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# *Numerical Methods*

Assignment 2

## PROBLEM 1

The goal is to implement Newton's method for a generic function  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ . I will use a symbolic computation library to compute the Jacobian  $\mathbf{J}_F$ , which means the function needs to consist of sympy-compatible primitives. Except for this restriction, the functions can be generic.

LISTING 1: *Helper functions for symbolic manipulation*

---

```

1 # file: src/alg.py
2 import numpy as np
3 from numpy import linalg as LA
4 import sympy as sp
5
6 from numpy import linalg as la
7 import scipy.sparse as scsp
8
9
10 def symbolic_jac(py_fn):
11     # Computes a symbolic jacobian matrix
12     # for a function f : R^2 -> R^2.
13
14     # compute the entries of the vector by
15     # evaluating the function for sp-symbols
16     x, y = sp.symbols('x y')
17     f1, f2 = py_fn(x, y)
18     F = sp.Matrix([f1, f2])
19
20     return F.jacobian([x, y])
21
22
23 def callable_fn(symbolic):
24     # Create a function that substitutes
25     # for the symbolic values.
26     x, y = sp.symbols('x y')
27     return sp.lambdify(
28         [x, y], symbolic, 'numpy'
29 )

```

---

Armed with some auxiliary functions to handle the symbolic computation, we implement the iteration using the Newton method equation

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{J}_F^{-1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$$

LISTING 2: *Newton's method*

---

```

1 # file: src/alg.py
2 MAX_ITER = 100
3
4 def solve(F, x0, tol=1E-6):
5     x, y = x0
6     assert x + y != 0, "Singular Jacobian!"
7
8     # Compute the jacobian symbolically
9     J = symbolic_jac(F)
10    # Make a "callable" inverse
11    Ji = callable_fn(J.inv())
12
13    def step(f, Ji_f, r):
14        # computes the next step using
15        # the Newton method equation.
16        return r - Ji_f(*r).dot(f(*r))
17
18
19    for _ in range(MAX_ITER):
20        px, py = x, y
21        x, y = step(F, Ji, (x, y))
22        yield x, y
23
24        # check the tolerance criteria
25        if la.norm(F(x, y)) < tol:
26            break
27        if la.norm((x - px, y - py)) < tol:
28            break
29
30    def last(it):
31        # run an iterator to the end
32        x = None
33        for x in it: pass
34    return x

```

---

```

>>> from src.alg import solve, last
>>> def F(x, y):
...     return x**2 + y**2 - 2, x - y

>>> solve(F, (-1,0))
<generator...>
>>> last(solve(F, (-1,0)))
(-1.000000000013107, -1.000000000013107)
>>> last(solve(F, (1,0)))
(1.000000000013107, 1.000000000013107)

```

---

The interactive session shows how the function can be used, (it may not be so obvious since it is implemented as a generator-function, so we can collect the error *from outside*; single responsibility principle and so on) and that

it is correct at least for two points in different basins of attraction for the equation

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 + y^2 - 2 \\ x - y \end{pmatrix},$$

which has its true roots in  $(-1, -1)$  and  $(1, 1)$ .

## QUADRATIC CONVERGENCE

We want to verify that Newton's method converges quadratically, also in the multivariable case. To see this, we want to evaluate the limit

$$\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{n+1} - \mathbf{x}_n\|_2}{\|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_{n-1}\|_2^2}.$$

Obviously, we don't have an infinite number of terms of  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$ . The best we can do is approximate  $\mu$  by the ratios of our finite sequence.

LISTING 3: Computing the sequence of ratios

```
1 approx = list(solve(F, (1000, 0), tol=1E-15))
2
3 def pairs(L):
4     yield from zip(L[1:], L)
5
6 def diffs(L):
7     for (xn, yn), (xm, ym) in pairs(L):
8         yield (xn - xm, yn - ym)
9
10 def norms(vs):
11     for v in vs: yield LA.norm(v)
12
13 norms_of_diffs = list(norms(diffs(approx)))
14
15 for p, q in pairs(norms_of_diffs):
16     print(p/q**2)
```

Which produces the following values. Note that we need to use a very low tolerance, otherwise we will not see anything resembling convergence at all.

TABLE 1: The sequence  $\{\mu_n\}$  of ratios of error.

Iteration	$\mu_n$
1	0.001 414
2	0.002 828
3	0.005 656
4	0.011 309
5	0.022 596
6	0.045 009
7	0.088 582
8	0.166 701
9	0.272 763
10	0.341 980
11	0.353 357
12	0.353 553
13	0.354 073

It seems like the sequence settles on  $\mu \approx 0.35$ , which indicates quadratic convergence.

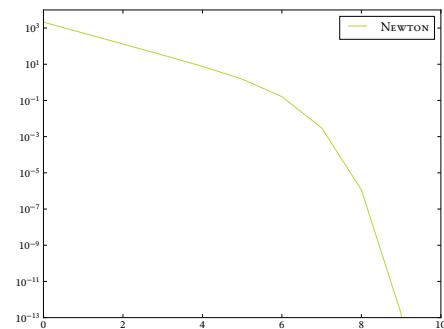


FIGURE 1: Convergence of Newton's method with the norm  $\|\mathbf{F}(x, y)\|_2$

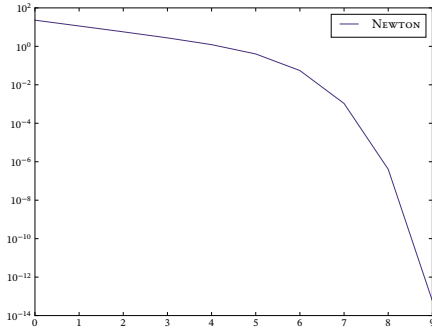


FIGURE 2: Convergence of Newton's method with the norm  $\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k\|_2$

The figures indicate that the convergence is at least super-linear. It is not easy to read from an image exactly how fast the convergence is, but with the estimated  $\mu$ , quadratic convergence seems likely.

### CONVERGENCE ALONG DIAGONALS

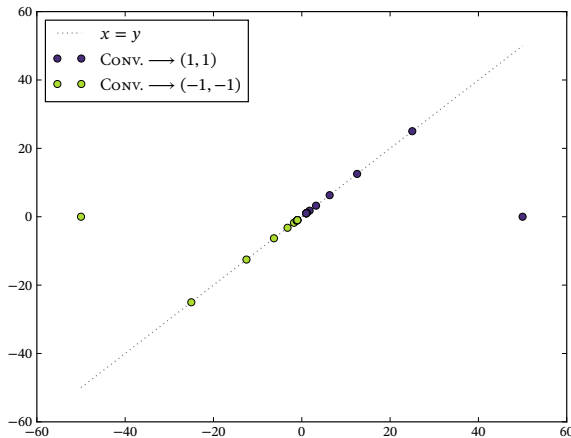


FIGURE 3: Convergence of Newton's method along the line  $x = y$ , starting at  $\mathbf{x} = (-50, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{x} = (50, 0)$ .

## OPTIONAL PROBLEM

### PROBLEM 2

We want to consider the linear system

$$A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f},$$

where

$$A = (L + (\Delta x)^2 k^2 I)$$

is a matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2 \times n^2}$ , and  $\Delta x = 1/n$ . Notice that  $A$  is an operator that operates on vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ , corresponding to an  $n \times n$  lattice in a domain  $\Omega$ :

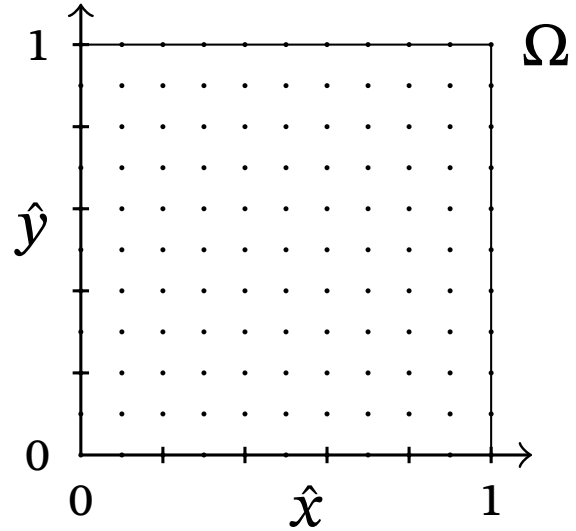


FIGURE 4: Lattice points in  $\Omega$ .

For any function  $f(x, y)$  defined on  $\Omega$ , we can let

$$\mathbf{f} = (f_1 \ f_2 \ \cdots \ f_l \ \cdots \ f_{n^2}); \quad f_l = f(x_l, y_l),$$

where

$$\begin{cases} x_i = i \cdot \Delta x \\ y_j = j \cdot \Delta x \\ l = (j - 1)n + i \end{cases}$$

which corresponds exactly to “sampling”  $f$  at the lattice points:  $x_i = x_i(i)$  and  $y_j = y_j(j)$  maps integer indices  $i$  and  $j$  to lattice points bijectively.  $l = l(i, j)$  maps the same indices to an index into a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$  bijectively. Thus, there is a bijective correspondence between lattice points and vector components. If we consider a concrete function

$$f(x, y) := \exp\left(-50\left(\left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(y - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2\right)\right)$$

defined on  $\Omega$ , the sampled data looks something like FIGURE 5 for a relatively low choice of  $n$ .

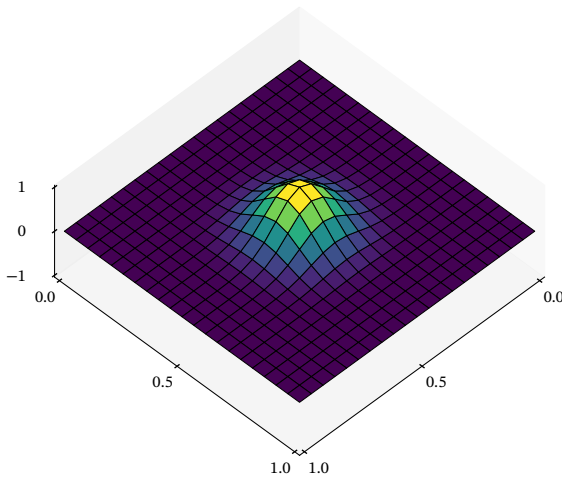


FIGURE 5:  $f(x, y)$  sampled across the lattice in  $\Omega$ .

This sampling can be done succinctly in python, using a generator function:

LISTING 4: Program to sample functions over lattices

```
1 def lattice(n):
2     for j in range(n):
3         for i in range(n):
4             yield i/(n - 1), j/(n - 1)
5
6 def sample(F, n):
7     # samples F over a n x n lattice.
8     return np.array(
```

```
9         [F(x, y) for x, y in lattice(n)]
10    )
```

`sample(F, n)` produces exactly the vector  $\mathbf{f}$ , for a given function  $F$ , sampled over a lattice in  $\Omega$  with  $\Delta x = 1/n$ .

To solve the system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$ , we want to use fix-point iteration:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$$

$$(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{N})\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$$

$$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{N}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{f}$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{M}^{-1}(\mathbf{N}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{f})$$

in this equation,  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{N}$  and  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{f}$  are constants. It is sensible (and more efficient) to compute them once upfront and give them names. This gives the more orderly iteration

$$\mathbf{u} \leftarrow \mathbf{C}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{g}.$$

Which converges by the Banach fixed-point theorem if  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{g}$  is a contraction, which is the case as long as  $\rho(\mathbf{C}) < 1$ . In python, this can be implemented as follows

LISTING 5:  $N$ -dimensional solver.

```
1 def spectral_radius(M):
2     return np.max(np.abs(LA.eigvals(M)))
3
4 def solve_nd_fpi(M, N, f, tol=1E-6):
5     # solves the linear system (M - N)x = f by
6     # fix-point iteration x = inv(M)(Nx + b).
7
8     # Compute inv(M), C and f
9     Mi = LA.inv(M)
10    C = Mi.dot(N)
11    g = Mi.dot(f)
12
13    assert spectral_radius(C) < 1, "rho(C) > 1"
14
15    x = g
16    for _ in range(MAX_ITER):
```

---

```

17         x = C.dot(x) + b
18
19     return x

```

---

provided we already have a choice of  $M$  and  $N$ . Several ways to choose these matrices are possible, and we want to be able to choose.

LISTING 6: *Argument-“parser” and choice of  $M$ ,  $N$ .*

---

```

1  def solve_nd(A, b, tol=1E-6,
2      method="jacobi", omega=1):
3      # solve Ax = b.
4      # omega is only used if you choose
5      # the method successive over-relaxation
6
7      def jacobi_mat(A):
8          # Jacobi method
9          M = np.diag(A.diagonal())
10         N = M - A
11         return M, N
12
13     def gs_mat(A):
14         # Gauss-Seidel
15         M = np.tril(A)
16         N = M - A
17         return M, N
18
19     def sor_mat(A, omega):
20         # successive over-relaxation
21         D = np.diag(A.diagonal())
22         L = np.tril(A, k=-1)
23         M = D + omega*L
24         N = M - A
25         return M, N
26
27     # pick a method based on parameter.
28     # i have included some redundant parameters
29     # so it is possible to write "shorthand"
30     M, N = {
31         "jacobi":      jacobi_mat,
32         "j":           jacobi_mat,
33         "gauss-seidel": gs_mat,
34         "gs":          gs_mat,
35         "sor": lambda A: sor_mat(A, omega),
36     }[method.lower()](A)
37
38     x = solve_nd_fpi(M, N, b, tol=tol)
39
40     return x

```

---

Now, given some matrix  $A$ , and some vector  $b$ , we can solve the system  $Ax = b$ .

## TESTING THE SOLVER FOR A TRIVIAL PROBLEM

We want to make sure our code is correct for a simple problem, just so that we can have *some* confidence that it actually works. Solving a simple system, which we know has a solution, such as

$$\begin{cases} 3x - y = 1 \\ 2x + 2y = 0 \end{cases}$$

would give us a good hint about possible errors we might have made. (By insertion it is easy to verify that  $x = 1/4$  and  $y = -1/4$  is a solution)

---

```

1  >>> from src.alg import solve_nd
2  >>> import numpy as np
3
4  >>> A = np.array([[3, -1],
5  ...               [2,  2]])
6
7  >>> b = np.array([1, 0])
8
9  >>> solve_nd(A, b, method="Jacobi")
10 array([ 0.25, -0.25])
11 >>> solve_nd(A, b, method="Gauss-Seidel")
12 array([ 0.25, -0.25])
13 >>> solve_nd(A, b, method="SOR")
14 array([ 0.25, -0.25])

```

---

As we can see, all the methods give the correct solution.

## SOLVING THE ORIGINAL PROBLEM

We can find a solution to our original problem, fixing  $n = 10$  and  $k = 1/100$ , by

---

```

1  from src.alg import solve_nd, sample
2  from asc.alg import A as gen_A
3  import numpy as np
4

```

---

```
5  n = 10
6  k = 1/100
7
8  def F(x, y):
9      return np.exp(
10         -50 * ((x - 1/2)**2 + (y - 1/2)**2)
11     )
12
13  f = sample(F, n)
14  A = gen_A(k, n)
```

```
15
16  u = solve_nd(A, f)
```

---

Here, `src.alg.A` is an algorithm provided for us that generates  $A$ . `f` is the vector obtained when sampling  $F := f(x, y)$  across the lattice defined by  $n = 10$ . The `sample`-function is the same one we developed earlier.