# Linear equations 3

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### Today's outline

- Introduction
- Sparse matrices
- Laplace's equation
- Creating a sparse system
- Iterative methods
- Summary



### Sparse matrices

- In many engineering cases, we deal with sparse matrices (as opposed to dense matrices)
- A matrix is sparse when it mostly consists of zeros
- Linear systems where equations depend on a limited number of variables (e.g. spatial discretization)
- Storing zeros is not very efficient:

```
import numpy as np
from scipy.sparse import csr_matrix

A = np.eye(10000)
print(A.nbytes)

S = csr_matrix(A)
print(S.data.nbytes)
```

• Can you think of a way to achieve this?



Sparse matrix formats: Yale, CRS, CCS

### Sparse matrix storage format

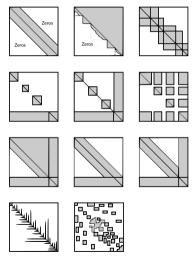
 Example: Yale storage format, storing 3 vectors:

- A stores the non-zero values
- IA stores the index in A of the first non-zero in row i
- JA stores the column index

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Sparse matrix layout examples





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### Laplace's equation

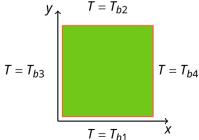
$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha \nabla^2 T$$

$$T = \text{Temperature}$$

$$\alpha = \text{Thermal diffusivity}$$

In steady state:

$$\nabla^2 T = 0$$



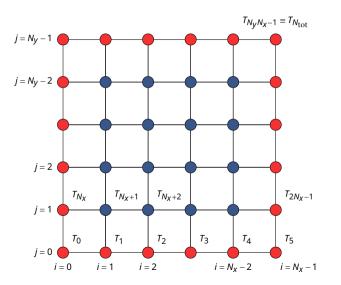
Laplace's equation 00000





### Discretization of Laplace's equation (I)

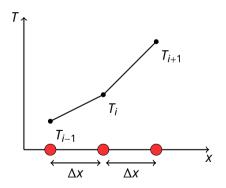
Laplace's equation 00000



- Define a grid of points in x and y
- Index of the grid points using 2D coordinates i and *i*
- Set up the equations using a 1D index system:  $T_{i,i} \rightarrow T_{i+iNX}$

### Discretization of Laplace's equation (II)

Estimate the second-order differentials: assume a piece-wise linear profile in the temperature:



$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} \approx \frac{\left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right|_{i + \frac{1}{2}} - \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right|_{i - \frac{1}{2}}}{\Delta x}$$

$$\approx \frac{\left(T_{i+1,j} - T_{i,j}\right)}{\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x}} - \frac{\left(T_{i,j} - T_{i-1,j}\right)}{\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x}}$$

$$=\frac{T_{i+1,j}-2T_{i,j}+T_{i-1,j}}{(\Delta x)^2}$$



### Discretization of Laplace's equation (III)

The y-direction is derived analogously, so that the 2D Laplace's equation is discretized as:

$$\frac{T_{i+1,j}-2T_{i,j}+T_{i-1,j}}{(\Delta x)^2}+\frac{T_{i,j+1}-2T_{i,j}+T_{i,j-1}}{(\Delta y)^2}=0$$

Use a single index counter  $k = i + N_x(j-1)$ , so that the equation becomes:

$$\frac{T_{k+1} - 2T_k + T_{k-1}}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{T_{k+N_x} - 2T_k + T_{k-N_x}}{(\Delta y)^2} = 0$$

For an equal spaced grid  $\Delta x = \Delta y = 1$ :

$$T_{k-N_x} + T_{k-1} - 4T_k + T_{k+1} + T_{k+N_x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow AT = b$$





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### Creating the linear system

$$T_{k-N_x} + T_{k-1} - 4T_k + T_{k+1} + T_{k+N_x} = 0$$

Create a *banded* matrix A: the main diagonal k contains -4, whereas the bands at k-1, k+1,  $k-N_x$  and  $k+N_x$  contain a 1. Boundary cells just contain a 1 on the main diagonal so that the temperature is equal to  $T_b$  (e.g.  $T_1 = 1T_b$ ).

1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	• • •	0]	[ T <sub>-</sub> ]	1	Γ <del>-</del> 1	
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	•••	0	$T_1$		$\left  \begin{array}{c} I_b \\ T_b \end{array} \right $	
:	÷	÷	÷	:	÷	÷	÷	٠٠.	:	:		:	
	1		1	-4	1		1	٠	0	$T_k$	_	0	
0		1		1	-4	1		1	:	$T_k + 1$	_	0	
:	:	÷	:	:	÷	÷	÷	٠.	:	, :		:   T <sub>b</sub>	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	$T_{N_yN_x-2}$		$\left  \begin{array}{c} I_b \\ T_b \end{array} \right $	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	$\left[T_{N_yN_x-1}\right]$		['b]	

### Creating the linear system

$$T_{k-N_x} + T_{k-1} - 4T_k + T_{k+1} + T_{k+N_x} = 0$$

Create a *banded* matrix *A* in Python, by setting the coefficients for the internal cells:

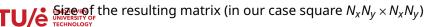
```
import numpy as np
from scipy.sparse import diags

Nx,Ny = 50,50 # Number of grid points along x,y direction
Nc = Nx*Ny # Total number of points

e = np.ones(Nc)
A = diags([e, e, -4*e, e, e], [-Nx, -1, 0, 1, Nx], shape=(Nc,Nc))
b = np.zeros(Nc)
```

The function diags uses the following arguments:

- The coefficients that have to be put on the diagonals arranged as columns in a matrix
- The position of the bands with respect to the main diagonal

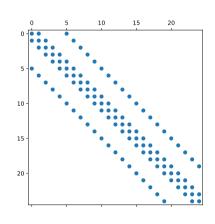


### Matrix sparsity

 Let's check the matrix layout by adding:

```
print(A)
plt.spy(A, marker='o', markersize=6)
```

- The sparse structure stores/prints only the nonzero elements
- spy shows the location of the nonzero values in the matrix
- Apart from the main diagonal, there are offset bands!





### About boundary conditions

• For the nodes on the boundary, we have a simple equation:

```
T_{k,\text{boundary}} = \text{Some fixed value}
```

- However, we have set all nodes to be a function of their neighbors
- Solution: Determine the boundary node indices *k* and set the coefficients accordingly

```
bnd_bottom = np.arange(Nx)
bnd_left = np.arange(Ny) * Nx
bnd_right = bnd_left + Nx - 1
bnd_top = bnd_bottom + Nx*(Ny-1)
```

- Reset each row k in A to zeros, then set element  $A_{kk} = 1$
- Set values in rhs:  $b_k = T_{boundary}$
- Boundary conditions are often more elaborate to implement!



### Implementation of the boundary conditions

A (shortened) version of the set\_boundary\_conditions(A,b,Tb,Nx,Ny) function:

```
def set_boundary_conditions(A, b, Tb, Nx, Ny):
      A = lil_matrix(A) # Required for efficient modification of the sparsity
       # Select nodes that lie at the boundaries
       bnd_bottom = np.arange(Nx)
       bnd_left = np.arange(Ny) * Nx
       bnd right = bnd left + Nx - 1
8
       bnd_{top} = bnd_{bottom} + Nx*(Nv-1)
9
10
       bnd_all = np.unique(np.concatenate((bnd_bottom,bnd_left,bnd_right,bnd_top)))
       # Reset the coefficient row to zero, add a 1 only on the main diagonal
13
      A[bnd_all.:] = 0
14
      A[bnd_all.bnd_all] = 1
16
       b[bnd_bottom] = Tb['bottom']
       b[bnd left] = Tb['left']
18
       b[bnd_right] = Tb['right']
19
       b[bnd_top] = Tb['top']
20
21
22
      return A.tocsr(), b
```

### How applying boundary conditions affects the linear system

Using the functions provided in laplace\_demo.py:

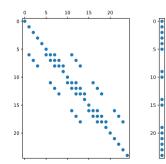
```
Nx = Ny = 5 # number of internal grid cells over x/y-direction

T_boundary = {'bottom': 300, 'left': 1000, 'right': 1000, 'top': 500}

A,b = create_laplace_coefficient_matrix(Nx,Ny)
A,b = set_boundary_conditions(A, b, T_boundary, Nx, Ny)
```

Check the new structure of the matrix and the right hand side:

```
plt.subplot(121); plt.spy(A2);
plt.subplot(122); plt.spy(b[:,None]);
```





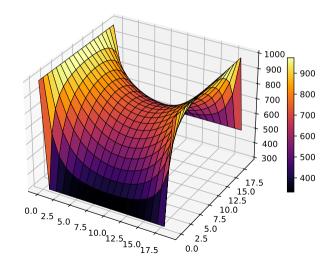
### A full program, including solver

The program and auxiliary functions are on Canvas (laplace\_demo.py)

```
import numpy as np
  from scipv.sparse.linalg import spsolve
  from matplotlib import cm
  import matplotlib.pvplot as plt
  Nx = Nv = 20
  T_boundary = {'bottom': 300, 'left': 1000, 'right': 1000, 'top': 500}
  A,b = create_laplace_coefficient_matrix(Nx,Nv)
  A.b = set_boundary_conditions(A, b, T_boundary, Nx, Ny)
  T = spsolve(A,b).reshape((Nx,Nv))
14
  fig, ax = plt.subplots(subplot_kw={"projection": "3d"})
16 x,y = np.meshgrid(np.arange(Nx),np.arange(Ny))
surf = ax.plot_surface(x, y, T, cmap=cm.inferno)
18 fig.colorbar(surf, shrink=0.5)
  plt.show()
```



# Sample results





### Exercise: Verify the numerical solution using Fourier-series

A Fourier-series expansion for the steady-state heat conduction in a flat plate is given for a domain:  $x,y \in [0,1]$ , with fixed-temperature boundaries  $T\big|_{x=0} = T\big|_{x=1} = T\big|_{y=0} = 0$  and  $T\big|_{y=1} = 1$ :

$$T = \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(m\pi x) \sinh(m\pi y)}{m \sinh(m\pi)} \quad \text{with} \quad m = 2n - 1$$

Compute and plot the exact temperature profile in the 2D plate, and compare it with the numerical solution:

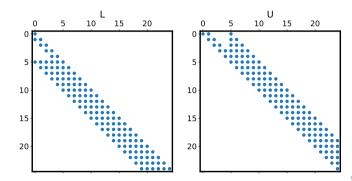
#### Hints:

- Use meshgrid to create a mesh in x and y
- Compute the temperature using the Fourier series, use vectorised computations over *x* and *y* so that only 1 loop (over n) is required.
- Solve the numerics for the same problem (note the boundary conditions)
- Compare the numerical and exact solutions (e.g. a plot).

### LU decomposition of a sparse matrix

```
import numpy as np
from scipy.linalg import lu
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from laplace_demo import
      create_laplace_coefficient_matrix
A,b = create_laplace_coefficient_matrix(5,5)
# Perform LU decomposition
  Note: lu does not work on sparse arrays.
 so we map to a full array
P.L.U = lu(A.toarray())
# Plot the sparsity patterns of L and U
plt.subplot(121)
plt.spy(L)
plt.title('L')
plt.subplot(122)
plt.spy(U)
plt.title('U')
plt.tight_layout()
```

- With LU decomposition we produce matrices that are less sparse than the original matrix.
- Sparse storage often required, and also numerical techniques that fully utilizes this!





### LU decomposition

- LU decomposition and Gaussian elimination on a matrix like A requires more memory (with 3D problems, the offset in the diagonal would even be bigger!)
- In general extra memory allocation will not be a problem for Python
- Python is clever, in that sense that it attempts to reorder equations, to move elements closer to the diagonal)

#### Alternatives for elimination methods

- Use iterative methods when systems are large and sparse.
- Often such systems are encountered when we want to solve PDE's of higher dimensions



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### Examples of iterative methods

- Jacobi method
- Gauss-Seidel method
- Succesive over relaxation
- bicg Bi-conjugate gradient method
- pcg preconditioned conjugate gradient method
- gmres generalized minimum residuals method
- bicgstab Bi-conjugate gradient method



### The Jacobi method

• In our example we derived the following equation:

$$T_{k-N_x} + T_{k-1} - 4T_k + T_{k+1} + T_{k+N_x} = 0$$

• Rearranging gives:

$$T_k = \frac{T_{k-N_x} + T_{k-1} + T_{k+1} + T_{k+N_x}}{4}$$

- In the Jacobi scheme the iteration proceeds as follows:
  - **1** Start with an initial guess for the values of *T* at each node
  - 2 Compute updated values and store a new vector:

$$T_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{T_{k-N_x}^{\text{old}} + T_{k-1}^{\text{old}} + T_{k+1}^{\text{old}} + T_{k+N_x}^{\text{old}}}{4}$$

- 3 Do this for all nodes
- EINDHOVEN UNIVERSITY OF 4 Repeat the procedure until converged



### Jacobi method for Laplace's equation

See laplace\_jacobi.py for animation included (from Canvas)

```
import numpy as np
  import matplotlib.pvplot as plt
  # Set grid resolution
  nx = 40
  nv = 40
  # Set old solution array
  T = np.zeros((nx,nv))
  # Set boundary conditions
  T[0,:] = 40 \# Left
  T[nx-1,:] = 60 # Right
  T[:,0] = 20 \# Bottom
  T[:.nv-1] = 30 # Top
16
  # Set new solution array (inc bnd
        conditions)
  Tnew = T.copv()
```

 $\rightarrow$  Try to modify this script so that 1 cell/block of cells in the center is kept at 100 degrees



### About the straightforward implementation

- The method as implemented works fine for a simple Laplace equation
- For generic systems of linear equations, the implementation cannot be used.

We will now introduce the Jacobi method so it can be used for generic systems of linear equations.



### The Jacobi method with matrices

We can split our (banded) matrix A into a diagonal matrix D and a remainder R:

$$A = D + H$$



### lacobi method: solving a system

• We can solve AT = b, now written generally as Ax = b, by:

$$Ax = b$$

$$(D + R)x = b$$

$$Dx = b - Rx$$

$$Dx^{\text{new}} = b - Rx^{\text{old}}$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = D^{-1}(b - Rx^{\text{old}})$$

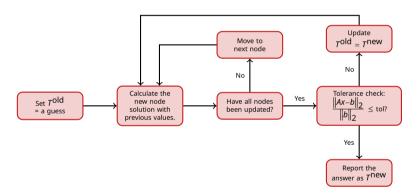
• Using the n and n+1 notation for old and new time steps, we find in general:

$$x^{n+1} = D^{-1} \left( b - Rx^n \right)$$

$$x_i^{n+1} = \frac{1}{A_{ii}} \left( b_i - \sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} x_j^n \right)$$



### Diagram of the Jacobi method





troduction Sparse matrices Laplace's equation Creating a sparse system **Iterative methods** Summary

### The core of the solver

The full function jacobi(A, b, tol=1e-2) is on Canvas, see it\_methods.py. The gist is:

```
# While not converged or max_it not reached
  while (x_diff > tol and it_jac < 1000):</pre>
       x_{old} = x.copy()
       for i in range(N):
           s = 0
           for j in range(N):
                if j != i:
                     # Sum off-diagonal*x_old
                     s += A[i,j] * x_old[j]
9
           # Compute new x value
           x[i] = (b[i] - s) / A[i,i]
       # Increase number of iterations
13
       it iac += 1
14
       x \text{ diff} = \text{norm}(A@x - b)/\text{norm}(b)
```

Try to call it from the laplace\_demo.py file, instead of using spsolve.



### A few details on this algorithm

- The while loop holds two aspects
  - A convergence criterion (norm(A@x b)/norm(b)> tol). Some considerations are:
    - $L_1$ -norm (sum)
    - L<sub>2</sub>-norm (Euclidian distance)
    - $L_{\infty}^-$ -norm (max)
  - Protection against infinite loops (no convergence)
- Reset the sum for each row, before summing for the new unknown node
- Start vector x is not shown in the example, but should be there!
- It can have huge impact on performance!
- The for-loops also have a large performance penalty!

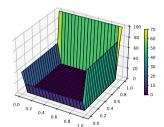


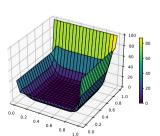
### The solver using array indices

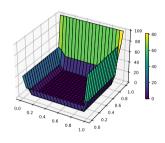
Make a copy of the Jacobian solver, and replace the for-loop on j by a vector-operation in a new function jacobi\_vec(A, b, tol=1e-2):

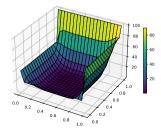


### Iterations 1, 2, 5 and 10











### Gauss-Seidel method

The Gauss-Seidel method is quite similar to Jacobi method

- The only difference is that the new estimate  $x^{\text{new}}$  is returned to the solution  $x^{\text{old}}$  as soon as it is completed
- For following nodes, the updated solution is used immediately
- Our straightforward script (from the Jacobi method) is therefore changed easily:
  - Do not create a Tnew array (save memory!)
  - Do not store the solution in τnew, but simply in τ
  - Do not perform the update step T=Tnew
  - See gaussseidel(A, b, tol=1e-2) for the algorithm.
- The straightforward script works well for the current Laplace equation, but we define the generic Gauss-Seidel algorithm on the following slides.



### Gauss-Seidel method

- Define a lower and strictly upper triangular matrix, such that A = L + U
- Now we can solve AT=b by:

$$(L+U)T = b$$
  
 $LT = b - UT$   
 $LT^{\text{new}} = b - UT^{\text{old}}$   
 $T^{\text{new}} = L^{-1}(b - UT^{\text{old}})$ 

 Using the n and n + 1 notation for old and new time steps, we find in for the general Gauss-Seidel method:

$$x^{n+1} = L^{-1} \left( b - Ux^n \right)$$

$$X_i^{n+1} = \frac{1}{A_{ii}} \left( b_i - \sum_{j < i} A_{ij} X_j^{n+1} - \sum_{j > i} A_{ij} X_j^n \right)$$



### Create yourself: Gauss-Seidel method

- Create a copy of the jacobi method and rename it to gaussseidel
- Rework the inner algorithm to reflect the changes for the Gauss-Seidel method
- Test! Perform a timing check and check if the solution is correct.
- Next, create a new copy of the just created method and vectorize it, analogous to our vectorized Jacobi method



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### Summary

- Partial differential equations can be discretized into sparse systems of linear equations
- Sparse matrices can be stored in memory efficiently using specialised formats (e.g. compressed row storage)
- The Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel methods were introduced as iterative methods; other methods are based on the same principle (successive over-relaxation method, for example)
- Various implementation issues were discussed, e.g. vectorised computing, convergence tolerances



### Direct methods vs. Iterative methods

- Iterative methods converge gradually to a solution while direct methods (possibly with partial pivoting) factorise a (set of) matrix(ces) which allow to compute the solution by substitution.
- Direct methods generally use more memory, since they need to store also the result matrices.
- A strictly (or irreducibly) diagonally dominant matrix is a prerequisite for convergence of the Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel method.
- For real-life situations; 1D problems are generally solved with direct methods (LU
  decomposition). If you have systems of more than 1 dimension, a direct method
  still can be used, if there are no memory issues, otherwise an iterative method
  would be more attractive.

