

# The Pixel Array method for nonlinear systems, and applications to numerical PDEs

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Details on the Pixel Array method
- 3 Relation to Numerical methods for PDE
- 4 Open questions
- 5 Conclusion

# Outline

## 1 Introduction

- What to expect
- A few examples
- Linearizing is the key to success

## 2 Details on the Pixel Array method

## 3 Relation to Numerical methods for PDE

## 4 Open questions

## 5 Conclusion

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  - It arose from my work on *applied category theory*.
  - There will be no category theory (CT) in this talk.
  - The idea originated there, but all you need to know is matrix mult.
- The talk is more about *solving systems of equations* than about PDE.
  - I'll discuss how the method applies to PDE near the end.
- I know next to nothing about PDEs and numerical methods.
  - I'm a foreigner here; please forgive my 'dialect' and 'cultural ignorance'.
  - I'd appreciate any feedback you may have.
  - I hope our communities—applied math and CT—can become friends.

# An image, for your imagination

Separately plot the solutions to equations:  $f(x, w) = 0$  and  $g(w, y) = 0$ .

- Plot each in its own bounding box, say in the range  $[-1.5, 1.5]$ .
- Consider the plots as matrices  $M, N$  whose entries are on/off pixels.
- That is,  $M$  and  $N$  are *boolean matrices* corresponding to  $f$  and  $g$ .

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Multiplying these two matrices  $MN$  yields...

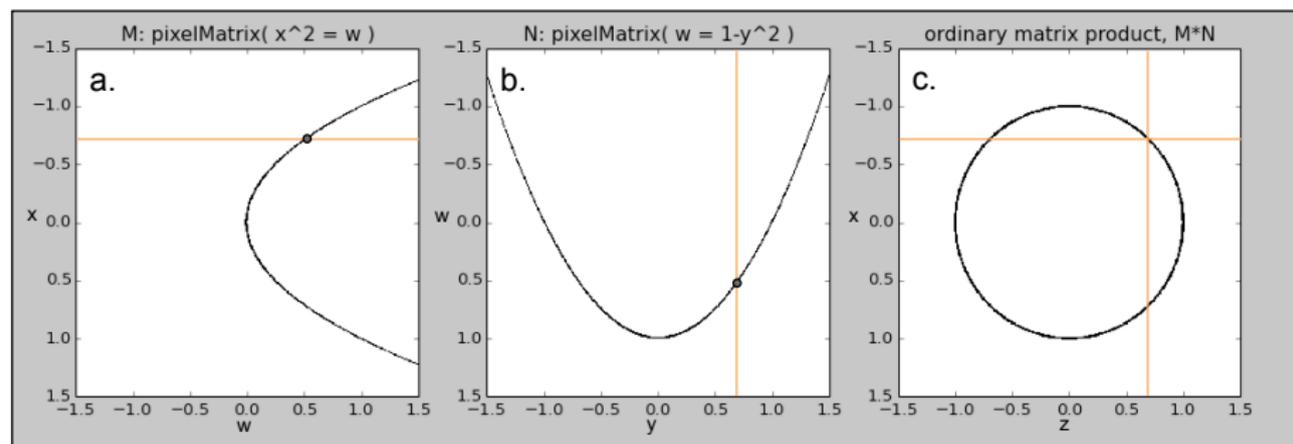
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Multiplying these two matrices  $MN$  yields the simultaneous solution.

- For example, plot equations  $x^2 = w$  and  $w = 1 - y^2$ , and multiply.



## A more complex example

The following eq's are not differentiable, nor even defined everywhere.

$$\cos(\ln(z^2 + 10^{-3}x)) - x + 10^{-5}z^{-1} = 0 \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

$$\cosh(w + 10^{-3}y) + y + 10^{-4}w = 2 \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

$$\tan(x + y)(x - 2)^{-1}(x + 3)^{-1}y^{-2} = 1 \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

Q: For what values of  $w$  and  $z$  does a simultaneous solution exist? <sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Spivak, DI; Dobson, MRC; Kumari, S. (2016) "Pixel Arrays: A fast and elementary method for solving nonlinear systems". <http://arxiv.org/pdf/1609.00061v1.pdf> 

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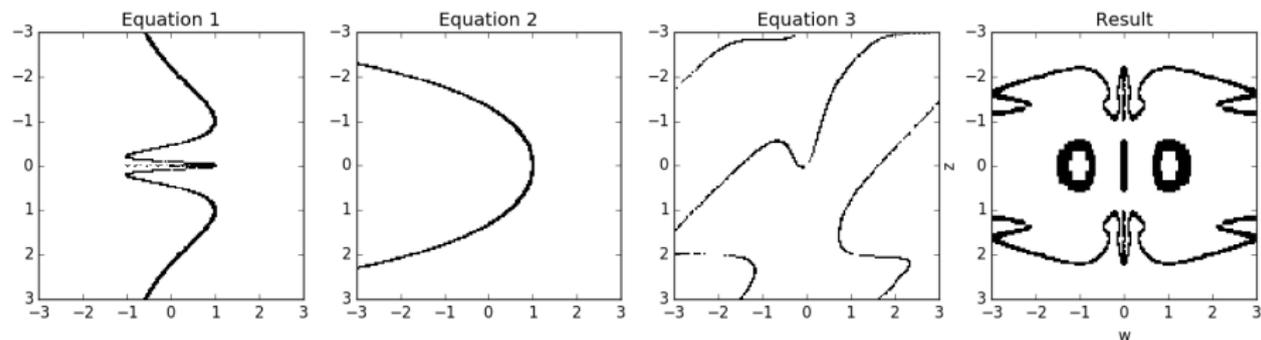
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## Another way to linearize

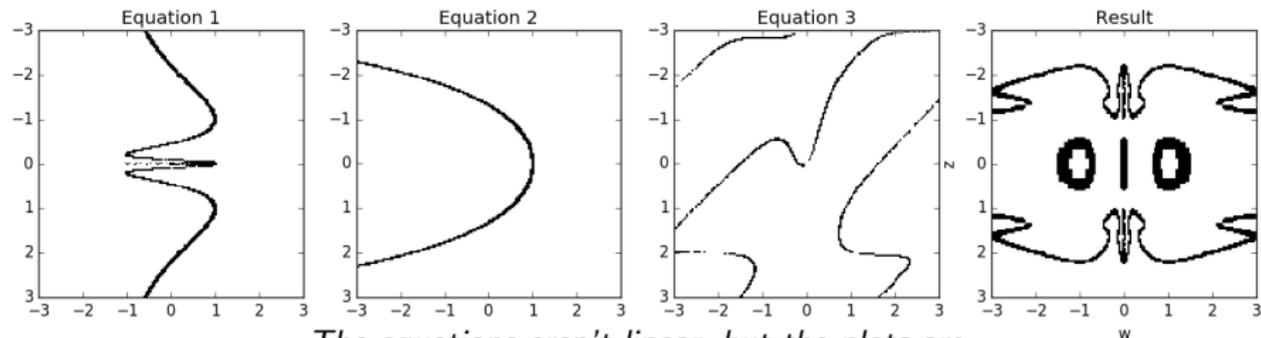
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- The only problems we know how to solve are linear ones.
- We approach any other problem by trying to linearize it.

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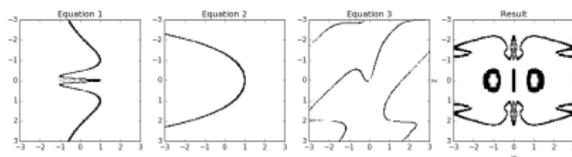
The Pixel Array slogan: *Plotting is a way of linearizing.*

- Once we plot, we have matrices (more generally, arrays / tensors).
- We can use *linear algebra* to put plots together and solve big systems.

## Selling points

The Pixel Array method has the following features:

- it returns *all solutions in a given bounding box*;
- it's *much faster* than quasi-Newton methods for finding “all solutions”;
- it introduces *no false negatives*;
- it works for *non-differentiable* or even *discontinuous* functions;
- it's *not iterative* and requires no initial guess, in contrast with quasi-Newton methods;
- it's *elementary*—relying only on generalized matrix arithmetic—hence has low barrier to entry; and
- it *provides insights*, by showing the whole solution set at once.



## So where are the limitations hiding?

Takes original plots as input.

- The Pixel Array (PA) method requires a plot for each equation.
- The plot of  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$  is  $n$ -dimensional; can be costly.
  - But there are methods: sampling, zero-crossing, “interval arithmetic”.
  - Nice aside: you can even use raw data as your plots.
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Speed comes from unexposed variables.

- I will discuss exposed/unexposed variables in depth.
- For now, recall butterfly picture: we exposed  $w$  and  $z$ , but not  $x$  or  $y$ .
- Comparison with quasi-Newton is not straightforward.

# Outline

## 1 Introduction

## 2 Details on the Pixel Array method

- Overview
- Why it works
- Wiring diagrams
- Clustering
- False positives, true negatives
- Visualizing higher-order arrays

## 3 Relation to Numerical methods for PDE

## 4 Open questions

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## Equations and wiring diagrams

Consider an arbitrary system of equations having the following form:

$$f_1(\mathbf{t}, u, \mathbf{v}) = 0$$

$$f_2(\mathbf{v}, w, x) = 0$$

$$f_3(u, w, x, y) = 0$$

$$f_4(x, \mathbf{z}) = 0$$

**Variables** are those we want to *expose*; others are latent or *unexposed*.

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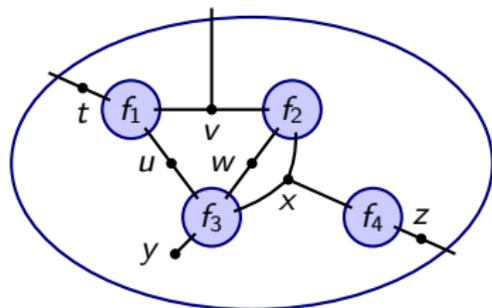
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Bold variables are those we want to *expose*; others are latent or *unexposed*.



Said another way, we want  $\{(t, v, z) \mid \exists u, w, x, y : f_1 = f_2 = f_3 = f_4 = 0\}$ .

# Using array multiplication to solve systems

To solve the system for  $t, v, z$ , we plot each equation as an array.

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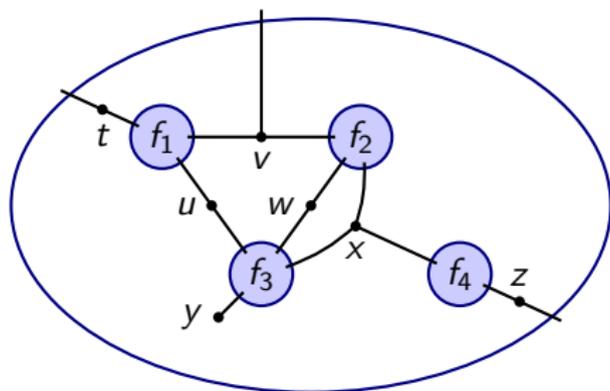
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PA says: multiply the arrays according to “variable sharing” diagram:



# Why and how does it work

There are now two important directions to go from here:

- Explain general array multiplication as dictated by a wiring diagram.
- Demystify relationship between multiplying arrays and solving systems.

Let's start by demystifying why the Pixel Array method works.

- As we'll see, it just comes down to logic: AND, OR, TRUE, FALSE.

To keep things simple, let's restrict our attention to matrix multiplication.

# Multiplying Boolean matrices

The matrix multiplication formula works well in any semiring.

$$(MN)_{i,k} = \sum_j M_{i,j} * N_{j,k}.$$

- Roughly, a semiring is a set with  $0, 1, +, *$  that act reasonably.
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Today we'll focus on the Boolean semiring,  $\mathbb{B}$ .

- It has two elements  $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ .
- 0 means FALSE, and 1 means TRUE.
- Multiplication is given by boolean AND (denoted  $\wedge$ ).
- Addition is given by boolean OR (denoted  $\vee$ ).
- The only slightly unexpected thing is that  $1 + 1 = 1$ .

# The logic of matrix multiplication

In general, the PA method is to multiply higher-order arrays (tensors).

- But for now, let's suppose  $A, B$  are boolean matrices.
- Say that  $A$  and  $B$  are plots of  $f(x, y) = 0$  and  $g(y, z) = 0$ , resp.
- So  $A_{i,j} = 1$  means  $f(x, y) = 0$  in corresponding pixel (else  $A_{i,j} = 0$ ).

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- The  $(i, k)$ -entry of their product  $AB$  is given by the formula:

$$\begin{aligned}(AB)_{i,k} &= \sum_j A_{i,j} * B_{j,k} \\ &= \bigvee_j A_{i,j} \wedge B_{j,k} \\ &= \exists_j (A_{i,j} \wedge B_{j,k})\end{aligned}$$

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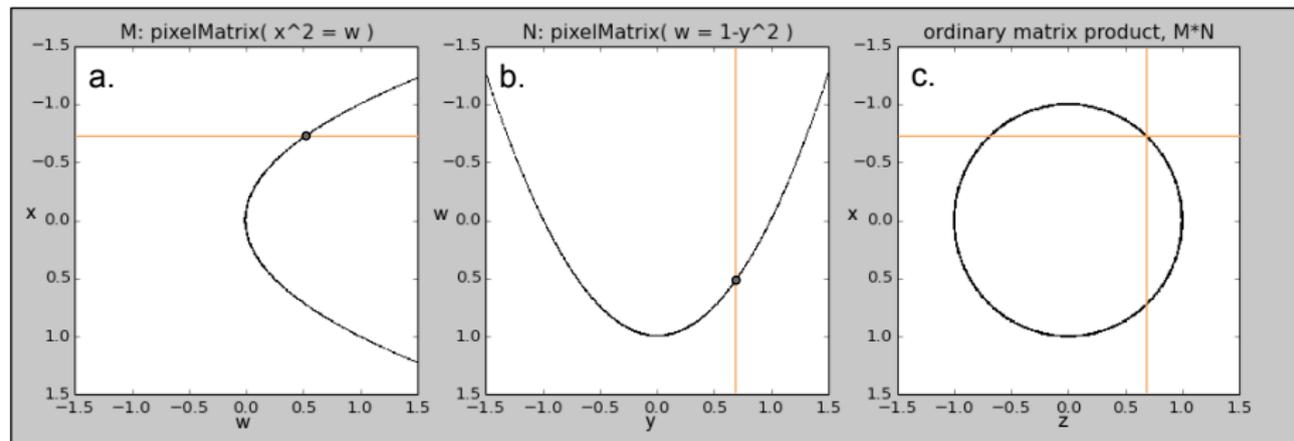
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- “ There exists some  $y$  such that  $f(x, y) = 0$  and  $g(y, z) = 0$ . ”

# Visual example again



# Demo

Here is a little demo.<sup>2</sup>

Terminal:

```
> cd /Users/davidspivak/Dropbox\ \ (MIT\)/Code/  
> notebook
```

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<sup>2</sup>Thanks to David Sanders and Andreas Noack for lots of help with Julia. 

## Multiplying larger-order arrays

When two arrays share a common dimension, they can be multiplied.

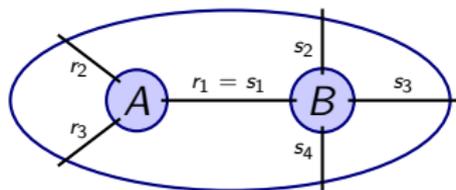
- For example, say that  $A$  is  $r_1 \times \cdots \times r_m$  and that  $B$  is  $s_1 \times \cdots \times s_n$ .
- If  $r_1 = s_1$ , the product is an  $r_2 \times \cdots \times r_m \times s_2 \times \cdots \times s_n$  array.

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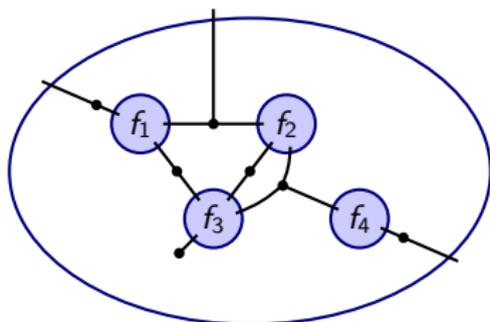
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We will be drawing these situations using wiring diagrams.



# The general array multiplication algorithm



A single formula exists to multiply arrays according to any wiring diagram.

- Basically: iterate over all the links, multiply array entries, and sum.
- But this is very naive:  $O(n^{\#\text{links}})$ .
  - Modern techniques are much faster, especially given parallel processors.
  - Plots of equations are sparse matrices.
  - Boolean matrices are very special, bit arithmetic.
  - So we can do much better than our current “naive” implementation.

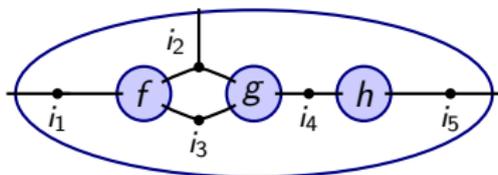
# Skip: a naive general array multiplication algorithm

**Precondition:** Wiring diagram  $\Phi: P_1, \dots, P_n \rightarrow P'$  and arrays  $A_i \in \text{Arr}(P_i)$ .

```

1 function Arr( $\Phi$ )( $A_1, \dots, A_n$ )
2    $A' := 0$  ▷  $A' \in \text{Arr}(P')$ 
3   for  $i \in \text{multi\_index}(\Phi)$  do ▷ One index per link
4      $a_i := 1$ 
5     for  $j \in \{0, \dots, n\}$  do
6        $i_j := \text{multi\_index}_{\Phi}^j(i)$  ▷ Indices for  $j^{\text{th}}$  pack
7        $a_i := a_i * A_j(i_j)$ 
8      $i' := \text{multi\_index}'_{\Phi}(i)$  ▷ Indices for outer pack
9      $A'(i') := A'(i') + a_i$ 
10  return  $A'$ 

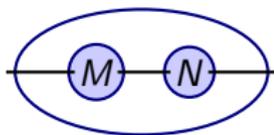
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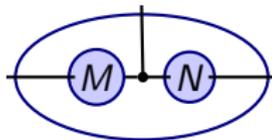
## Example wiring diagrams for named operations

The same general array multiplication formula returns famous matrix products for the following wiring diagrams:

Multiplication:  $MN$



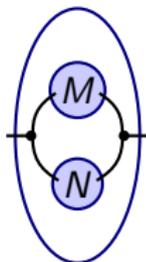
Khatri-Rao:  $M \odot N$



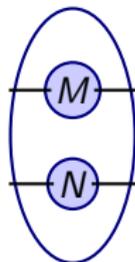
Trace:  $\text{Tr}(M)$



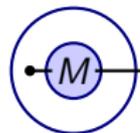
Hadamard:  $M \circ N$



Kronecker:  $M \otimes N$

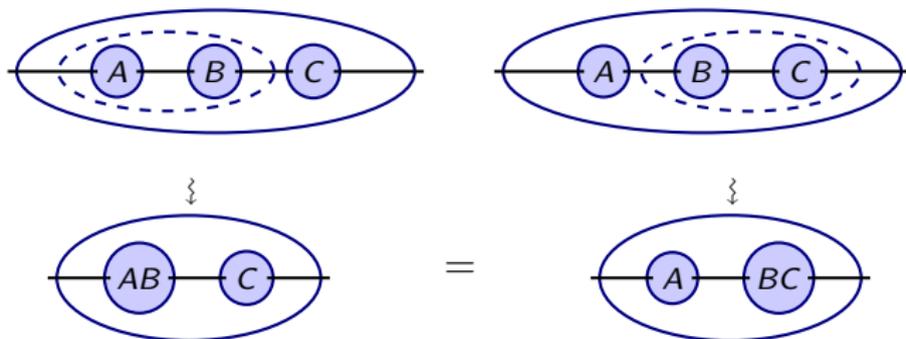


Marginalize:  $\sum_i M_{i,j}$



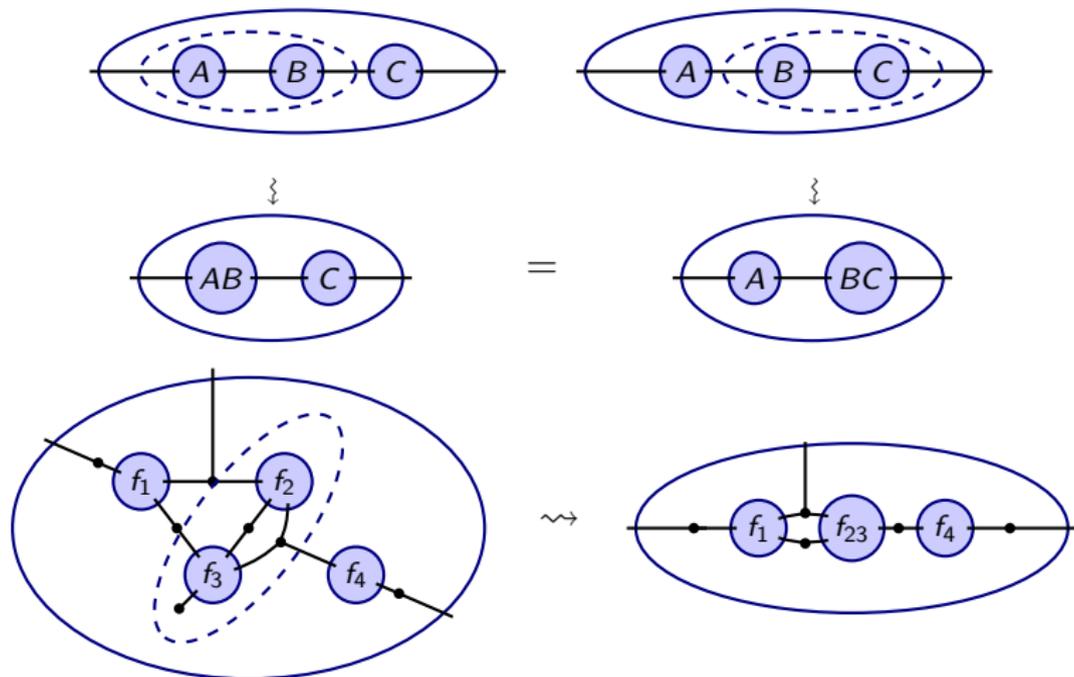
# Clustering as associative law

The associative law for matrix multiplication can be seen as clustering.



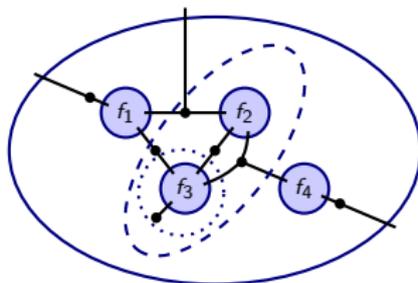
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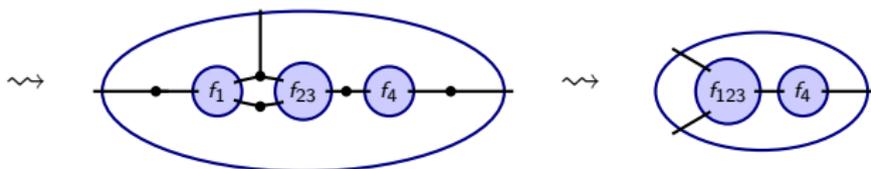
# Clustering for speed

Order of array multiplication doesn't affect solution, but does affect speed.



Naive cost for multiplying arrays:  $O(n^{\#\text{Links}})$

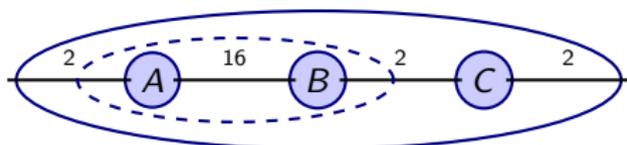
- Even if we can use sparsity, etc. solving big systems is expensive.
- Instead, we should use the associative law: cluster.



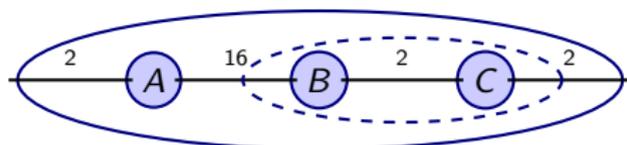
- Naive cost goes from  $O(n^7)$  to  $O(n^4)$ .

# Cluster trees

Different cluster strategies lead to different speeds.



$$\text{cost} = (2 * 16 * 2) + (2 * 2 * 2) = 72$$



$$\text{cost} = (16 * 2 * 2) + (2 * 16 * 2) = 128$$

Each strategy can be drawn as a “cluster tree”:

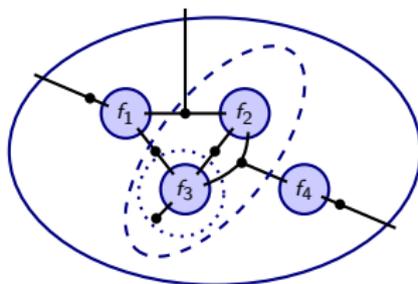


Tree tells you how much the computation will cost, using the strategy.

- Given serial processors, the cost is the sum of node values.
- Given parallel processors, the cost is the length of longest path.

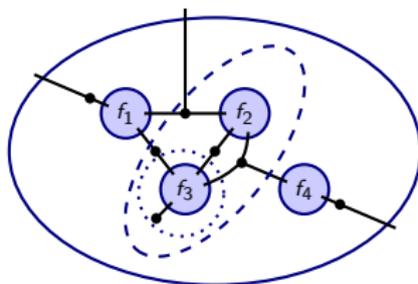
## Some clustering algorithms

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Most hypergraph clustering algorithms don't apply "out of the box":

- Our wiring diagrams are "pointed" hypergraphs (outside circle).
- Our clustering should be hierarchical: all the way down.

Some existing hypergraph clustering algorithms:

- Greedy algorithm: look for pairwise cluster of minimize cost.
- Try 1000 random samples and pick the best. Or exhaustively search.
- Try to use min cut algorithms or spectral graph theory.

# Where false positives come from

Discretization and matrix multiplication together introduce false positives.

- Discretization corresponds to an equivalence relation, denoted  $\sim$ .
  - All numbers in the same bin are equivalent.
- This causes discrepancy between what we want and what we get:
  - Want:  $\{(x, z) \mid \exists y : f(x, y) = 0 \text{ and } g(y, z) = 0\}$ .
  - Get:  $\{(x, z) \mid \exists y_1 \sim y_2 : f(x, y_1) = 0 \text{ and } f(y_2, z) = 0\}$
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- True negatives: “Get”  $\geq$  “Want”. Further refine the “on” pixels.

# Drawing 3D arrays may be better than one thinks

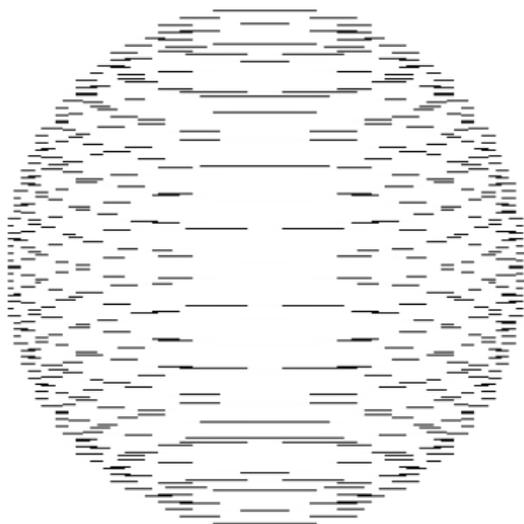
Before moving on to PDEs, here's something I found interesting.

- Start with a sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ , and plot it as a pixel array.
- The plot is 3D, say  $100 \times 100 \times 100$ .
- Now reshape it to a  $100 \times 10000$  array.
- Plot it in a square box. What do you get?

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  - Interconnected dynamical systems
  - Pixel Array analysis
- 4 Open questions
- 5 Conclusion

# Relation to Numerical methods for PDE

In this section I'll discuss how the Pixel Array method may apply to PDE.

- The whole PA idea came from category theory.
- What do pixel arrays, PDEs, and category theory have in common?

# Relation to Numerical methods for PDE

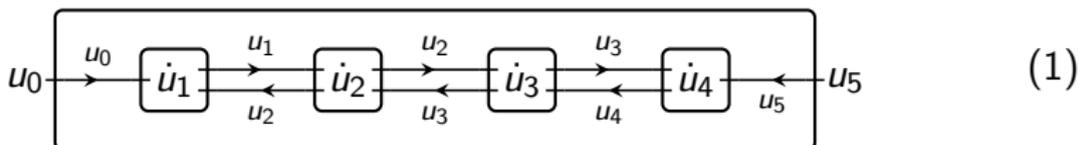
In this section I'll discuss how the Pixel Array method may apply to PDE.

- The whole PA idea came from category theory.
- What do pixel arrays, PDEs, and category theory have in common?
- Compositionality: analyze a system by assembling simple components.

Let's go a bit deeper and look at the heat equation.

# The heat equation

Spatial discretization of the 1-d heat equation  $u_t = u_{xx}$  over  $\Omega = [0, 5]$ .

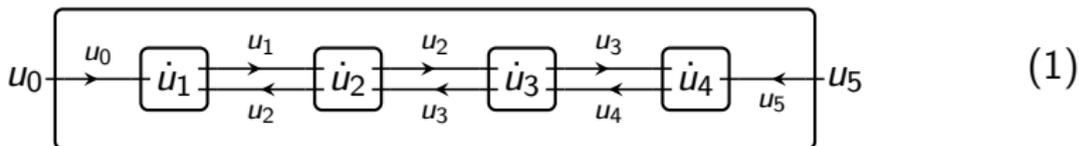


Discretize  $x$  with distance  $h = 1$ , we use Taylor's thm to obtain four ODEs.

$$\dot{u}_i = u_{i-1} - 2u_i + u_{i+1} \quad (i = 1, \dots, 4)$$

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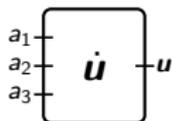
$$\dot{u}_i = u_{i-1} - 2u_i + u_{i+1} \quad (i = 1, \dots, 4)$$

Wiring diagram (1) is more general than the heat equation. It represents:

- Four interconnected dynamical systems, each defined by an ODE.
- Each ODE is a function of the neighbors' time-varying states.
- Some ODEs,  $u_1$  and  $u_4$ , involve parameters from the “outside world”.

# Open dynamical systems

Let's look at the boxes in isolation.

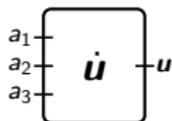


A box of the above shape represents an ODE  $\dot{\mathbf{u}} = f(\mathbf{u}, a_1, \dots, a_n)$ .

- The left-hand ports represent input parameters  $a_1(t), \dots, a_n(t)$ .
- The right-hand port represents the state  $\mathbf{u}(t)$ , being exported.
- Called an *open dynamical system* (ODS), because it interacts with the outside world.

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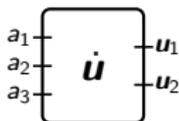


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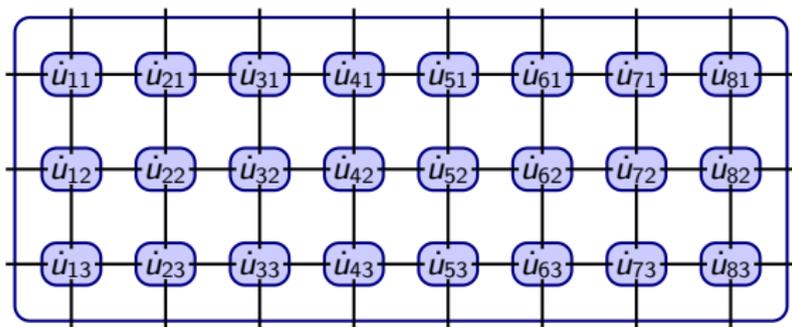


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- A closed dynamical system would look like this: 

You could also have multiple outputs,  $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$  representing functions, possibly projections, of the state:  $\mathbf{u}_j = \pi_j(\mathbf{u})$ .

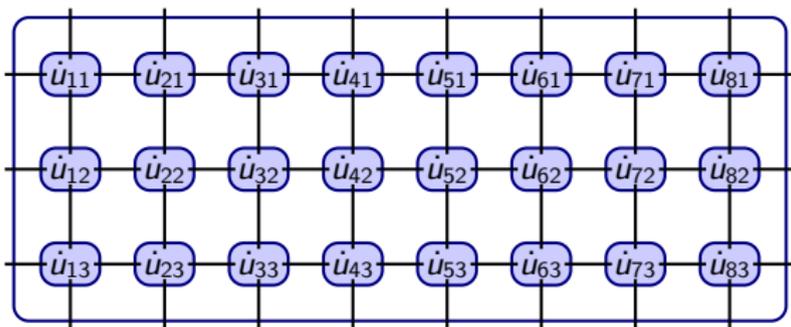
# Interconnected open dynamical systems (ODS's)



Setup for the PA method: interconnected 'open dynamical systems'.

- In each box  $(i, j)$ , there is an ODS  $\dot{\mathbf{u}}_{ij} = f(\mathbf{u}_{ij}, \mathbf{u}_{\text{neighbors}})$ .
  - These open dynamical systems are sharing variables with neighbors.
  - Together these form a more complicated ODS on the outer box.

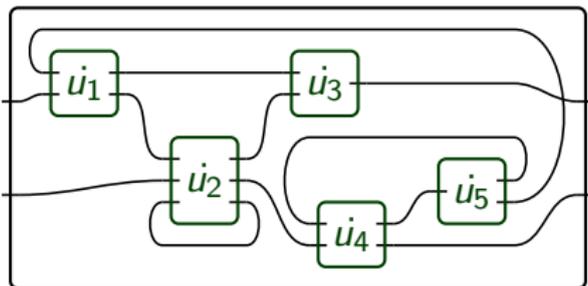
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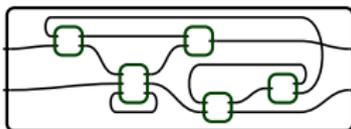
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  - Finite differences, in any dimension, discretized in space.
  - Differential equation on a network (compartment model).
  - Systems of systems (smart grid, National Airspace System).

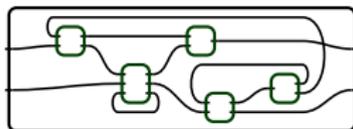
# Pixel Array analysis



The Pixel Array method lets you assemble local results.

- First choose some sort of data to plot for each ODS.
  - Most obvious: plot the steady states  $\mathbf{u} = 0$ .
  - But you could also try plotting solutions over time  $[0, \tau]$ .
- The plot is an array, indexed by the input and output wires.
  - For steady state data: index by constant input/output functions.
  - For  $[0, \tau]$  solutions: index by classifying  $[0, \tau]$  input/output functions.

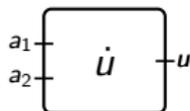
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- Then put the plots together using the Pixel Array method.
- The result is a plot of the chosen sort for the whole system (PDE).

# Plotting



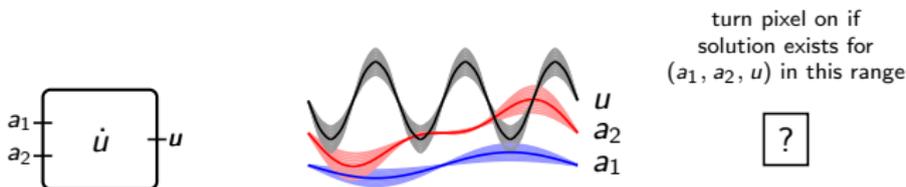
$$0 = \dot{u} = u - a_1^2$$

1	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	0
0	1	1	1	0

In the box we have an open dynamical system  $\dot{u} = f(u, a_1, \dots, a_n)$ .

- A plot for this ODS will be an order- $(n + 1)$  array.
- For example, you can plot steady-state solutions.
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  - Plot it as a pixel array: PA method combines bifurcation diagrams.
- More exotic: plot bounded-time solutions, e.g. on  $[0, \tau]$ .
  - Bin the Fourier coefficients for each  $a_i$  and  $u$ : a bin is a range.
  - A pixel corresponds to a class of periodic functions for each  $a_i$  and  $u$ .
  - Turn the pixel on if there is a solution for that sequence of classes.

# How to obtain these plots?

How do we obtain these plots? “Good luck!”

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The Pixel Array method says: “plotting is a way of linearizing”.

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Some methods for plotting  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ :

- Sample points at corner of each cell; turn pixel on if  $\text{sign}(f)$  changes.
- Sample one point in each cell and put  $2^{-|f(\mathbf{x})|}$  (not Boolean).
- Use “Interval arithmetic” (e.g.  $[1, 2] * [2, 3] = [2, 6]$ ).
- If your function is Lipschitz, you can obtain a perfect plot.
- Use your favorite  $n$ -dimensional contour plotter (with 0-contour).

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Once you have the plots, the PA method lets you combine them.

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- 1 Introduction
- 2 Details on the Pixel Array method
- 3 Relation to Numerical methods for PDE
- 4 Open questions**
  - Speed?
  - Accuracy?
  - Clustering?
- 5 Conclusion

# Apples and oranges

The inputs and outputs of the PA method are different than Newton's.

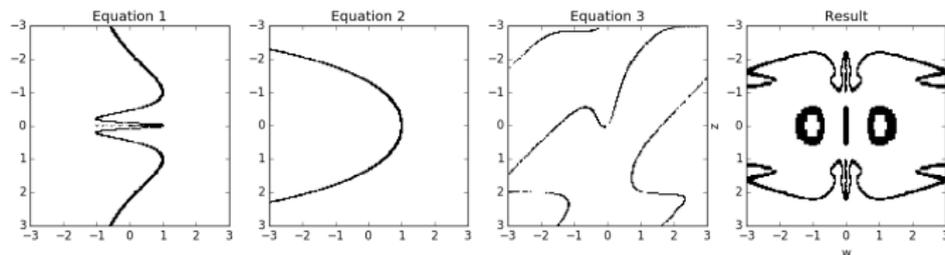
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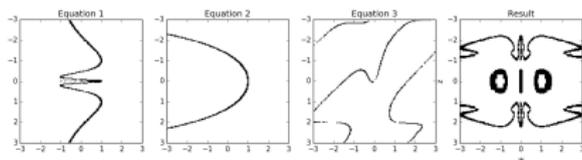
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Our speed test assumes you want to produce “all solutions” in range.



How might we use Newton to find all solutions??

# How to compare speed?



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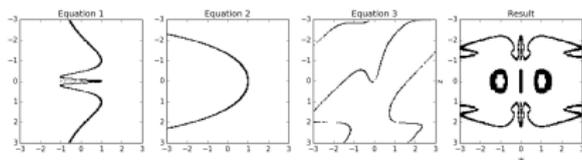
- We iterated over all boxes in the grid, each as an initial guess.

$$\cos(\ln(z^2 + 10^{-3}x)) - x + 10^{-5}z^{-1} = 0 \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

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- Is this unfair? (Ruben compares to QR vs. inverse iteration.)

With that assumption, for the above case, PA was over 7200x faster.

- PA: 1.5 seconds; Newton: we stopped Julia’s NLSolve after 3 hours.

## Determining accuracy

The PA method can introduce false positives, but no false negatives.

- The plotting process can easily introduce false negatives.
- And the Pixel Array method will of course propagate them.
- But assuming plots have true negatives, so do results.

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We thus define the *error* to be:<sup>3</sup>

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Fact: for a given resolution, the error is “unbounded”:

- For example, take  $f(x, y) = y$ ,  $g(y, z) = y - \frac{\text{step size}}{2}$ .
- PA returns the “all 1’s” pixel matrix; correct solution is “all 0’s”

Again, refinement solves this, but at a cost.

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# The source of error

When multiplying arrays, one should think of lining up matching indices.



Note that both of these have small  $y$ -coverage.

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But errors (false positives) also propagate as we combine arrays.

- A bound for the error in solving the whole system would be useful.
- I've got UROPs on the case, but we are looking for a good idea.

# Clustering cost function

Suppose given a cost function for multiplying two arrays.

- For example, my naive cost function was  $r^{\#\text{variables}}$ .
- But if matrices are sufficiently sparse, this goes way down.

Then for any cluster tree, you get the parallel and serial costs.

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It remains to find a good algorithm for minimizing this cost function.

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- Such systems come up in PDE when discretizing in space.
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I showed how the PA method works: it's pretty elementary.

- We have an array for each equation.
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