Automatic Differentiation for Computational Engineering

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Outline

- Overview
- Computational Graph
- Forward Mode
- Reverse Mode
- 5 AD for Physical Simulation
- 6 AD Through Implicit Operators
- Conclusion

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Overview

- Gradients are useful in many applications
 - Mathematical Optimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

Using the gradient descent method:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \alpha_n \nabla f(x_n)$$

Sensitivity Analysis

$$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f'(x)\Delta x$$

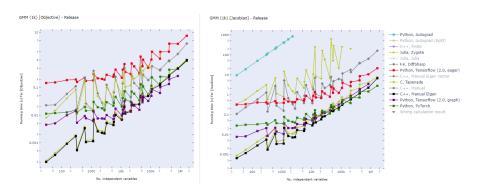
- Machine Learning
 Training a neural network using automatic differentiation (back-propagation).
- Solving Nonlinear Equations Solve a nonlinear equation f(x) = 0 using Newton's method

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

Terminology

- Deriving and implementing gradients are a challenging and all-consuming process.
- Automatic differentiation: a set of techniques to numerically evaluate the derivative of a function specified by a computer program (Wikipedia). It also bears other names such as autodiff, algorithmic differentiation, computational differentiation, and back-propagation.
- There are a lot of AD softwares
 - TensorFlow and PyTorch: deep learning frameworks in Python
 - Adept-2: combined array and automatic differentiation library in C++
 - 3 autograd: efficiently derivatives computation of NumPy code.
 - ForwardDiff.jl, Zygote.jl: Julia differentiable programming packages
- This lecture: how to compute gradients using automatic differentiation (AD)
 - Forward mode, reverse mode, and AD for implicit solvers

AD Software



https://github.com/microsoft/ADBench

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Finite Differences

$$f'(x) pprox \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}, \quad f'(x) pprox \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h}$$

Derived from the definition of derivatives

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

- Conceptually simple.
- Curse of dimensionalties: to compute the gradients of $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$, you need at least $\mathcal{O}(m)$ function evaluations.
- Huge numerical error: roundoff error.

Finite Difference

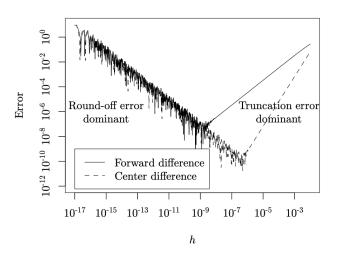
$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$
 $f'(x) = \cos(x)$ $x_0 = 0.1$

```
f = x \rightarrow \sin(x)
x0 = 0.1
e = cos(x0)
println("True derivative: $e")
printstyled("Forward Difference\tError\t\tCentral Difference\tError\n", bold=true)
for i = 1:10
   h = 1/10^{i}
   f1 = (f(x0+h)-f(x0))/h
   f2 = (f(x0+h)-f(x0-h))/2h
    e1 = abs(f1-e)
    e2 = abs(f2-e)
    println("$f1\t$e1\t$f2\t$e2")
end
```

True derivative: 0.9950041652780258

Forward Difference	Error	Central Difference	Error	
0.9883591414823306	0.006645023795695204	0.9933466539753061	0.0016575113027197386	
0.9944884190346656	0.00051574624336026	0.9949875819581878	1.6583319838003874e-5	
0.994954082739849	5.008253817684327e-5	0.995003999444008	1.6583401785119634e-7	
0.9949991719489237	4.993329102087607e-6	0.9950041636197504	1.6582754058802607e-9	
0.9950036660946736	4.991833522094424e-7	0.9950041652613538	1.667199711619105e-11	
0.9950041153644618	4.991356405970038e-8	0.9950041652759256	2.1002088956834086e-1	
2				
0.9950041603146165	4.963409350189352e-9	0.9950041653106201	3.2594260623852733e-1	
1				
0.9950041651718422	1.0618361745429183e-10	0.9950041651718422	1.0618361745429183e-1	
0				
0.9950041623962845	2.8817412900394856e-9	0.9950041623962845	2.8817412900394856e-9	
0.9950040791295578	8.614846802590392e-8	0.9950040791295578	8.614846802590392e-8	

Finite Difference



Baydin, A. G., Pearlmutter, B. A., Radul, A. A., & Siskind, J. M. (2017). Automatic differentiation in machine learning: a survey. The Journal of Machine Learning Research, 18(1), 5595-5637.

Symbolic Differentiation

- Symbolic differentiation computes exact derivatives (gradients): there is no approximation error.
- It works by recursively applies simple rules to symbols

$$\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(u+v) = \frac{d}{dx}(u) + \frac{d}{dx}(v) \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(uv) = v\frac{d}{dx}(u) + u\frac{d}{dx}(v)$$

Here c is a variable independent of x, and u, v are variables dependent on x.

 There may not exist convenient expressions for the analytical gradients of some functions. For example, a blackbox function from a third-party library.

Symbolic Differentiation

Symbolic differentiation can lead to complex and redundant expressions

```
using SymPy
sigmoid = x -> 1/(1+exp(-x))
x,w1,w2,w3,b1,b2,b3 = @vars x w1 w2 w3 b1 b2 b3
y = w3*sigmoid(w2*sigmoid(w1*x+b1)+b2)+b3
dw1 = diff(y, w1)
```

$$\frac{w_2w_3xe^{-b_1-w_1x}e^{-b_2-\frac{w_2}{e^{-b_1-w_1x}+1}}}{\left(e^{-b_1-w_1x}+1\right)^2\left(e^{-b_2-\frac{w_2}{e^{-b_1-w_1x}+1}}+1\right)^2}$$

```
print(dw1)
w2*w3*x*exp(-b1 - w1*x)*exp(-b2 - w2/(exp(-b1 - w1*x) +
1))/((exp(-b1 - w1*x) + 1)^2*(exp(-b2 - w2/(exp(-b1 - w1*x) + 1)) + 1)^2)
```

Automatic Differentiation

- AD is neither finite difference nor symbolic differentiation.
- It works by recursively applies simple rules to values

$$\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(u+v) = \frac{d}{dx}(u) + \frac{d}{dx}(v) \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(uv) = v\frac{d}{dx}(u) + u\frac{d}{dx}(v)$$

Here c is a variable independent of x, and u, v are variables dependent on x.

• It evaluates numerically gradients of "function units" using symbolic differentiation, and chains the computed gradients using the chain rule

$$\frac{df(g(x))}{dx} = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

• It is efficient (linear in the cost of computing the function itself) and numerically stable.

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Computational Graph

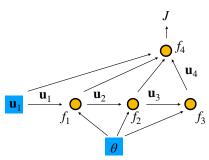
- The "language" for automatic differentiation is computational graph.
 - The computational graph is a directed acyclic graph (DAG).
 - Each edge represents the data: a scalar, a vector, a matrix, or a high dimensional tensor.
 - Each node is a function that consumes several incoming edges and outputs some values.

$$J = f_4(u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4),$$

$$u_2 = f_1(u_1, \theta),$$

$$u_3 = f_2(u_2, \theta),$$

$$u_4 = f_3(u_3, \theta).$$



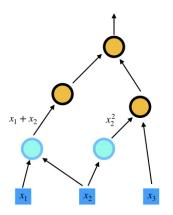
Let's build a computational graph for computing

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

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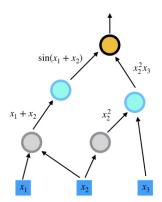
Building a Computational Graph

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$



Building a Computational Graph

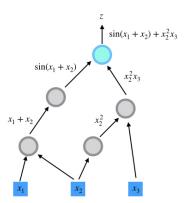
$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$



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Building a Computational Graph

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$



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Computing Gradients from a Computational Graph

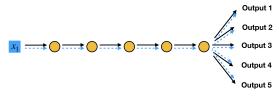
- Automatic differentiation works by propagating gradients in the computational graph.
- Two basic modes: forward-mode and backward-mode. Forward-mode propagates gradients in the same direction as forward computation.
 Backward-mode propagates gradients in the reverse direction of forward computation.

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \qquad \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}$$

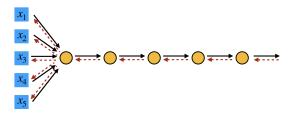
$$x \qquad \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial w} \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \qquad \frac{\partial y}{\partial w}$$

Computing Gradients from a Computational Graph

- Different computational graph topologies call for different modes of automatic differentiation.
 - One-to-many: forward-propagation \Rightarrow forward-mode AD.



• Many-to-one: back-propagation⇒reverse-mode AD.



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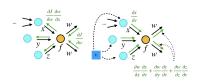
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Automatic Differentiation: Forward Mode AD

 The forward-mode automatic differentiation uses the chain rule to propagate the gradients.

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

- Compute in the same order as function evaluation.
- Each node in the computational graph
 - Aggregate all the gradients from up-streams.
 - Forward the gradient to down-stream nodes.

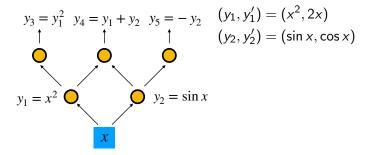


Let's consider a specific way for computing

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x^4 \\ x^2 + \sin(x) \\ -\sin(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

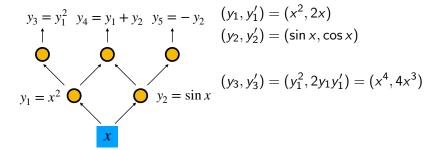
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Let's consider a specific way for computing

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x^4 \\ x^2 + \sin(x) \\ -\sin(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_{3} = y_{1}^{2} \quad y_{4} = y_{1} + y_{2} \quad y_{5} = -y_{2} \quad (y_{1}, y_{1}') = (x^{2}, 2x)$$

$$(y_{2}, y_{2}') = (\sin x, \cos x)$$

$$y_{1} = x^{2}$$

$$y_{2} = \sin x \quad (y_{3}, y_{3}') = (y_{1}^{2}, 2y_{1}y_{1}') = (x^{4}, 4x^{3})$$

$$(y_{4}, y_{4}') = (y_{1} + y_{1}, y_{1}' + y_{2}')$$

$$= (x^{2} + \sin x, 2x + \cos x)$$

Let's consider a specific way for computing

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x^4 \\ x^2 + \sin(x) \\ -\sin(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_3 = y_1^2$$
 $y_4 = y_1 + y_2$ $y_5 = -y_2$ $(y_1, y_1') = (x^2, 2x)$
 $(y_2, y_2') = (\sin x, \cos x)$
 $y_1 = x^2$ $y_2 = \sin x$ $(y_3, y_3') = (y_1^2, 2y_1)$
 $y_2 = \sin x$ $(y_4, y_4') = (y_1 + y_1)$
 $y_4 = (x^2 + \sin x)$

$$y_5 = -y_2$$
 $(y_1, y_1') = (x^2, 2x)$
 $(y_2, y_2') = (\sin x, \cos x)$

$$y_2 = \sin x \quad (y_3, y_3') = (y_1^2, 2y_1y_1') = (x^4, 4x^3)$$

$$(y_4, y_4') = (y_1 + y_1, y_1' + y_2')$$

$$= (x^2 + \sin x, 2x + \cos x)$$

$$(y_5, y_5') = (-y_2, -y_2') = (-\sin x, -\cos x)$$

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Summary

 Forward mode AD reuses gradients from upstreams. Therefore, this mode is useful for few-to-many mappings

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m, n \ll m$$

- Applications: sensitivity analysis, uncertainty quantification, etc.
 - Consider a physical model $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the quantity of interest (usually a low dimensional physical parameter), uncertainty propagation method computes the perturbation of the model output (usually a large dimensional quantity, i.e., $m \gg 1$)

$$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + f'(x)\Delta x$$

Outline

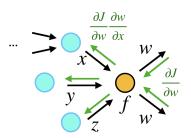
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Reverse Mode AD

$$\frac{df(g(x))}{dx} = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

- Computing in the reverse order of forward computation.
- Each node in the computational graph
 - Aggregates all the gradients from down-streams
 - Back-propagates the gradient to upstream nodes.



$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

$$y_3 = \sin(x_1 + x_2)$$

$$y_4 = x_2^2 x_3$$

$$y_1 = x_1 + x_2$$

$$y_2 = x_2^2$$

$$x_3$$

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

$$y_3 = \sin(x_1 + x_2)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y_3} = 1$$

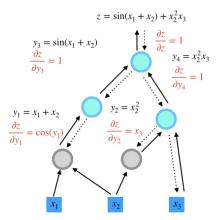
$$y_4 = x_2^2 x_3$$

$$y_4 = x_2^2 x_3$$

$$y_2 = x_2^2$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y_4} = 1$$

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$



$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

$$z = \sin(x_1 + x_2) + x_2^2 x_3$$

$$y_3 = \sin(x_1 + x_2)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial z} = 1$$

$$y_4 = x_2^2 x_3$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y_4} = 1$$

$$y_2 = x_2^2$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y_1} = \cos(y_1)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_2} = \cos(y_1) + 2x_2 x_3$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_3} = x_2^2$$

Summary

 Reverse mode AD reuses gradients from down-streams. Therefore, this mode is useful for many-to-few mappings

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m, n \gg m$$

- Typical application:
 - Deep learning: n = total number of weights and biases of the neural network, m = 1 (loss function).
 - Mathematical optimization: usually there are only a single objective function.

Summary

• In general, for a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$

Mode	Suitable for	$Complexity^1$	Application
Forward	$m\gg n$	\leq 2.5 OPS($f(x)$)	UQ
Reverse	$m \ll n$	$\leq 4 \operatorname{OPS}(f(x))$	Inverse Modeling

- There are also many other interesting topics
 - Mixed mode AD: many-to-many mappings.
 - Computing sparse Jacobian matrices using AD by exploiting sparse structures.

Margossian CC. A review of automatic differentiation and its efficient implementation. Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery. 2019 Jul;9(4):e1305.

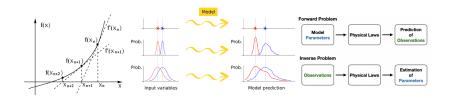
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 $^{^1\}mathrm{OPS}$ is a metric for complexity in terms of fused-multiply adds. \longrightarrow \longrightarrow \longrightarrow \longrightarrow \longrightarrow \longrightarrow

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The Demand for Gradients in Physical Simulation



- Solving nonlinear equations
- Uncertainty quantification/sensitivity analysis
- Inverse problems

Image source:

https://mirams.wordpress.com/2016/11/23/uncertainty-in-risk-prediction/, http://fourier.eng.hmc.edu/e176/lectures/ch2/node5.html

Inverse Problem and Mathematical Optimization

- Consider a bar under heating with a source term f(x, t). The right hand side has fixed temperature and the left hand side is insulated.
- The governing equation for the temperature u(x, t) is

$$\frac{\partial u(x,t)}{\partial t} = \kappa(x)\Delta u(x,t) + f(x,t), \quad t \in (0,T), x \in \Omega$$
$$u(1,t) = 0 \quad t > 0$$
$$\kappa(0)\frac{\partial u(0,t)}{\partial x} = 0 \quad t > 0$$

• The diffusivity coefficient is given by

$$\kappa(x) = a + bx$$

where a and b are unknown parameters.

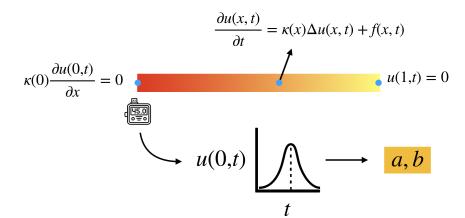
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Inverse Problem and Mathematical Optimization

• Goal: calibrate a and b from $u_0(t) = u(0, t)$

$$\kappa(x) = a + bx$$



Inverse Problem and Mathematical Optimization

 This problem is a standard inverse problem. We can formulate the problem as a PDE-constrained optimization problem

$$\min_{a,b} \int_0^t (u(0,t) - u_0(t))^2 dt$$
s.t.
$$\frac{\partial u(x,t)}{\partial t} = \kappa(x) \Delta u(x,t) + f(x,t), \quad t \in (0,T), x \in (0,1)$$

$$-\kappa(0) \frac{\partial u(0,t)}{\partial x} = 0, t > 0$$

$$u(1,t) = 0, t > 0$$

$$u(x,0) = 0, x \in [0,1]$$

$$\kappa(x) = ax + b$$

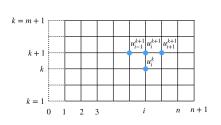
Numerical Partial Differential Equation

• As with many physical modeling techniques, we discretize the PDE using numerical schemes. Here is a finite difference scheme for the PDE k = 1, 2, ..., m, i = 1, 2, ..., n

$$\frac{u_i^{k+1} - u_i^k}{\Delta t} = \kappa_i \frac{u_{i+1}^{k+1} + u_{i-1}^{k+1} - 2u_i^{k+1}}{\Delta x^2} + f_i^{k+1}$$

For initial and boundary conditions, we have

$$-\kappa_1 \frac{u_2^k - u_0^k}{2\Delta x} = 0$$
$$u_{n+1}^k = 0$$
$$u_i^0 = 0$$



Numerical Partial Differential Equation

• Rewriting the equation as a linear system, we have

$$A(a,b)U^{k+1} = U^k + F^{k+1}, \quad U^k = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^k \\ u_2^k \\ \vdots \\ u_n^k \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $\lambda_i = -\kappa_i \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2}$ and

$$A(a,b) = \begin{bmatrix} 2\lambda_1 + 1 & -2\lambda_1 & & & & \\ -\lambda_2 & 2\lambda_2 + 1 & -\lambda_2 & & & \\ & -\lambda_3 & 2\lambda_3 + 1 & -\lambda_3 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & -\lambda_{n-1} & \\ & & & -\lambda_n & 2\lambda_n + 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad F^k = \Delta t \begin{bmatrix} f_1^{k+1} \\ f_2^{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ f_n^{k+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

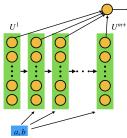
Computational Graph for Numerical Schemes

The discretized optimization problem is

$$\min_{a,b} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (u_1^k - u_0((k-1)\Delta t))^2$$
s.t. $A(a,b)U^{k+1} = U^k + F^{k+1}, k = 1, 2, ..., m$

$$U^0 = 0$$

 The computational graph for the forward computation (evaluating the loss function) is



Implementation using an AD system

function condition(i, u_arr) i<=m+1 end function body(i, u_arr) u = read(u arr, i-1)rhs = u + F[i]u next = A\rhs u_arr = write(u_arr, i, u_next) i+1, u arr end F = constant(F) u arr = TensorArrav(m+1) u_arr = write(u_arr, 1, zeros(n)) i = constant(2, dtype=Int32) , u = while loop(condition, body, [i, u arr]) $u = set_shape(stack(u), (m+1, n))$ uc = readdlm("data.txt")[:] $loss = sum((uc-u[:,1])^2) * 1e10$

Simulation Loop

You will have chance to Practice in your homework! (TensorFlow/PyTorch, ADCME, or any other AD tools)

Formulate Loss Function

sess = Session(); init(sess)
BFGS!(sess, loss)

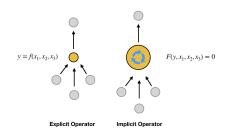
Gradient Computation

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Challenges in AD

- Most AD frameworks only deal with explicit operators, i.e., the functions that has analytical derivatives, or composition of these functions.
- Many scientific computing algorithms are iterative or implicit in nature.



${\sf Linear}/{\sf Nonlinear}$	${\sf Explicit}/{\sf Implicit}$	Expression
Linear	Explicit	y = Ax
Nonlinear	Explicit	y = F(x)
Linear	Implicit	Ay = x
Nonlinear	Implicit	F(x,y)=0

Example

• Consider a function $f: x \to y$, which is implicitly defined by

$$F(x, y) = x^3 - (y^3 + y) = 0$$

If not using the cubic formula for finding the roots, the forward computation consists of iterative algorithms, such as the Newton's method and bisection method

$$\begin{array}{l} y^0 \leftarrow 0 \\ k \leftarrow 0 \\ \text{while } |F(x,y^k)| > \epsilon \text{ do} \\ \delta^k \leftarrow F(x,y^k)/F_y'(x,y^k) \\ y^{k+1} \leftarrow y^k - \delta^k \\ k \leftarrow k+1 \\ \text{end while} \\ \text{Return } y^k \end{array}$$

```
l \leftarrow -M, \ r \leftarrow M, \ m \leftarrow 0
while |F(x,m)| > \epsilon do
c \leftarrow \frac{a+b}{2}
if F(x,m) > 0 then
a \leftarrow m
else
b \leftarrow m
end if
end while
Return c = b + C = b + C = b + C = 0
```

Example

• An efficient way is to apply the implicit function theorem. For our example, $F(x,y) = x^3 - (y^3 + y) = 0$, treat y as a function of x and take the derivative on both sides

$$3x^2 - 3y(x)^2y'(x) - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow y'(x) = \frac{3x^2 - 1}{3y(x)^2}$$

The above gradient is exact.

Implicit Operators in Physical Modeling

 Return to our bar problem, what if the material property is complex and has a temperature-dependent governing equation?

$$\frac{\partial u(x,t)}{\partial t} = \kappa(u)\Delta u(x,t) + f(x,t), \quad t \in (0,T), x \in \Omega$$

 An implicit scheme is usually a nonlinear equation, and requires an iterative solver (e.g., the Newton-Raphson algorithm) to solve

$$\frac{u_i^{k+1} - u_i^k}{\Delta t} = \kappa (u_i^{k+1}) \frac{u_{i+1}^{k+1} + u_{i-1}^{k+1} - 2u_i^{k+1}}{\Delta x^2} + f_i^{k+1}$$

- Typical AD frameworks cannot handle this operator. We need to differentiate through implicit operators.
- This topic will be covered in a future lecture: physics constrained learning.

Outline

- Overview
- Computational Graph
- Forward Mode
- Reverse Mode
- 5 AD for Physical Simulation
- 6 AD Through Implicit Operators
- Conclusion

Conclusion

- What's covered in this lecture
 - Reverse mode automatic differentiation;
 - Forward mode automatic differentiation;
 - Using AD to solver inverse problems in physical modeling;
 - Automatic differentiation through implicit operators.

What's Next

- Physics constrained learning: inverse modeling using automatic differentiation through implicit operators;
- Neural networks and numerical schemes: substitute the unknown component in a physical system with a neural network and learn the neural network with AD;
- Implementation of inverse modeling algorithms in ADCME.