} - \vec{v} &= (u - v, u' - v') \\ \vec{u} \times \vec{v} &= (uv, uv' + u'v) \\ \vec{u} \div \vec{v} &= (u/v, (u' - (u/v)v')/v), \end{aligned}$$

where we demand that $v \neq 0$ when dividing.



We need to know how constants and the independent variable x are treated. Following the usual rules of differentiation, we define

$$\vec{x} = (x, 1)$$
 and $\vec{c} = (c, 0).$



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Example

Let $f(x) = \frac{(x+1)(x-2)}{x+3}$. We wish to compute the values of f(3) and f'(3). It is easy to see that f(3) = 2/3. The value of f'(3), however, is not immediate.



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$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \frac{(\vec{x} + \vec{1})(\vec{x} - \vec{2})}{\vec{x} + \vec{3}} = \frac{\left((x, 1) + (1, 0)\right) \times \left((x, 1) - (2, 0)\right)}{(x, 1) + (3, 0)}$$

Inserting the AD-variable $\vec{x} = (3, 1)$ into \vec{f} produces...

Example

$$\vec{f}(3,1) = \frac{\left((3,1) + (1,0)\right) \times \left((3,1) - (2,0)\right)}{(3,1) + (3,0)} \\ = \frac{(4,1) \times (1,1)}{(6,1)} = \frac{(4,5)}{(6,1)} = (\frac{2}{3},\frac{13}{18}).$$



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From this calculation it follows that f(3) = 2/3 (which we already knew) and f'(3) = 13/18. Note that we never used the expression for f'.



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If we use the different (but equivalent) representation $f(x) = x - \frac{4x+2}{x+3}$, we arrive at the same result by a completely different route. Try it!



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We can extend the ideas to standard functions using the chain rule:

$$\vec{g}(\vec{u}) = \vec{g}(u, u') = (g(u), u'g'(u)).$$



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$$\vec{g}(\vec{u}) = \vec{g}(u, u') = (g(u), u'g'(u)).$$

Applying this to some common functions yields:

$$\begin{array}{rclrcl} \sin \vec{u} & = & \sin \left(u, u' \right) & = & \left(\sin u, u' \cos u \right) \\ \cos \vec{u} & = & \cos \left(u, u' \right) & = & \left(\cos u, -u' \sin u \right) \\ e^{\vec{u}} & = & e^{(u,u')} & = & \left(e^u, u'e^u \right) \\ \log \vec{u} & = & \log \left(u, u' \right) & = & \left(\log u, u'/u \right) & (u > 0) \\ |\vec{u}| & = & |(u,u')| & = & \left(|u|, u' \text{sign}(u) \right) & (u \neq 0) \\ \vec{u}^{\alpha} & = & (u, u')^{\alpha} & = & \left(u^{\alpha}, u' \alpha u^{\alpha - 1} \right) & (\text{sometimes}). \end{array}$$

Feel free to add your own favourites!



Example

Let $f(x) = (1 + x + e^x) \sin x$, and compute f'(0).



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and evaluate it at $\vec{x} = (0, 1)$.



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$$f(x) = (1 + x + e^x) \sin x$$
, and compute $f'(0)$. Set
 $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (\vec{1} + \vec{x} + e^{\vec{x}}) \sin \vec{x}$,
and evaluate it at $\vec{x} = (0, 1)$. This gives
 $\vec{f}(0, 1) = ((1, 0) + (0, 1) + e^{(0, 1)}) \sin (0, 1)$

$$= ((1,1) + (e^0, e^0))(\sin 0, \cos 0) = (2,2)(0,1) = (0,2).$$

From this calculation, it follows that f(0) = 0 and f'(0) = 2.



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Note that the differentiation arithmetic is well-suited for implementations using operator overloading (C++, MATLAB Java).



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Implementing the class constructor is straight-forward in MATLAB.

```
01 function ad = autodiff(val, der)
02 % A naive autodiff constructor.
03 ad.val = val;
04 if nargin == 1
05   der = 0.0;
06 end
07 if strcmp(der,'variable')
08   der = 1.0;
09 end
10 ad.der = der;
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Lines 04-06 automatically cast a real number c into an AD-type constant $\vec{c} = (c, 0)$. Lines 07-09 manually cast a real number x into a AD-type variable $\vec{x} = (x, 1)$. The display of autodiff objects is handled via display.m:

```
01 function display(ad)
02 % A simple output formatter for the autodiff class.
03 disp([inputname(1), ' = ']);
04 fprintf(' (%17.17f, %17.17f)\n', ad.val, ad.der);
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```

We can now input/output autodiff objects within the MATLAB environment:

```
>> a = autodiff(3), b = autodiff(2, 'variable')
a =
   (3.000000000000000, 0.000000000000000)
b =
   (2.00000000000000, 1.000000000000000)
```



Arithmetic is easy to implement. Here is (matrix) multiplication:

```
01 function result = mtimes(a, b)
02 % Overloading the '*' operator.
03 [a, b] = cast(a, b);
04 val = a.val*b.val;
05 der = a.val*b.der + a.der*b.val;
06 result = autodiff(val, der);
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```

And here is the logarithm:

```
01 function result = log(a)
02 % Overloading the 'log' operator.
03 if (a.val <= 0.0 )
04 error('log undefined for non-positive arguments.');
05 end
06 val = log(a.val);
07 der = a.der/a.val;
08 result = autodiff(val, der);</pre>
```



Here is a simple function that returns the derivative of a general function f at a given point x_0 :

```
01 function dx = computeDerivative(fcnName, x0)
02 f = inline(fcnName);
03 x = autodiff(x0, 'variable');
04 dx = getDer(f(x));
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```
A typical usage is
```

Great for checking your calculus homework



A more practical application is solving non-linear equations.

```
01 function y = newtonSearch(fcnName, x, tol)
02 f = inline(fcnName);
03 y = newtonStep(f, x);
04 while ( abs(x-y) > tol )
05 x = y;
06
      y = newtonStep(f, x);
07 end
08 end
09
10 function Nx = newtonStep(f, x)
11 xx = autodiff(x, 'variable');
12 fx = f(xx);
13 Nx = x - getVal(fx)/getDer(fx);
14 end
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     x = v;
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13 Nx = x - getVal(fx)/getDer(fx);
14 end
```

Note that this function "hides" the AD from the user: all input/output is scalar.



Some sample outputs:

```
>> x = newtonSearch('sin(exp(x) + 1)', 1, 1e-10)
x =
    0.761549782880894
>> x = newtonSearch('sin(exp(x) + 1)', 0, 1e-10)
```

x =

2.131177121086310





An arithmetic for differentiation

Extend the ideas to computations with ordered tripples of real numbers

$$\vec{u} = (u, u', u'').$$



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The third component holds the value of the second derivative $f''(x_0)$. As before, we assume that $f \colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.



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Basic arithmetic

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where we demand that $v \neq 0$ when dividing.

Constants and the independent variable x are treated as before. Following the usual rules of differentiation, we define

$$\vec{x} = (x, 1, 0)$$
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$$\vec{x}=(x,1,0) \qquad \text{ and } \qquad \vec{c}=(c,0,0).$$

AD for standard functions

Similarly, standard functions are implemented via the chain rule:

$$\vec{g}(\vec{u}) = \vec{g}(u, u', u'') = (g(u), u'g'(u), u''g'(u) + (u')^2g''(u)).$$



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$$\vec{g}(\vec{u}) = \vec{g}(u, u', u'') = (g(u), u'g'(u), u''g'(u) + (u')^2g''(u)).$$

Applying this to some useful functions yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \vec{u} &= \sin \left(u, u', u'' \right) &= \left(\sin u, u' \cos u, u'' \cos u - (u')^2 \sin u \right) \\ e^{\vec{u}} &= e^{(u, u', u'')} &= \left(e^u, u' e^u, u'' e^u + (u')^2 e^u \right) \end{aligned}$$

Straight-forward, but tedious!!!



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A more effective (and perhaps less error-prone) approach to high-order automatic differentiation is obtained through the calculus of Taylor series:

$$f(x) = f_0 + f_1(x - x_0) + \dots + f_k(x - x_0)^k + \dots,$$

Here we use the notation $f_k = f_k(x_0) = f^{(k)}(x_0)/k!$



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Basic arithmetic

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Proof: (formula for division).

By definition, we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k (x-x_0)^k / \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k (x-x_0)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (f \div g)_k (x-x_0)^k.$$

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Multiplying both sides with the Taylor series for g produces

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k (x - x_0)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (f \div g)_k (x - x_0)^k \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k (x - x_0)^k,$$

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and, by the rule for multiplication, we have

$$f_k = \sum_{i=0}^k (f \div g)_i g_{k-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (f \div g)_i g_{k-i} + (f \div g)_k g_0.$$

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Solving for $(f \div g)_k$ produces the desired result.

Constants and the independent variable x are treated as expected: seen as functions, these have particularly simple Taylor expansions:

$$x = x_0 + 1 \cdot (x - x_0) + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + \dots + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^k + \dots,$$

$$c = c + 0 \cdot (x - x_0) + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + \dots + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^k + \dots.$$



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We now represent a function as a, possibly infinite, string of its Taylor coefficients:

$$f(x_0) \sim (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_k, \dots)$$
 $f_k = f^{(k)}(x_0)/k.$



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Exercise

Write down the formal expression for $f \times f$ using the rule for multiplication. Using the appearing symmetry, find a more efficient formula for computing the square f^2 of a function f.

Taylor series AD for standard functions

Given a function g whose Taylor series is known, how do we compute the Taylor series for, say, e^{g} ?



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Let us formally write

$$g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k (x - x_0)^k$$
 and $e^{g(x)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (e^g)_k (x - x_0)^k$,

and use the fact that

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^{g(x)} = g'(x)e^{g(x)}.$$
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Plugging the formal expressions for g'(x) and $e^{g(x)}$ into (1) produces

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(e^g)_k (x-x_0)^{k-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kg_k (x-x_0)^{k-1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (e^g)_k (x-x_0)^k,$$

which, after multiplying both sides with $(x - x_0)$, becomes

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(e^g)_k (x-x_0)^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kg_k (x-x_0)^k \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (e^g)_k (x-x_0)^k.$$



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Using the rule for multiplication then yields

$$k(e^g)_k = \sum_{i=1}^k ig_i(e^g)_{k-i} \qquad (k>0).$$



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Using the rule for multiplication then yields

$$k(e^g)_k = \sum_{i=1}^k i g_i(e^g)_{k-i} \qquad (k>0).$$

Since we know that the constant term is given by $(e^g)_0 = e^{g_0}$, we arrive at:

$$(e^g)_k = \begin{cases} e^{g_0} & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k i g_i(e^g)_{k-i} & \text{if } k > 0. \end{cases}$$



More standard functions (k > 0)

$$(\ln g)_{k} = \frac{1}{g_{0}} \left(g_{k} - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i(\ln g)_{i} g_{k-i} \right)$$
$$(g^{a})_{k} = \frac{1}{g_{0}} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left(\frac{(a+1)i}{k} - 1 \right) g_{i}(g^{a})_{k-i}$$
$$(\sin g)_{k} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} i g_{i}(\cos g)_{k-i}$$
$$(\cos g)_{k} = -\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} i g_{i}(\sin g)_{k-i}.$$

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Remember that we always have $(f \circ g)_0 = f(g(x_0))$.



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Taylor series AD - implementations

We begin by implementing a taylor class constructor in MATLAB.

```
01 function ts = taylor(a, N, str)
02 % A naive taylor constructor.
03 if nargin == 1
04 if isa(a, 'taylor')
05
      ts = a:
06 else
07
     ts.coeff = a;
08
      end
09 elseif nargin == 3
10
      ts.coeff = zeros(1,N);
      if strcmp(str,'variable')
11
12
        ts.coeff(1) = a; ts.coeff(2) = 1;
      elseif strcmp(str,'constant');
13
        ts.coeff(1) = a; ts.coeff(2) = 0;
14
15
      end
16 end
17 ts = class(ts, 'taylor');
```



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Taylor series AD - implementations

Next, we implement the way to display the class objects:

```
01 function display(ts)
02 % A simple output formatter for the taylor class.
03 disp([inputname(1), ' = ']);
04 fprintf('[')
05 for i=1:length(ts.coeff)-1
06 fprintf('%17.17f, ', ts.coeff(i));
07 end
08 fprintf('%17.17f]\n', ts.coeff(end));
```


Taylor series AD - implementations

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```

We can now input/output taylor objects within the MATLAB environment:



Taylor series AD - implementations

Here is an implementation for division

```
01 function result = mrdivide(a, b)
02 % Overloading the '/' operator.
03 [a, b] = cast(a, b);
04 \text{ if } ((b.coeff(1) == 0.0))
       error('Denominator is zero.');
05
06 else
07
       N = length(a.coeff);
       coeff = zeros(1,N);
08
       coeff(1) = a.coeff(1)/b.coeff(1):
09
10
       for k=1:N-1
11
           sum = a.coeff(k+1):
12
           for i=0:k-1
13
               sum = sum - coeff(i+1)*b.coeff(k-i+1);
14
           end
15
           coeff(k+1) = sum/b.coeff(1);
16
       end
17
       result = taylor(coeff);
18 end
```



A very clean implementation for arbitrary order differentiation:

```
01 function dx = computeDerivative(fcnName, x0, order)
02 f = inline(fcnName);
03 x = taylor(x0, order+1, 'variable');
04 dx = getDer(f(x), order);
```



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Here, getDer converts a Taylor coefficient into a derivative by multiplying it by the proper factorial.



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```

Here, getDer converts a Taylor coefficient into a derivative by multiplying it by the proper factorial.

```
>> df100 = computeDerivative('exp(sin(exp(cos(x) + 2*x^5)))', -2, 100)
df100 =
```

1.3783e+177



Taylor series AD - special implementations

```
01 function result = mrdivide(a, b)
02 % Overloading the '/' operator for l'Hopital's rule.
03 [a, b] = cast(a, b);
04 a_ind = find(a.coeff,1,'first'); b_ind = find(b.coeff,1,'first');
05 if (a ind < b ind)
06
       error('Denominator is zero.');
07 else
       a = taylor(a.coeff(b_ind:end)); b = taylor(b.coeff(b_ind:end));
80
09
       N = length(a.coeff);
10
       coeff = zeros(1,N);
11
       coeff(1) = a.coeff(1)/b.coeff(1);
       for k=1:N-1
12
13
           sum = a.coeff(k+1);
14
           for i=0:k-1
15
               sum = sum - coeff(i+1)*b.coeff(k-i+1);
16
           end
17
           coeff(k+1) = sum/b.coeff(1);
18
       end
       result = taylor(coeff);
19
20 end
```

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Taylor series AD - special implementations

We can now handle removable singularities too:



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We can now handle removable singularities too:

```
>> x = taylor(0, 4, 'variable')
x =
      [0.0000000, 1.0000000, 0.0000000, 0.0000000]
>> y = sin(x)
y =
      [0.0000000, 1.0000000, 0.0000000, -0.16666666]
>> z = sin(x)/x
z =
      [1.0000000, 0.0000000, -0.16666666]
w = (exp(x)-1)/x
w =
      [1.0000000, 0.5000000, 0.16666666]
```



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z =
      [1.0000000, 0.0000000,-0.16666666]
w = (exp(x)-1)/x
w =
      [1.0000000, 0.5000000, 0.16666666]
```

Note that the resulting Taylor series are shortened accordingly.

