ROB 101 - Fall 2021

Solutions of Nonlinear Equations (Vector-valued Functions)

November 8, 2021



Learning Objectives

- Extend our horizons from linear equations to nonlinear equations.
- Appreciate the power of using algorithms to iteratively construct approximate solutions to a problem.
- Accomplish all of this without assuming a background in Calculus.

Outcomes

- Linear approximations of nonlinear functions.
- Extensions of these ideas to vector-valued functions of several variables, that is $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$, with key notions being the gradient and Jacobian of a function.

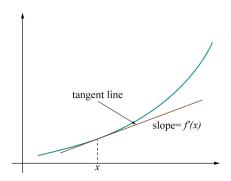
Essence Newton's Method

- Recall Newton's method is a root-finding algorithm which produces successively better approximations to the roots (or zeroes) of a real-valued function.
- ➤ The idea is to start with an initial guess (reasonably close to the true root), then to approximate the function by its tangent line, and finally to compute the x-intercept of this tangent line by elementary algebra.

Essence Newton's Method

Core concept: approximate the nonlinear function by its tangent line at the current operating point.

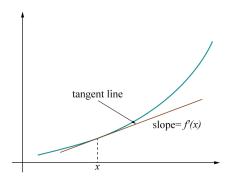
Q. What is the best linear approximation of a nonlinear function?



Linear Approximation at a Point

The linear function y(x) that passes through the point (x_0,y_0) with slope a can be written as

$$y(x) = y_0 + a\left(x - x_0\right).$$



Linear Approximation at a Point

- We define the *linear approximation of a function at a point* x_0 by taking $y_0 := f(x_0)$ and $a := \frac{df(x_0)}{dx} = f'(x_0)$.
- ► This gives us

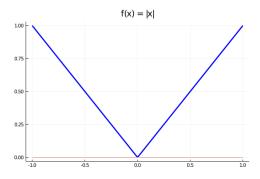
$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + \frac{df(x_0)}{dx} (x - x_0).$$

Numerical Approximations of a Derivative

For a smooth (continuous and differentiable) function and sufficiently small h, the following *finite difference* approximations of the derivatives are possible.

- Forward difference $\frac{df(x_0)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x_0+h)-f(x_0)}{h}$.
- **Backward difference** $\frac{df(x_0)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x_0) f(x_0 h)}{h}$.
- Symmetric or central difference $\frac{df(x_0)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x_0+h)-f(x_0-h)}{2h}$.

Explain why the function f(x) = |x| is not differentiable at $x_0 = 0$.



We compute

forward difference:

$$\frac{df(0)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(0+h) - f(0)}{h} = \frac{|h| - 0}{h} = \frac{h}{h} = \boxed{+1},$$

backward difference:

$$\frac{df(0)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(0) - f(0-h)}{h} = \frac{0 - |-h|}{h} = \frac{-h}{h} = \boxed{-1},$$

and central difference:

$$\frac{df(0)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(0+h) - f(0-h)}{2h} = \frac{|h| - |-h|}{2h} = \frac{h-h}{2h} = \boxed{0}.$$

Remark

These three methods giving very different approximations to the "slope" at the origin is a strong hint that the function is not differentiable at the origin.

By following different paths as we approach x_0 , approaching x_0 from the left versus the right for example, gives different answers for the "slope" of the function at x_0 . In Calculus, you'll learn that this means the function is not differentiable at x_0 .

Consider a function $f:\mathbb{R}^m\to\mathbb{R}^n$. We seek a means to build a linear approximation of the function near a given point $x_0\in\mathbb{R}^m$.

▶ When m = n = 1, we can approximate a function by

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + \frac{df(x_0)}{dx}(x - x_0) =: f(x_0) + a(x - x_0).$$

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For the general case of $f:\mathbb{R}^m\to\mathbb{R}^n$, can we find an $n\times m$ matrix A such that

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + A(x - x_0).$$

- ightharpoonup A function $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a vector-valued function.
- We compute its best linear approximation via the generalization of the derivative $A:=\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}\Big|_{x=x_0}$ such that

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + A(x - x_0).$$

► The input is a vector such as $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$. If we use the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^m , we have

$$x = x_1e_1 + x_2e_2 + \dots + x_ne_m = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_ie_i.$$

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$$x = x_1e_1 + x_2e_2 + \dots + x_ne_m = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_ie_i.$$

Then we can use a finite difference approximation to compute each column of $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^{\text{col}} & \dots & a_m^{\text{col}} \end{bmatrix}$ as

$$a_i^{\text{col}} = \frac{\partial f(x_0)}{\partial x_i} = \frac{f(x_0 + he_i) - f(x_0 - he_i)}{2h}$$

The Gradient

- For the special case of $n=1, f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$, the matrix A is a row vector and called the *gradient* of f.
- The following notations are all common

$$A = \nabla f = \operatorname{grad} f$$
.

▶ The symbol ∇ (nabla or del) is a common notation to refer to the gradient of f.

The Jacobian

For the general case of $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$, A is an $n \times m$ matrix and called the *Jacobian* of f, i.e.,

$$A_{n \times m} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^{\text{col}} & \dots & a_m^{\text{col}} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}.$$

▶ Each column of the Jacobian $a_i^{\text{col}} = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ shows the rate of change of f along e_i .

For the function

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) := \begin{bmatrix} x_1 x_2 x_3 \\ \log(2 + \cos(x_1)) + x_2^{x_1} \\ \frac{x_1 x_3}{1 + x_2^2} \end{bmatrix},$$

compute its Jacobian at the point

$$x_0 = \left[\begin{array}{c} \pi \\ 1.0 \\ 2.0 \end{array} \right]$$

and evaluate the "accuracy" of its linear approximation.

Using h = 0.001 and central differences we get

$$a_1^{\text{col}} = \frac{\partial f(x_0)}{\partial x_1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 1.0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$a_2^{\text{col}} = \frac{\partial f(x_0)}{\partial x_2} = \begin{bmatrix} 6.2832 \\ 3.1416 \\ -3.1416 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$a_3^{\text{col}} = \frac{\partial f(x_0)}{\partial x_3} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.1416 \\ 0.0000 \\ 1.5708 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The Jacobian at x_0 is

$$A := \frac{\partial f(x_0)}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.0000 & 6.2832 & 3.1416 \\ 0.0000 & 3.1416 & 0.0000 \\ 1.0000 & -3.1416 & 1.5708 \end{bmatrix},$$

and the linear approximation is

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + A(x - x_0) = \begin{bmatrix} 6.2832 \\ 1.0000 \\ 3.1416 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2.0000 & 6.2832 & 3.1416 \\ 0.0000 & 3.1416 & 0.0000 \\ 1.0000 & -3.1416 & 1.5708 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \pi \\ x_2 - 1.0 \\ x_3 - 2.0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

► To assess the quality of the linear approximation, we measure the error defined as

$$e(x) := ||f(x) - f_{lin}(x)||,$$

where
$$f_{lin}(x) := f(x_0) + A(x - x_0)$$
.

To assess the quality of the linear approximation, we measure the error defined as

$$e(x) := \|f(x) - f_{\mathrm{lin}}(x)\|,$$
 where $f_{\mathrm{lin}}(x) := f(x_0) + A(x - x_0).$

We will seek to estimate the maximum value of e(x) over a region containing the point x_0 . Define

$$S(x_0) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |x_i - x_{0i}| \le d, i = 1, 2, 3 \}$$

and

Max Error :=
$$\max_{x \in S(x_0)} e(x) = \max_{x \in S(x_0)} ||f(x) - f_{\text{lin}}(x)||.$$

For d=0.25, we used a "random search" routine and estimated that

$$Max Error = 0.12.$$

To put this into context,

$$\max_{x \in S(x_0)} ||f(x)|| = 8.47,$$

and thus the relative error is about 1.5%.

Let's switch to the Julia notebook for some more examples.

Next Time

- ► Newton-Raphson Method
- ▶ Read Chapter 11 of ROB 101 Book