# SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT FOR COMPUTATIONAL SCIENCE

**LECTURE 12** 

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#### **LAST TIME**

- Example of Newton's method and numerical schemes to approximate derivatives.
- Evaluation trace
- The computational graph
- Computing derivatives of one variable using the forward mode

## **TODAY**

Main topics: Automatic differentiation: forward mode, higher dimensions, dual numbers

#### **Details:**

- Beyond the basics:
  - Computing derivatives in higher dimensions using the forward mode
  - The Jacobian in forward mode
  - What the forward mode actually computes
- Review of complex numbers
- Dual numbers in forward mode AD

#### FORWARD MODE AD: RECAP

#### Recall from last time: forward mode AD

- Break down a complicated function f(x) into elementary operations. These include addition, multiplication, sign negation, transcendental functions, trigonometric functions, etc.
- Breaking down the problem into smaller pieces led us to define intermediate results  $v_j$  which are functions that depend on the independent variables x (the input).
- We defined a new differential operator for a directional derivative and called it  $D_p(\cdot)$ . The chain rule applies to this operator in the same way it does for d/dt for example.
- Forward mode AD: evaluate  $v_j$  and  $D_p v_j$  simultaneously as you evaluate the elementary pieces of a complicated f(x) from the inside out.

#### FORWARD MODE AD: RECAP

**Notation I:** the vector  $p \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is called the **seed vector**. We have introduced it when we defined our directional derivative:

$$D_p y_i \stackrel{ ext{def}}{=} (
abla y_i)^{\intercal} \, p = \sum_{j=1}^m rac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_j} p_j.$$

This definition is just a weighted sum (inner product) of derivatives with respect to the independent variables. The "direction" is given by the seed vector p.

The seed vector allows us to cherry-pick a certain derivative of interest (choose a "direction"). If we were interested in  $\partial y_i/\partial x_1$  we would choose  $p_1=1$  and  $p_k=0 \ \forall k \neq 1$ . We can even choose a weighted combination of derivatives  $\partial y_i/\partial x_j$  if we needed to.

We are free to choose the seed vector p.

#### FORWARD MODE AD: RECAP

**Notation II:** in the literature you may come across the notation  $\dot{v}_j$  to denote the directional derivative of  $v_j$ , instead of the notation  $D_p v_j$  that we have used here. In physics, the "dot" notation refers to differentiation with respect to time, which can only advance in one direction. Our direction is given by the m-dimensional vector p for which the notation  $D_p v_j$  is more expressive.

**Read it as:** derivative of  $v_j$  in direction of p.

→ of course you are free to choose whichever notation you are most comfortable with.

So far we have been looking at a scalar function f(x) with a single argument  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . In the following slides we extend our discussion to:

- ullet Multivariate scalar function  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}$
- Multivariate vector function  $f(x): \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$

The math we covered up to here remains exactly the same, what changes is the number of inputs and outputs in the computational graph.

We start by looking at the case  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}$ , where  $x\in\mathbb{R}^m$ .

- We deal with more than one input  $x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m]^\intercal$ .
- This means we have m independent variables. If you recall the table for the primal and tangent traces, we have m gray rows instead of just one. Similarly, the computational graph will have m input nodes on the left side.
- The direction  $p \in \mathbb{R}^m$  has m components too.
- Examples for such functions: temperature field in 3D, Ray-tracing example in 3D, Neural networks, optimization problems and so on.

**Example:** 2-Dimensional input  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  with m=2

Consider the independent coordinates  $x = [x_1, x_2]^\intercal$  with

$$f(x) = x_1 x_2$$

It is easy to compute the gradient right away:

$$abla f = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \ rac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} x_2 \ x_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example:** 2-Dimensional input  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  with m=2

• The primal trace for this function consists of simply one intermediate variable:

$$f(x) = v_1 = v_{-1}v_0 = x_1x_2$$

• The tangent trace requires the computation of  $D_p v_1$ , but now we have more than just one coordinate for the direction  $\rightarrow p = [p_1, p_2]^\intercal$ :

$$D_p v_1 = (
abla v_1)^\intercal p = rac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_1} p_1 + rac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_2} p_2 = x_2 p_1 + x_1 p_2$$

- How to choose p if you are interested in  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}$ ?  $\rightarrow p = [1, 0]^\intercal$
- How to choose p if you are interested in  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}$ ?  $\to$   $p=[0,1]^\intercal$

**Example:** 2-Dimensional input  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  with m=2

Let's now add a sinusoidal on top:

$$f(x) = \sin(x_1 x_2)$$

• The primal trace consists of two intermediate variables:

$$egin{aligned} v_1 &= v_{-1} v_0 = x_1 x_2 \ f(x) &= v_2 = \sin(v_1) \end{aligned}$$

 From the previous slide you know that:

$$D_p v_1 = x_2 p_1 + x_1 p_2$$

## Discuss with your neighbors the following items:

- 1. What is the computational graph for this problem?
- 2. What is the value of  $D_p v_2$ ?

We can see that what the **forward mode AD** really computes is:

$$\nabla f \cdot p$$

The most general form is a vector function  $f(x): \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ . The gradient of such function  $\nabla f$  is an outer product that is called the **Jacobian**. Think of the Jacobian as a matrix, where the elements of that matrix are given by the first order partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ .

Forward mode AD computes the inner product of the Jacobian with the seed vector  $\boldsymbol{p}$ 

$$J \cdot p$$
,

where  $J \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $p \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Think of this as projecting the Jacobian in the direction given by p.

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

Let  $x = [x_1, x_2]^{\mathsf{T}}$ . Consider the vector function given by:

$$f(x)=egin{bmatrix} f_1\ f_2 \end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix} x_1x_2+\sin(x_1)\ x_1+x_2+\sin(x_1x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

The gradient (Jacobian) for this function is not hard to compute:

$$egin{aligned} 
abla f = J &= egin{bmatrix} \partial f_1/\partial x_1 & \partial f_1/\partial x_2 \ \partial f_2/\partial x_1 & \partial f_2/\partial x_2 \end{bmatrix} \ &= egin{bmatrix} x_2 + \cos(x_1) & x_1 \ 1 + x_2\cos(x_1x_2) & 1 + x_1\cos(x_1x_2) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

Let  $x = [x_1, x_2]^\intercal$ . Consider the vector function given by:

$$f(x)=egin{bmatrix} f_1\ f_2 \end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix} x_1x_2+\sin(x_1)\ x_1+x_2+\sin(x_1x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

What is the computational graph for this problem?

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

In the following we aim to compute the directional derivative  $D_p v_5 = D_p f_1$  which is the directional derivative of the *first* component  $f_1$  of our vector function f(x).

- By drawing the computational graph we should have found that  $v_5=v_1+v_2$ . (Note that a computational graph can be drawn in multiple ways.)
- Taking the derivative of  $v_5$ :

$$egin{align} oldsymbol{D_p v_5} &= (
abla v_5)^\intercal p = \left( rac{\partial v_5}{\partial v_1} 
abla v_1 + rac{\partial v_5}{\partial v_2} 
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abla v_4 + 
abla v_5 + 
a$$

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

• Taking the derivative of  $v_5$ :

$$D_p v_5 = (
abla v_1 + 
abla v_2)^\intercal p = oldsymbol{D_p} v_1 + D_p v_2$$

• We need  $D_p v_1$  and  $D_p v_2 \to \text{computational graph } v_1 = v_{-1} v_0$ :

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{D_p v_1} &= D_p(v_{-1} v_0) = oldsymbol{v_0} oldsymbol{D_p v_{-1}} + v_{-1} D_p v_0 \ & ext{product rule} \end{aligned}$$

• But we know  $v_{-1}=x_1$  and  $v_0=x_2$ :

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{D}_p v_{-1} &= (
abla v_{-1})^\intercal p = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_1} \ rac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}^\intercal p = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} p_1 \ p_2 \end{bmatrix} = p_1 \end{aligned}$$

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

• Taking the derivative of  $v_5$ :

$$D_p v_5 = (
abla v_1 + 
abla v_2)^\intercal p = oldsymbol{D_p} v_1 + D_p v_2$$

• We need  $D_p v_1$  and  $D_p v_2 \to \text{computational graph } v_1 = v_{-1} v_0$ :

$$D_p v_1 = D_p(v_{-1}v_0) = \underbrace{v_0 D_p v_{-1} + v_{-1} D_p v_0}_{ ext{product rule}}$$

• If you do the same math for  $D_p v_0$  you find:

$$D_p v_1 = x_2 p_1 + x_1 p_2$$

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

• Taking the derivative of  $v_5$ :

$$D_p v_5 = (
abla v_1 + 
abla v_2)^\intercal p = D_p v_1 + \overline{D_p v_2}$$

• We find  $D_p v_2$  with  $v_2 = \sin(v_{-1})$  by following the exact same procedure. By doing so we find the solution:

$$D_p v_5 = D_p f_1 = ig( x_2 + \cos(x_1) ig) p_1 + x_1 p_2$$

• For the second component  $f_2$  of the vector function the procedure is again identical. For our computational graph:

$$igg|D_p v_6 = D_p f_2 = ig(1 + x_2 \cos(x_1 x_2)ig) p_1 + ig(1 + x_1 \cos(x_1 x_2)ig) p_2$$

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

• Component  $f_1$ :

$$iggl[ D_p v_5 = D_p f_1 = igl( x_2 + \cos(x_1) igr) p_1 + x_1 p_2 igr]$$

• Component  $f_2$ :

$$D_p v_6 = D_p f_2 = ig(1 + x_2 \cos(x_1 x_2)ig) p_1 + ig(1 + x_1 \cos(x_1 x_2)ig) p_2$$

Analytical solution from earlier slide:

$$abla f = J = egin{bmatrix} \partial f_1/\partial x_1 & \partial f_1/\partial x_2 \ \partial f_2/\partial x_1 & \partial f_2/\partial x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$=egin{bmatrix} x_2 + \cos(x_1) & x_1 \ 1 + x_2 \cos(x_1 x_2) & 1 + x_1 \cos(x_1 x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

Example for  $f(x):\mathbb{R}^m\mapsto\mathbb{R}^n$  with m=2 and n=2:

#### We find the following:

- If we choose  $p=[1,0]^\intercal$  (the *unit vector* for coordinate  $x_1$ ) then  $D_pv_5=\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}$  and  $D_pv_6=\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}$ , exactly the first column of J.
- If we choose  $p=[0,1]^\intercal$  (the *unit vector* for coordinate  $x_2$ ) then  $D_p v_5=\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}$  and  $D_p v_6=\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}$ , exactly the *second column of J*.

**Take-home message:** We can compute the full Jacobian in forward mode AD using m passes, where seed vectors p are set to the m-th unit vector along coordinate  $x_m$  for the m-th pass.

## **COMPLEX NUMBERS**

#### A complex number has the form:

$$z = x + \mathrm{i} y$$

with x the *real* part and y the *imaginary* part.

• The imaginary unit i gives the complex number  $z\in\mathbb{C}$  the special property that defines the square root of a **negative** number

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$
,

such that  $i^2 = -1$ .

• This rather simple definition allows to solve a whole new dimension of problems  $\rightarrow$  things that cannot be explained with real numbers in  $\mathbb R$  can now be expressed with complex numbers in  $\mathbb C$ .

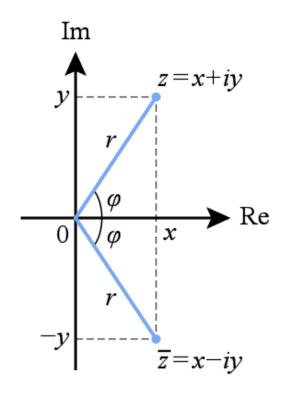
## **COMPLEX NUMBERS**

#### A complex number has the form:

$$z = x + iy$$

with x the *real* part and y the *imaginary* part.

- You can think of z as a twodimensional vector.
- The imaginary unit i extends the real line with an orthogonal imaginary axis.



#### **COMPLEX NUMBERS**

#### Complex numbers have several useful properties:

- Complex conjugate:  $z = x + \mathrm{i} y \to z^* = x \mathrm{i} y$
- ullet Magnitude:  $|z|^2=zz^*=(x+\mathrm{i}y)(x-\mathrm{i}y)=x^2+y^2$
- Polar form:  $z=re^{\mathrm{i}\varphi}$ 
  - r: is called radius, r = |z|
  - $\varphi$ : is called *angle*,  $\varphi = \arctan(y/x)$
- When you compute the product

$$z = z_1 z_2$$

what happens to the radius and angle of z?

• Using the polar form of z, can you see why  $zz^* \in \mathbb{R}$  is a real number?

## **TOWARDS DUAL NUMBERS**

- A dual number is similar to a complex number.
- The unit  $\epsilon$  that gives the dual number its special properties is defined different than the imaginary unit i for a complex number.

A dual number consists of a real part and a dual part and is written as

$$z=a+b\epsilon$$
,

where  $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$  and  $\epsilon$  is a special (nilpotent) number with the property

$$\epsilon^2 = 0$$

and  $\epsilon \neq 0 \rightarrow$  **Note:**  $\epsilon$  is not a real number.

#### Dual numbers have several useful properties:

- Dual conjugate:  $z=a+b\epsilon \rightarrow z^*=a-b\epsilon$
- Magnitude:  $|z|^2=zz^*=(a+b\epsilon)(a-b\epsilon)=a^2$
- Polar decomposition:  $z=a(1+m\epsilon)=ae^{m\epsilon}$ 
  - where  $m=rac{b}{a}$  for a
    eq 0
  - $e^{m\epsilon} = 1 + m\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(m\epsilon)^2 + \ldots = 1 + m\epsilon$

*More interesting*: dual numbers have the following properties for addition and multiplication:

$$z_1+z_2=(a_1+b_1\epsilon)+(a_2+b_2\epsilon)=(a_1+a_2)+(b_1+b_2)\epsilon \ z_1z_2=(a_1+b_1\epsilon)(a_2+b_2\epsilon)=(a_1a_2)+(a_1b_2+a_2b_1)\epsilon$$

$$z_1+z_2=(a_1+b_1\epsilon)+(a_2+b_2\epsilon)=(a_1+a_2)+(b_1+b_2)\epsilon \ z_1z_2=(a_1+b_1\epsilon)(a_2+b_2\epsilon)=(a_1a_2)+(a_1b_2+a_2b_1)\epsilon$$

- Let f(x) and g(x) be two functions with f'(x) and g'(x) their derivative with respect to x.
- Substitute the real part  $a_1=f$  and dual part  $b_1=f'$  in  $z_1$  and  $a_2=g$  and  $b_2=g'$  in  $z_2$ :

$$z_1 + z_2 = (f + f'\epsilon) + (g + g'\epsilon) = (f + g) + (f' + g')\epsilon$$
  
 $z_1 z_2 = (f + f'\epsilon)(g + g'\epsilon) = (fg) + (fg' + f'g)\epsilon$ 

• Substitute the real part  $a_1=f$  and dual part  $b_1=f'$  in  $z_1$  and  $a_2=g$  and  $b_2=g'$  in  $z_2$ :

$$z_1 + z_2 = (f + f'\epsilon) + (g + g'\epsilon) = (f + g) + (f' + g')\epsilon$$
  
 $z_1 z_2 = (f + f'\epsilon)(g + g'\epsilon) = (fg) + (fg' + f'g)\epsilon$ 

#### Observe:

- 1. Adding dual numbers together resembles the linearity of addition and results in adding the functions in the real part and adding the derivatives in the dual part.
- 2. Multiplication results in multiplication of the functions in the real part and the product rule for the derivatives in the dual part.

- Think of f and g as intermediate results  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  in the primal trace of forward mode AD.
- Then their derivatives f' and g' correspond to the tangent trace  $D_p v_i$  and  $D_p v_j$ , respectively.
- In forward mode AD, we always evaluate  $v_j$  and  $D_p v_j$  simultaneously (in each row of the trace table we compute both). We carry the primal trace and tangent trace forward as a pair.
- A dual number is therefore a very useful structure in forward mode AD. It can be used to encode the *primal trace in the real part* and the *tangent trace in the dual part*:

$$z_j = v_j + D_p v_j \epsilon$$

#### **Example:** evaluate a node $v_3$ in a computational graph

• Assume the relationship for  $v_3$  is as follows. The notation we have used so far to express this in the evaluation trace table is:

$$v_3 = v_1 v_2$$

• We now write this relationship with *dual numbers* 

$$z_3=z_1z_2,$$

where 
$$z_1=v_1+D_pv_1\epsilon$$
 and  $z_2=v_2+D_pv_2\epsilon$ .

From the dual number product rule on the previous slide:

$$z_3 = \underbrace{v_1 v_2}_{ ext{primal trace}} + \underbrace{(v_2 D_p v_1 + v_1 D_p v_2)}_{ ext{tangent trace}} \epsilon,$$

- Up to here, dual numbers have most of the properties we require in forward mode automatic differentiation.
- The last requirement we have on dual numbers to be useful for AD is that we can use them with the *chain rule*.
- We must prove that the chain rule holds for a function f(z), where  $z=a+b\epsilon$  is now a dual number. The tool we use for this is a Taylor series expansion.
- We can expand any analytic function f(z), where  $z=a+b\epsilon$  is a dual number, using a Taylor series expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(\kappa)}(\zeta)}{\kappa!} (z - \zeta)^{\kappa}$$
.

• Let  $\zeta=a+0\epsilon$  be the dual number around which we want to expand the series for f(z). The point  $\zeta$  is arbitrary and we choose it to be in the close neighborhood of z. The real part of  $\zeta$  is the same as for z and  $\epsilon$  is small.

• We can expand any analytic function f(z), where  $z=a+b\epsilon$  is a dual number, using a Taylor series expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{\kappa=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(\kappa)}(\zeta)}{\kappa!} (z - \zeta)^{\kappa}$$
.

- Let  $\zeta=a+0\epsilon$  be the dual number around which we want to expand the series for f(z). The point  $\zeta$  is arbitrary and we choose it to be in the close neighborhood of z. The real part of  $\zeta$  is the same as for z and  $\epsilon$  is small.
- Expanding the series we find:

$$egin{align} f(z) &= f(a+b\epsilon) = \sum_{\kappa=0}^\infty rac{f^{(\kappa)}(\zeta)}{\kappa!} (z-\zeta)^\kappa = \sum_{\kappa=0}^\infty rac{f^{(\kappa)}(a)}{\kappa!} (b\epsilon)^\kappa \ &= f(a) + f'(a)b\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

• Expanding the series we find:

$$egin{align} f(z) &= f(a+b\epsilon) = \sum_{\kappa=0}^\infty rac{f^{(\kappa)}(\zeta)}{\kappa!} (z-\zeta)^\kappa = \sum_{\kappa=0}^\infty rac{f^{(\kappa)}(a)}{\kappa!} (b\epsilon)^\kappa \ &= f(a) + f'(a)b\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

- ullet All higher order terms vanish because of the definition  $\epsilon^2=0$
- Use the dual number  $z_j = v_j + D_p v_j \epsilon$  as we did before and substitute:

$$f(z_j) = f(v_j) + f'(v_j) D_p v_j \epsilon$$

- $\rightarrow$  if we apply an analytic function f on the dual number  $z_j$ , the result is another dual number with:
  - lacktriangle Real part equal to f applied to real part of  $z_j$
  - Dual part equal to the dual part of  $z_j$ , scaled with f' applied to real part of  $z_j$  (chain rule!)

• Use the dual number  $z_j = v_j + D_p v_j \epsilon$  as we did before and substitute:

$$f(z_j) = f(v_j) + f'(v_j) D_p v_j \epsilon$$

• Recall: last lecture we were studying the forward primal and tangent traces of  $f(x) = x - \exp(-2(\sin(4x))^2)$ . The first two intermediate variables are shown again below:

Forward primal trace	Forward tangent trace	Numerical value: $v_j; D_p v_j$
$v_0 = x_1 = \frac{\pi}{16}$	$D_p v_0=1$	1.963495e-01; 1.000000e+00
$v_1=4v_0$	$D_p v_1 = 4D_p v_0$	7.853982e-01; 4.000000e+00
$v_2=\sin(v_1)$	$D_p v_2 = \cos(v_1) D_p v_1$	7.071068e-01; 2.828427e+00

• Let  $z_1=v_1+D_pv_1\epsilon$  and  $z_2=\sin(z_1)$ . Using the rule above, we find:

$$z_2 = \sin(z_1) = \underbrace{\sin(v_1)}_{v_2} + \underbrace{\cos(v_1)D_pv_1}_{D_pv_2}\epsilon$$

#### **DUAL NUMBERS: EXERCISE**

Given the function: 
$$f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{(\cos(x))^2 + 1}$$

#### Perform the following tasks:

- 1. Draw the computational graph for f(x). The last intermediate variable is  $v_5=f(x_1)$ , where  $x_1$  is the point where we evaluate f.
- 2. Show that  $D_p v_5$  takes the form

$$D_p v_5 = rac{1}{v_4^2} (v_4 D_p v_1 - v_1 D_p v_4)$$

for  $v_5 = g(v_1, v_4)$  with g some function (hint  $\rightarrow$  chain rule).

3. Compute the last intermediate state with dual numbers  $z_5 = g(z_1, z_4)$ . Note that the function g is the same as in item 2 above, we just use dual numbers this time. Depending on how you draw the graph, the arguments to g may have different subscripts.

#### **RECAP**

#### **Automatic Differentiation: Forward Mode**

- Beyond the basics:
  - Computing derivatives in higher dimensions using the forward mode
  - The Jacobian in forward mode
  - What the forward mode actually computes
- Review of complex numbers
- Introduction of dual numbers

#### **Further reading:**

- P. H.W. Hoffmann, A Hitchhiker's Guide to Automatic Differentiation, Springer 2015, doi:10.1007/s11075-015-0067-6 (You can access this paper through the Harvard network or find it in the class repository)
- Griewank, A. and Walther, A., Evaluating derivatives: principles and techniques of algorithmic differentiation,
   SIAM 2008, Vol. 105
- Nocedal, J. and Wright, S., Numerical Optimization, Springer 2006, 2nd Edition