

Numerical Methods for Computational Science and Engineering

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Stiff IVPs

The problem $\dot{y} = My$ will probably be stiff if

$$\min \{ \operatorname{Re} \lambda : \lambda \in \sigma(M) \} \ll 0$$

↑
set of eigenvalues of M

Nonlinear IVPs

$$\dot{y} = f(y)$$

will probably be stiff if for substantial periods of time

$$\min \{ \operatorname{Re} \lambda : \lambda \in \sigma(Df(y(t))) \} \ll 0$$

where $t \mapsto y(t)$ is the solution trajectory.

Df ... jacobian

Example 1: logistic ODE

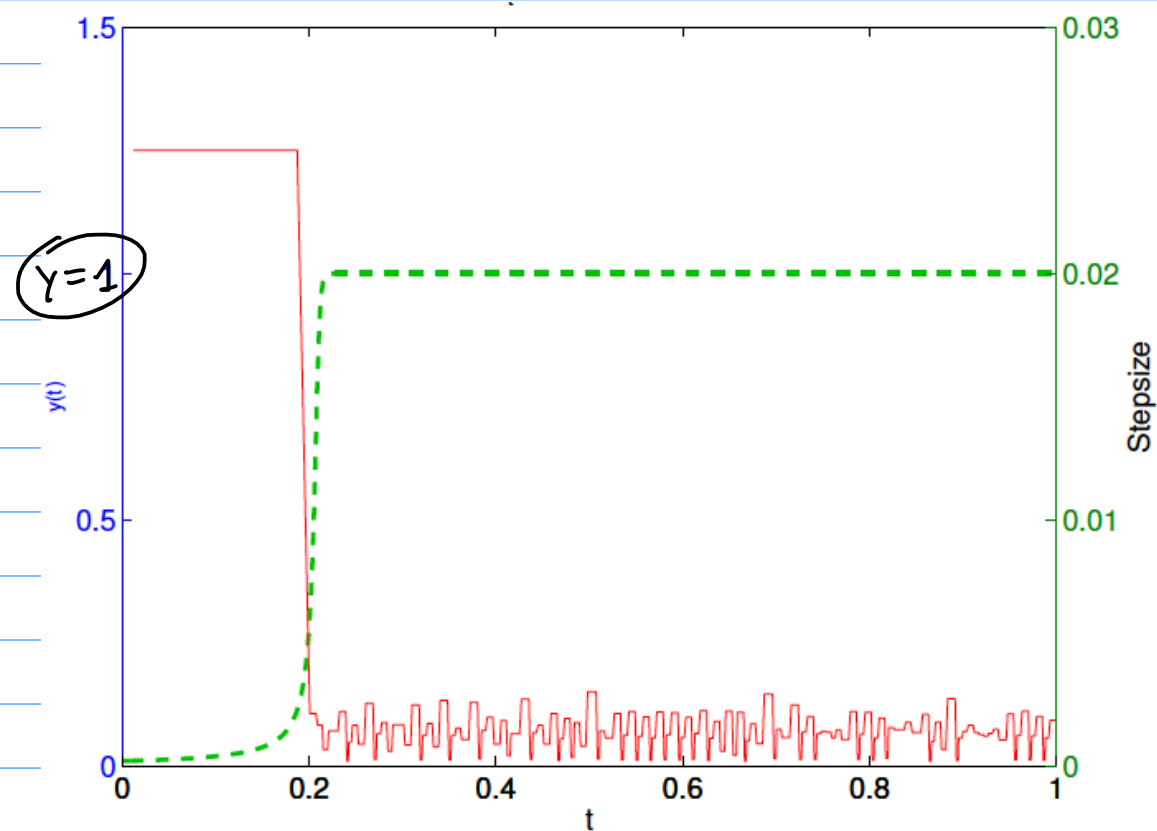
$$\dot{y} = f(y) = \lambda y^2(1-y) \quad \lambda = 500$$

$$y(0) = \frac{1}{100}$$

$$f'(y) = \lambda 2y(1-y) - \lambda y^2 = 2\lambda y - 3\lambda y^2$$

$$= \lambda(2y - 3y^2)$$

behavior of ODE close to stationary state $y=1$



$$f'(1) = -\lambda$$

If $\lambda \gg 0$: stiff IVP close to the stationary state

As we reach $y=1$, we encounter stiffness!

Example 2 :

$$\dot{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} y + \lambda(1 - \|y\|^2)y$$

$$, \|y_0\|_2 = 1$$

(*)

If $\|y_0\|_2 = 1$, we can find φ s.t. $y_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi \\ \sin \varphi \end{pmatrix}$

Then, $y(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(t+\varphi) \\ \sin(t+\varphi) \end{pmatrix}$ is the unique solution

Check: $\begin{pmatrix} -\sin(t+\varphi) \\ \cos(t+\varphi) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(t+\varphi) \\ \cos(t+\varphi) \end{pmatrix} + \lambda \cdot \underline{0}$

\uparrow
 $\|y(t)\|_2 = 1$

\Rightarrow The solution of (*) satisfies $\|y(t)\|_2 = 1$

at any time t .

$$D_f(y) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - 2\lambda y y^T =$$

\uparrow
 $\|y\|_2 = 1$

3

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -2\lambda y_1^2 & -1 - 2\lambda y_1 y_2 \\ 1 - 2\lambda y_1 y_2 & -2\lambda y_2^2 \end{pmatrix} =: A$$

Eigenvalues of A :

$$\det(\mu I - A) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \mu + 2\lambda y_1^2 & 1 + 2\lambda y_1 y_2 \\ -1 + 2\lambda y_1 y_2 & \mu + 2\lambda y_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \mu^2 + 2\lambda\mu + \cancel{4\lambda^2 y_1^2 y_2^2} + 1 - \cancel{4\lambda^2 y_1^2 y_2^2}$$

$$= \mu^2 + 2\lambda\mu + 1 = 0$$

$$\mu_{1/2} = -1 \pm \sqrt{\lambda^2 - 1}$$

For large λ , $\lambda \gg 0$: $\mu_1 \approx 0$, $\mu_2 \ll 0$

\rightarrow typical for stiff IVPs

Applications involving chemical reactions:

often have large negative eigenvalue,
and an eigenvalue close to zero

\rightarrow "large stiffness ratio"

\rightarrow fast transients in the solution

8. Iterative Methods for Nonlinear Systems of Equations

So far: direct methods for solving linear systems of equations

Many models in applications involve nonlinear systems of equations

\rightarrow typically these systems can't be solved directly nor exactly!

This leads to iterative methods for finding approximations to the solution

Example:

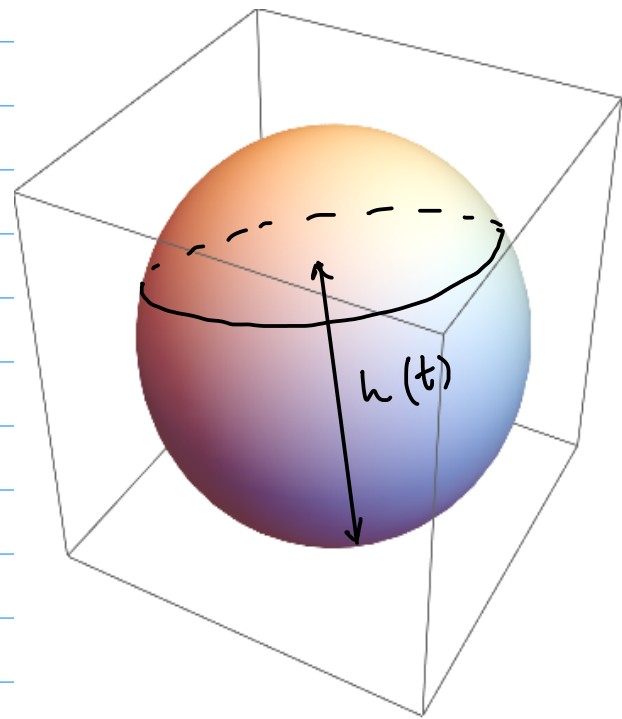
liquid in a spherical tank

r ... radius of the tank

g ... rate of constant fluid flow

Full tank at $t=0$: $h_0 = 2r$

Task: Find height h of the fluid in the tank at any time t .



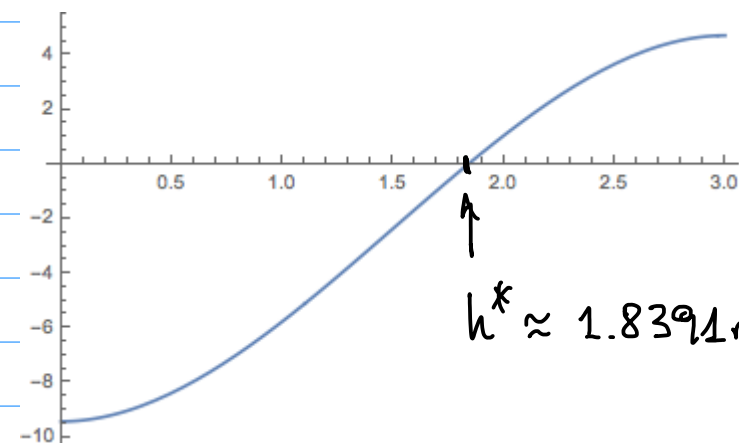
$$-\frac{1}{3} \pi h^3 + \pi r h^2 + (g t - \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3) = 0$$

Define $f_{t^*}(h) = -\frac{1}{3} \pi h^3 + \pi r h^2 + g t^* - \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$

Find root h^* i.e. solve for $f_{t^*}(h) = 0$.

$$t^* = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{4}{3} \pi r^3}_g = t_{\text{end}} \quad (r = 1.5 \text{ m})$$

$$f_{t^*}(h) = -\frac{1}{3} \pi h^3 + \pi r h^2 - \frac{8}{9} \pi r^3$$



Typical examples of nonlinear equations:

- Thermodynamic models [involve equations of state for real gases]
- Colebrook equation for the friction factor [= pressure drop in oil/gas pipeline]
- Time-stepping in implicit RK methods

One question before that:

When is $f(x) = 0$ solvable?

Take $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$
 \rightarrow does not have roots

First criterion: intermediate value theorem

Theorem [IVT]: If $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and for $t_l, t_r \in [a, b]$:

$$f(t_l) < u < f(t_r)$$

\Rightarrow Then there exists $z \in (t_l, t_r)$ s.t.

$$f(z) = u.$$

Use this for root finding of $f \in C^0([a, b], \mathbb{R})$

If for some $t_l, t_r \in [a, b]$: $f(t_l) < 0$ and $f(t_r) > 0$

\Rightarrow f must have a root in (t_l, t_r)

This leads to idea for first root finding algorithm:

Bisection algorithm: (for finding root x^*)

While $n \leq n_{max}$

Compute $b \leftarrow \frac{t_l + t_r}{2}$

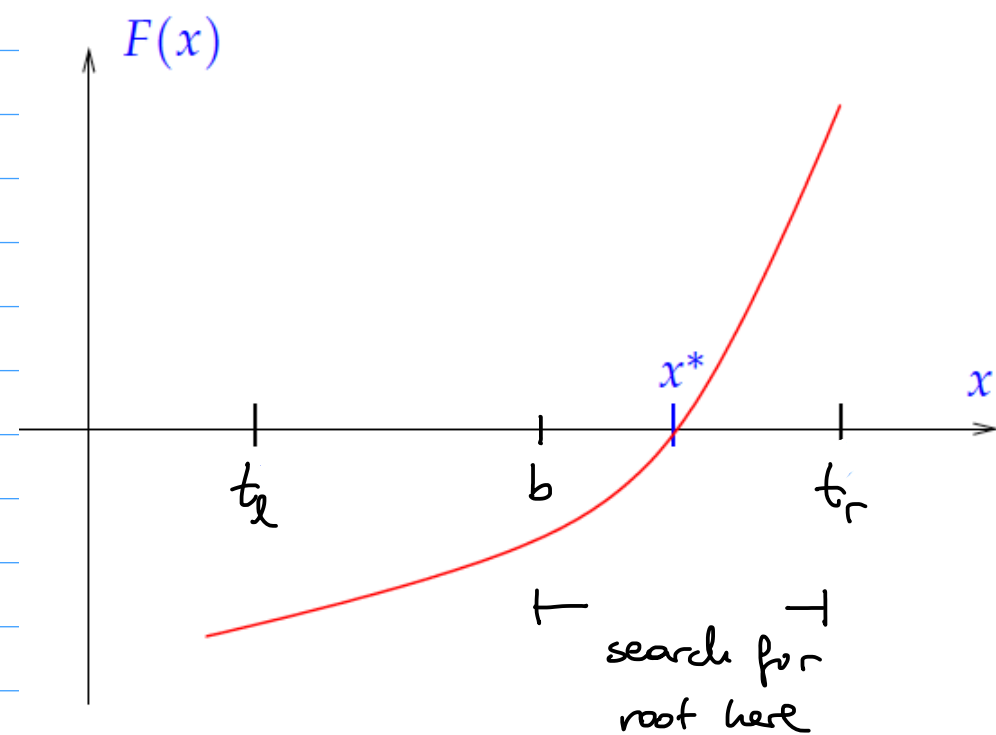
If $|f(b)| < TOL1$ or $|t_l - t_r| < TOL2$,

return $x^* = b$

$n \leftarrow n + 1$

If $\text{sign}(f(t_l)) = \text{sign}(f(b))$, then $t_l \leftarrow b$

Else $t_r \leftarrow b$



If f is continuous: we always search in a region in which a root exists

At each step: size of interval is halved
→ convergence

Example [spherical tank]

$$f_{t^*}(h) = -\frac{1}{3}\pi h^3 + \pi r h^2 - \frac{8}{9}\pi r^3$$

Check: $f_{t^*}(0) < 0$

$$f_{t^*}(2r) = -\frac{1}{3}8r^3\pi + 4r^3\pi - \frac{8}{9}r^3\pi > 0$$

→ apply bisection starting with $t_l=0$ and $t_r=2r$.

For iterates $(x^{(k)})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ of approximate solution

define
$$e^{(k)} = x^{(k)} - x^*$$
 [iteration error]
↑
root/solution

We can ask: $x^{(k)} \rightarrow x^*$ at what rate?

$$|e^{(1)}| \leq \frac{1}{2} |a-b|$$

starting interval $[a,b]$

$$|e^{(2)}| \leq \frac{1}{2^2} |a-b|$$

$$|e^{(k)}| = |x^{(k)} - x^*| \leq 2^{-k} |a-b|$$

$$|e^{(k)}| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

error is reduced by a fixed factor (here: $\frac{1}{2}$)

at each iteration step: "linear-type convergence"

Bisection:

⊕ robustness & global convergence

⊖ only linear-type convergence

no extension to higher dimensions

- Goal: Methods that
- extend to higher dimensions
 - converge faster (quadratically)
- ↑
under additional assumptions

Fixed Point Iterations:

Root finding: find x^* s.t. $f(x^*) = 0$

\Leftrightarrow Define $\Phi(x) := f(x) + x$

x^* is a FP of Φ : $\Phi(x^*) = x^*$

Before: bisection only required continuity of f

Now: Assume

- Φ is Lipschitz continuous on $[a, b]$:
 $\exists L > 0 \forall x, y \in [a, b]: |\Phi(x) - \Phi(y)| \leq L \cdot |x - y|$
- $L < 1$ i.e. Φ is a contractive mapping

Idea of FPI (fixed point iteration):

- start with initial guess $x^{(0)}$

- Iterate $x^{(k)} = \Phi(x^{(k-1)})$ FPI

$L < 1$ guarantees: If Φ has a fixed point then FPI will converge to it.

Why?

Can we verify $|e^{(k)}| \rightarrow 0$? as $k \rightarrow \infty$

$$|e^{(k)}| = |x^{(k)} - x^*| \stackrel{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{FPI}}}{=} |\Phi(x^{(k-1)}) - x^*|$$

$$= \left| \overset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \Phi(x^*) = x^* \\ \text{fixed point}}}{\Phi(x^{(k-1)})} - \overset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{Lipschitz} \\ \text{cont.}}}{\Phi(x^*)} \right| \leq L \cdot |x^{(k-1)} - x^*|$$

$$\leq L \cdot |e^{(k-1)}|$$

$$\Rightarrow |e^{(k)}| \leq L^k \cdot |e^{(0)}| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

provided $L < 1$

Remarks:

- It would suffice to have Φ Lipschitz with $L < 1$ on $[x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$ and $x^{(0)} \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$
- If $\Phi \in C^1([a, b])$ and $|\Phi'(x^*)| < 1$

We get: Convergence of FPI in a neighborhood of x^*

There are $\delta > 0, \varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $|\Phi'(x)| < 1 - \varepsilon$

for $x \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta] =: I^*$

Then for all $x, y \in I^*$ $\exists \theta \in [x, y]$ s.t.

$$|\Phi(x) - \Phi(y)| = |\Phi'(\theta)| \cdot |x - y| \quad [\text{mean value thm}]$$

$$< (1 - \varepsilon) |x - y|$$

\Rightarrow Lipschitz cont. on I^* with $L = 1 - \varepsilon$.

→ If Φ is only locally contractive
 then FPI is also only locally convergent

• Convergence rate is (at least) linear:

$$\exists 0 < L < 1 \quad |x^{(k+1)} - x^*| \leq L \cdot |x^{(k)} - x^*|$$

$$|e^{(k+1)}| \leq L |e^{(k)}|$$

[Note: bisection method
 $|e^{(k)}| \leq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k |a-b|$

"linear-type" because $|e^{(k)}| > L |e^{(k-1)}|$
 is possible]

Example :

$$F(x) = xe^x - 1 \quad x \in [0, 1)$$

search for x^* s.t. $F(x^*) = 0$

$$\Leftrightarrow \Phi(x) :=$$

search for x^* s.t. $\Phi(x^*) = x^*$

$$\Phi(x) = xe^x - 1 + x$$

$$\Phi(x) = c \cdot (xe^x - 1) + x$$

$$\Phi(x) = x - xe^x + 1$$

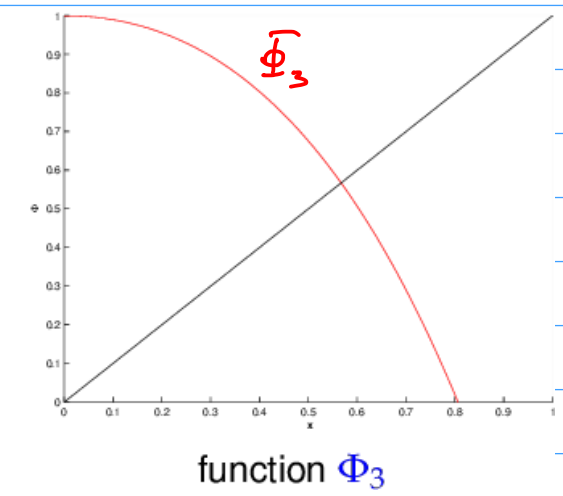
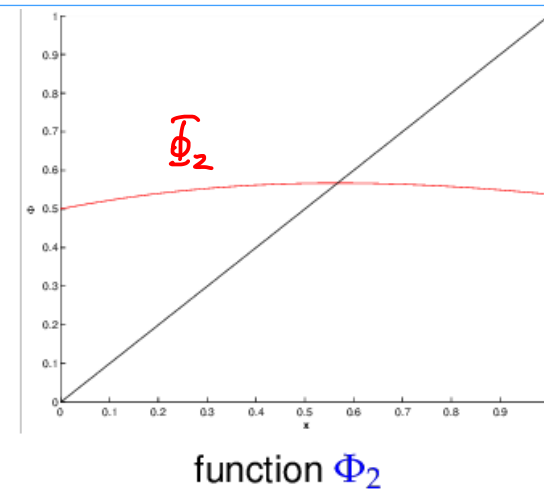
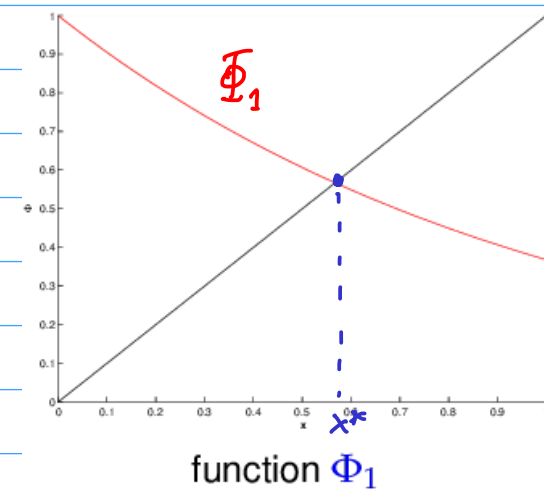
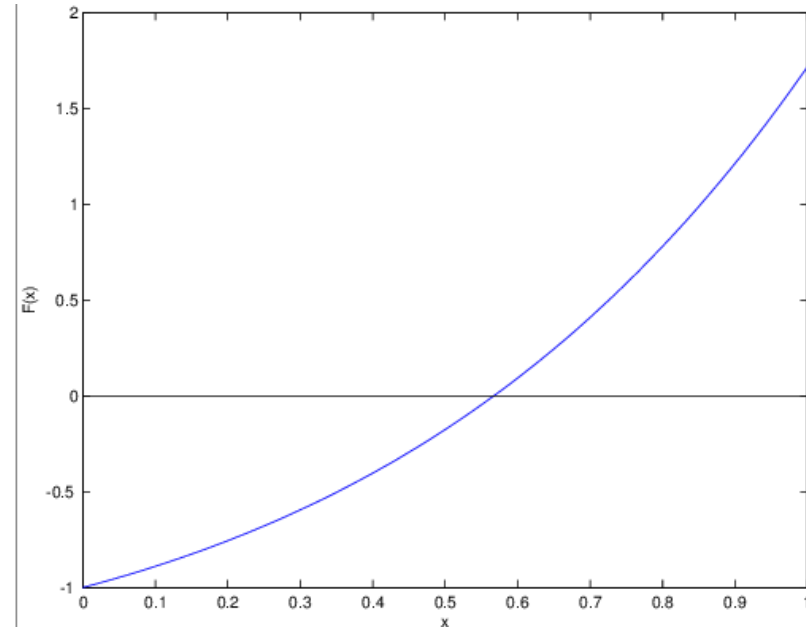
$$F(x) = xe^x - 1, \quad x \in [0, 1].$$

Different fixed point forms:

$$\Phi_1(x) = e^{-x},$$

$$\Phi_2(x) = \frac{1+x}{1+e^x},$$

$$\Phi_3(x) = x + 1 - xe^x.$$



$$(1) \quad xe^x - 1 = 0$$

$$xe^x = 1$$

$$x = e^{-x}$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{1+x}{1+e^x} = x$$

$$1+x = x(1+e^x)$$

$$1 = xe^x$$

FPI with $x^{(0)} = 0.5$

$$\Phi_1(x^{(k-1)}) = x^{(k)} \quad \Phi_2(x^{(k-1)}) = x^{(k)} \quad \Phi_3(x^{(k-1)}) = x^{(k)}$$

k	$ x_1^{(k+1)} - x^* $	$ x_2^{(k+1)} - x^* $	$ x_3^{(k+1)} - x^* $
0	0.067143290409784	0.067143290409784	0.067143290409784
1	0.039387369302849	0.000832287212566	0.108496074240152
2	0.021904078517179	0.00000125374922	0.219330611898582
3	0.012559804468284	0.000000000000003	0.288178118764323
4	0.007078662470882	0.000000000000000	0.723649245792953
5	0.004028858567431	0.000000000000000	0.410183132337935
6	0.002280343429460	0.000000000000000	1.186907542305364
7	0.001294757160282	0.000000000000000	0.146569797006362
8	0.000733837662863	0.000000000000000	0.310516641279937
9	0.000416343852458	0.000000000000000	0.357777386500765
10	0.000236077474313	0.000000000000000	0.974565695952037

$$|e^{(k+1)}|$$

• Derive largest region of convergence for

$$\Phi_1(x^{(k)}) = x^{(k+1)}$$

$$\Phi_2(x^{(k)}) = x^{(k+1)}$$

• Why is

$$\Phi_3(x^{(k)}) = x^{(k+1)}$$

not converging

1.) $\Phi_1(x) = -e^{-x}$

$$|\Phi_1'(x)| = e^{-x} < 1 \text{ for } x \in [\delta, 1] = I^* \\ \forall \delta > 0$$

⇒ convergence of FPI with Φ_1 on I^* .

2.) $\Phi_2'(x) = \frac{1 - xe^x}{(1 + e^x)^2}$

$$|\Phi_2'(x)| < \frac{|1 - xe^x|}{4} < \frac{|1 - e|}{4} < \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

⇒ convergence of FPI with Φ_2 on $[0, 1]$
⇒ global convergence

3.) $\Phi_3'(x) = 1 - xe^x - e^x$

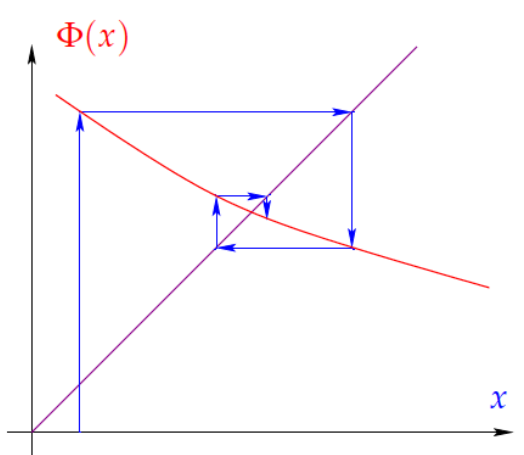
Least: $|\Phi_3'(x^*)| < 1$???

We know: $x^* = e^{-x^*}$

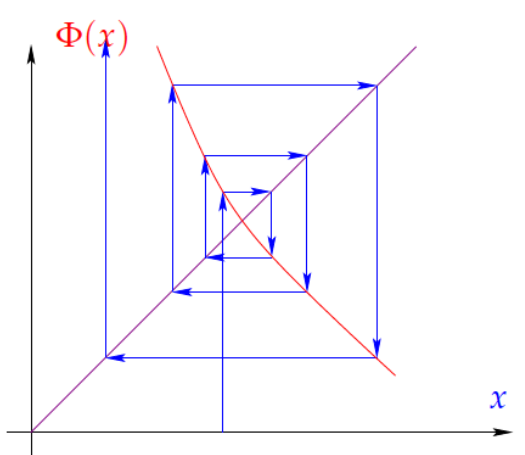
$$\Phi_3'(x^*) = 1 - 1 - e^{x^*} = -e^{x^*}$$

Since $x^* \in (0, 1)$: $|\Phi_3'(x^*)| > 1$!!

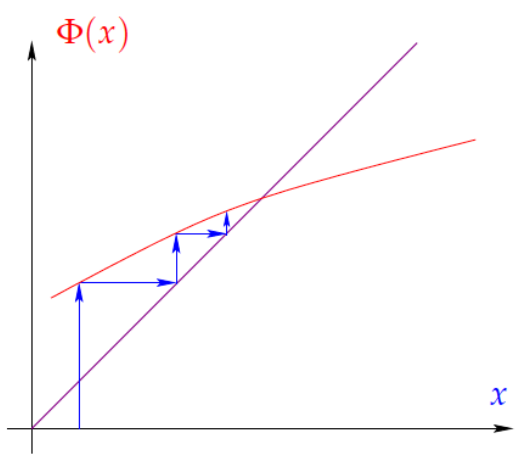
→ No region around x^* for which FPI with Φ_3 is contractive
 → no convergence



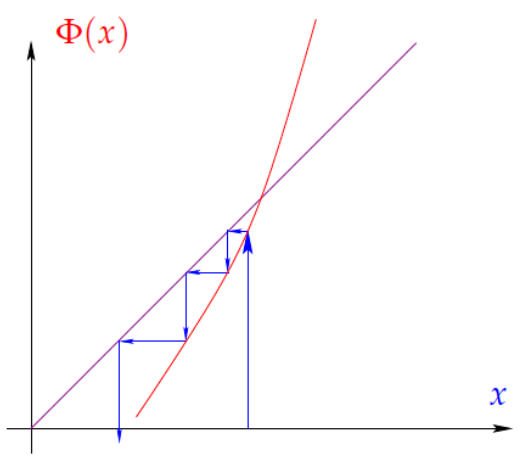
$-1 < \Phi'(x^*) \leq 0$ > convergence



$\Phi'(x^*) < -1$ > divergence



$0 \leq \Phi'(x^*) < 1$ > convergence



$1 < \Phi'(x^*)$ > divergence

Why is FPI with Φ_2 converging faster than the one with Φ_1 ?

$$\Phi_2'(x) = \frac{1 - xe^x}{(1 + e^x)^2}$$

For x^* FP : $1 - x^*e^{x^*} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi_2'(x^*) = 0.$$

In general, if $\Phi'(x^*) = 0$ and Φ is C^2 in a neighborhood of x^* :

Taylor expansion of Φ at $x^{(k)}$ around x^* :

$$\Phi(x^{(k)}) = \Phi(x^*) + \underbrace{e^{(k)} \cdot \Phi'(x^*)}_{=0} + \frac{1}{2} (e^{(k)})^2 \Phi''(x^*) + \Theta((e^{(k)})^3)$$

$$|e^{(k)}| = |x^{(k)} - x^*| = |\bar{\Phi}(x^{(k-1)}) - \bar{\Phi}(x^*)|$$

$$\stackrel{\uparrow}{=} \frac{1}{2} |e^{(k-1)}|^2 \bar{\Phi}''(x^*) + \mathcal{O}(|e^{(k-1)}|^3)$$

Taylor exp.

If $|x^{(k-1)} - x^*| \leq \delta < 1$ [holds if we have convergence] ;

$$|e^{(k)}| \leq \frac{1}{2} |e^{(k-1)}|^2 \cdot [\bar{\Phi}''(x^*) + C\delta]$$

\Rightarrow We can expect faster convergence if $\bar{\Phi}'(x^*) = 0$.

"quadratic" convergence

If $\exists C > 0$ s.t.

$$|e^{(k)}| \leq C \cdot |e^{(k-1)}|^p \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

then we speak of convergence with order p .

Can we find an algorithm for root-finding with quadratic convergence?

Assumption: $f \in C^1$

Intuition:

$$f(x) \approx f(x^{(k)}) + (x - x^{(k)}) f'(x^{(k)})$$

1st order Taylor approximation around $x^{(k)}$

To find x^* with $f(x^*) = 0$ take $x^{(k+1)}$

s.t.

$$f(x^{(k)}) + (x^{(k+1)} - x^{(k)}) f'(x^{(k)}) = 0$$

Newton iteration:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \frac{f(x^{(k)})}{f'(x^{(k)})}$$

When $f \in C^2 \rightsquigarrow$ quadratic convergence

As FPI: $\Phi(x) := x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$

Newton's method on $f \iff$ FPI on Φ

$$\Phi'(x) = 1 - \frac{(f'(x))^2 - f''(x) \cdot f(x)}{(f'(x))^2}$$

$$= \frac{f''(x) f(x)}{(f'(x))^2}$$

If $\underline{f'(x^*) \neq 0}$ then $\Phi'(x^*) = \frac{f''(x^*) \overbrace{f(x^*)}^{=0}}{(f'(x^*))^2}$

$= 0$

\Rightarrow convergence in a neighborhood of x^*

$|\Phi'| < 1$

\Rightarrow quadr. conv.

If I^* is a neighborhood of x^* s.t.

$$\forall x \in I^* \quad |\Phi'(x)| \leq 1 - \varepsilon$$

For $x^{(0)} \in I^*$ Newton's method converges quadratically if $f'(x^*) \neq 0$.

Note: • Contractivity of Φ on I^* guarantees

$$f'(x^{(k)}) \neq 0 \text{ for all iterates}$$

[if started with $x^{(0)} \in I^*$]

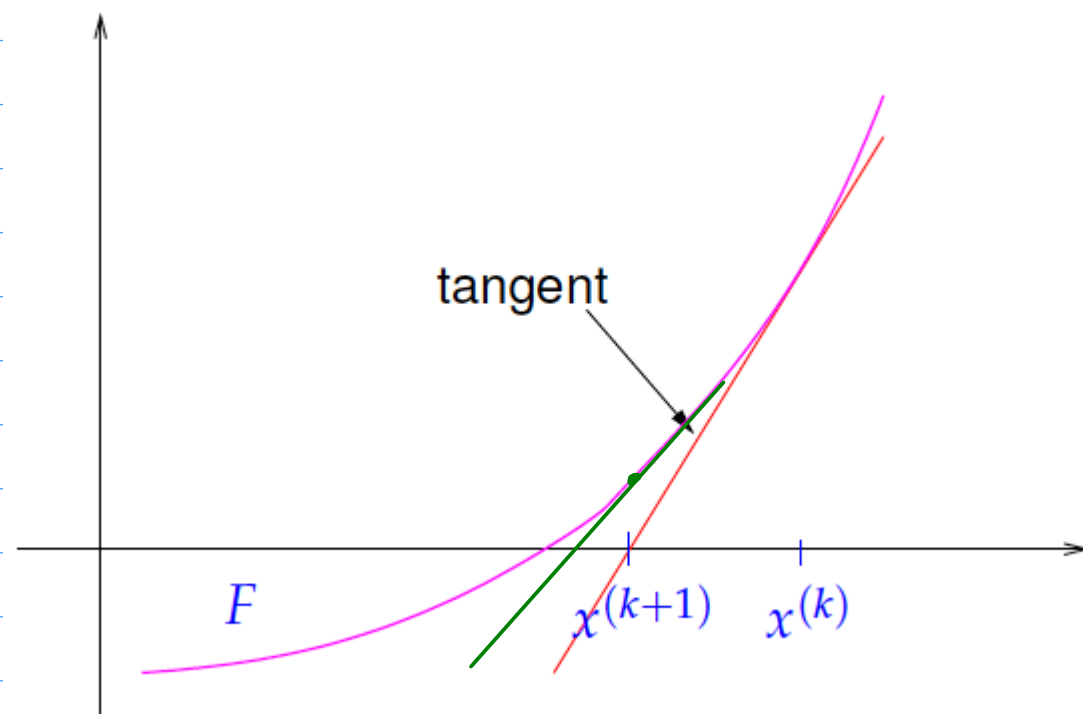
• For quadr. conv. of Newton, $f \in C^2$ instead of $\Phi \in C^2$ suffices.

Altogether: We need I^* neighborhood of x^* s.t.

• I^* suff. small

• $f'(x) \neq 0$ on I^*

• $f \in C^2(I^*)$.



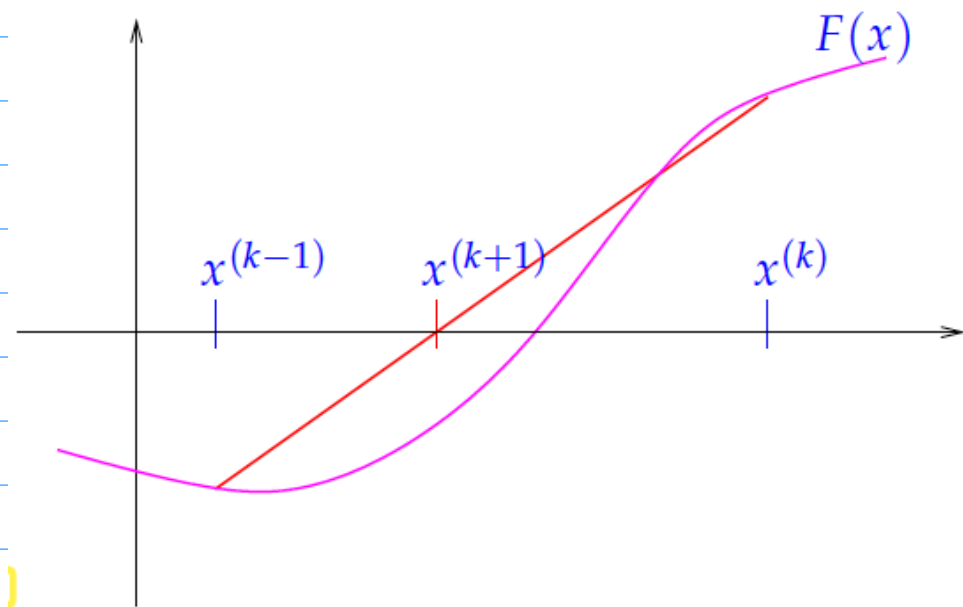
Newton's method requires the computation of $f'(x^{(k)})$ at each iteration step k . (can be costly)

Alternative: Secant method:

Instead of $f'(x^{(k)})$ use

$$\frac{f(x^{(k)}) - f(x^{(k-1)})}{x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}}$$

$$\Rightarrow x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \frac{f(x^{(k)}) \cdot (x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)})}{f(x^{(k)}) - f(x^{(k-1)})}$$



Convergence of secant method:

As for Newton: • local

- need $f'(x^*) \neq 0$
- f locally C^2

BUT: rate is now of order $p = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \in (1, 2)$
 \leadsto superlinear but not quadr.

Remark: Secant method is a 2-point method
(uses the best 2 iterates at each step)

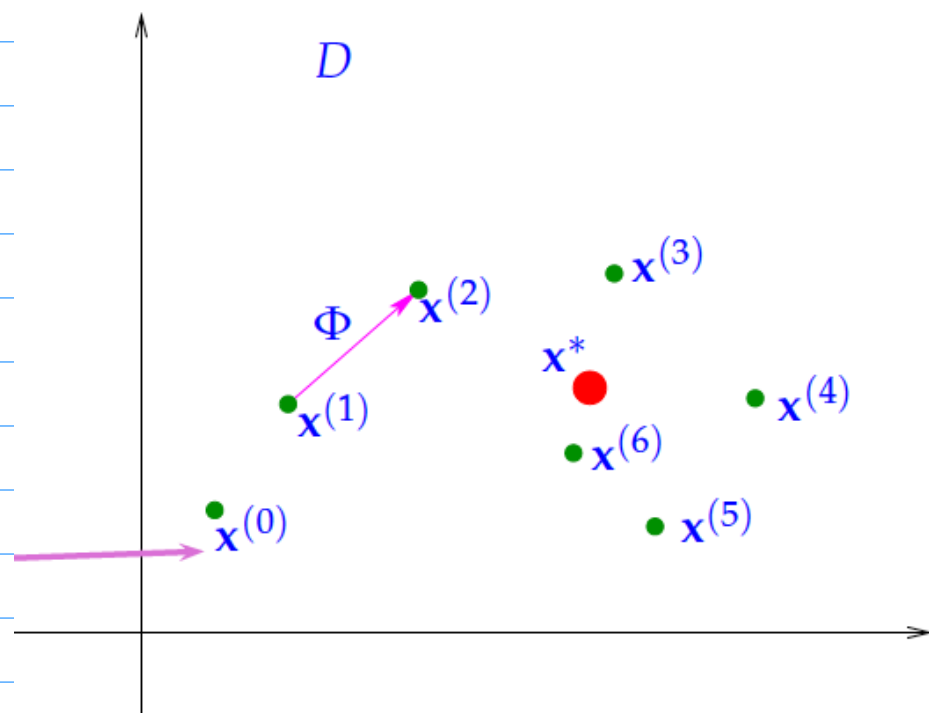
Nonlinear systems of equations

$$F: D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

nonlinear system of equations

n equations, n unknowns

Find x^* s.t. $F(x^*) = 0$



$$x^{(k)} = \Phi_F(x^{(k-1)}, \dots, x^{(k-m)})$$

m -point method

Aspects of iterative methods:

• Convergence: $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(k)} = x^*$?

• Consistency: $\Phi_F(x^*, \dots, x^*) = x^*$
 $\Leftrightarrow F(x^*) = 0$?

• Rate of convergence:

$$\|x^{(k)} - x^*\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ with which order?}$$

Note: $\|\cdot\|$ can be any norm for \mathbb{R}^n

↙ finite dim.
vector space

\Rightarrow All norms for \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent

$$\left(\exists c_1, c_2 > 0: c_1 \|v\|_a \leq \|v\|_b \leq c_2 \|v\|_a \quad \forall v \in V \right)$$

\Rightarrow Convergence in \mathbb{R}^n is a property independent of choice of norm

BUT: convergence rate is not independent of the choice of norm.

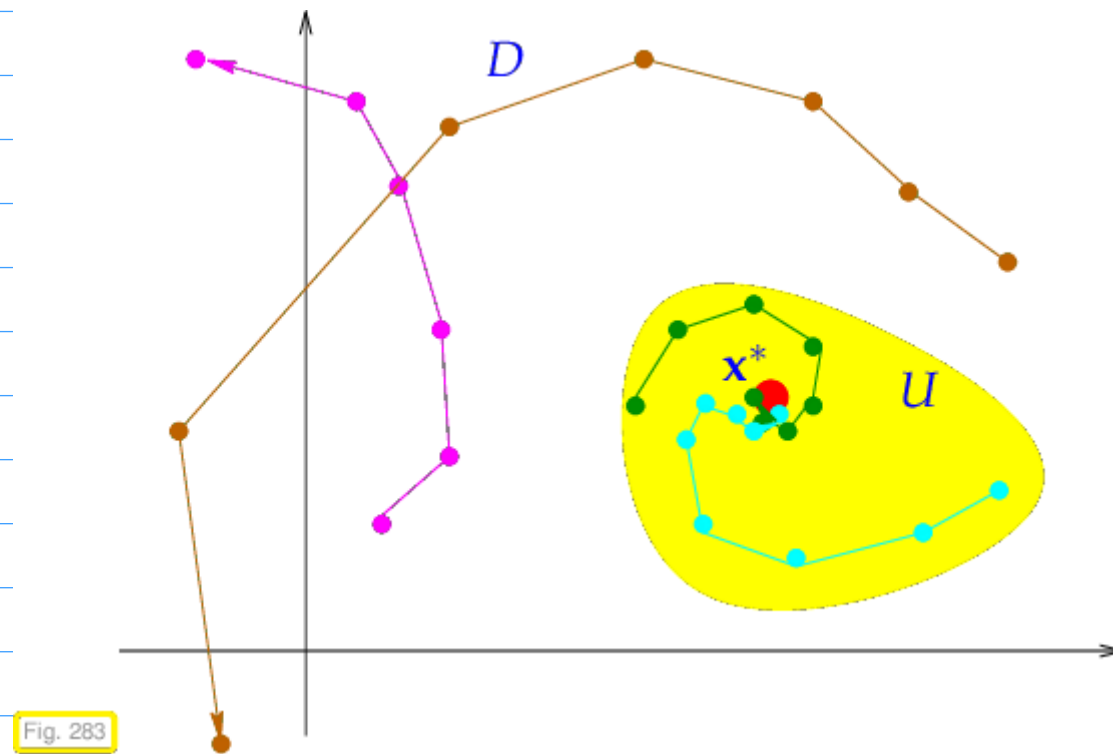


Fig. 283

An m -point iterative method converges locally to $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if there is a neighborhood $U \subset D$ of x^* s.t.

$$x^{(0)}, \dots, x^{(m-1)} \in U \Rightarrow x^{(k)} \text{ well-defined \&}$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(k)} = x^*$$

If $U=D$: the method is globally convergent.