

Cramer's Rule

Cramer's rule is a mathematical theorem used to solve systems of linear equations with as many equations as unknowns, using determinants.

* It applies to square matrices where the determinant of the coefficient matrix is non-zero.

Conditions

- ① The system must be a square system (same number of equations and unknowns)
- ② The determinant of the coefficient matrix must be non-zero.
- ③ Only applicable to linear equations.

Linear equations because \Rightarrow

- ↪ variables raised only to the power of 1.
- ↪ no multiplication between variables (xy, x^2 etc.)
- ↪ graphically, each equation (in 3D) represents a plane, the solution is the point where all three planes intersect.

Application:-

- ↪ used in solving small systems of linear equations.
- ↪ used in theoretical mathematics and engineering.
- ↪ basis for understanding matrix-based solutions in linear algebra.

EX-9.3

use Cramers rule to solve,

$$0.3x_1 + 0.52x_2 + x_3 = -0.01$$

$$0.5x_1 + x_2 + 1.9x_3 = 0.67$$

$$0.1x_1 + 0.3x_2 + 0.5x_3 = -0.44$$

The determinant D can be written as,

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} 0.3 & 0.52 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 1.9 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 0.3(0.5 - 0.57) - 0.52(0.25 - 0.19) - 1(0.15 - 0.1)$$

$$= -2.2 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$D_{x_1} = \begin{vmatrix} -0.01 & 0.52 & 1 \\ 0.67 & 1 & 1.9 \\ -0.44 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 0.03278.$$

$$D_{x_2} = \begin{vmatrix} 0.3 & -0.01 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 0.67 & 1.9 \\ 0.1 & -0.44 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 0.0649$$

$$D_{x_3} = \begin{vmatrix} 0.3 & 0.52 & -0.01 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.67 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & -0.44 \end{vmatrix} = -0.04356.$$

$$x_1 = \frac{\Delta x_1}{\Delta D} = \frac{0.03278}{-0.0022} = -14.9$$

$$x_2 = \frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta D} = \frac{0.0649}{-0.0022} = -29.5$$

$$x_3 = \frac{\Delta x_3}{\Delta D} = \frac{-0.04356}{-0.0022} = 19.8$$

When Cramer's rule becomes impractical?

For more than three equations Cramer's rule becomes impractical because as the number of equations increases, the determinants are time consuming to evaluate by hand or by computer.

Iterative Process / Direct substitution Method

Considering an equation $f(x)=0$ which can take in the form

$x = \phi(x)$. If $\phi'(x) < 1$, $\phi(x)$ is convergent.

$$x_1 = \phi(x_0)$$

$$x_2 = \phi(x_1)$$

$$x_3 = \phi(x_2)$$

Find root of $x = 0.5x^2 + 0.25$ using iterative method.

$$f(x) = x - 0.5x - 0.25 \quad \text{or} \quad x - 0.5x - 0.25 = 0$$

$$f(0) = -0.25 < 1$$

$$f(1) = 0.75 \rightarrow$$

The root is between 0 and 1.

$$\text{So } x_0 = \frac{0+1}{2} = 0.5$$

Now, $x = \varphi(x)$

$$\varphi(x) = 0.5(0.5)^x + 0.25$$

$= 0.375.$

$$x_2 = 0.5(0.375)^{10.25} = 0.32031$$

$$x_3 = 0.30130$$

$$x_4 = 0.29539$$

$$\chi_5 = 0.29362$$

$$\chi_6 = 0.29310$$

$$x_7 = 0.29295.$$

The converges to 0.293

$$\text{Solve } x^3 + x - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{here, } x = 1 - x^3$$

$$f(x) = x^3 + x - 1$$

$$f(0) = -0.1$$

$$f(1) = 1$$

Root (ख) of polynomial equation
 solve करते हुए x का root value ज्ञात
 $f(x) = 0$ परामर्श करते हुए
 or $x = \boxed{\quad}$ के द्वारा ज्ञात
 x का अन्यायिक विकारण ग्रन्ति
 एवं इसका लाभ है।

So the root is between 0, 1 for bisection method.

So $x_0 = \frac{0+1}{2} = 0.5$.

$$\phi(x) = 1 - x^3 \quad (x = \text{approx or } \phi(x))$$

$$\phi'(x) = 0 - 3x^2$$

$$\phi'(x) \text{ at } x_0 = 0.5 = -0.75 < 1$$

So the iterative process can be applied.

$$x_{i+1} = \phi(x_i)$$

$$x_1 = 1 - (0.5)^3 = 0.875$$

$$x_2 = 1 - (0.875)^3 = 0.33008$$

$$x_3 = 1 - (0.33008)^3 = 0.96404$$

$$x_4 = 1 - (0.96404)^3 = 0.10405$$

$$x_5 = 1 - (0.10405) = 0.89595$$

Divergence and convergence

$$2x + 1 = 4x^4$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{1}{4}$$

Convergence = 1st step - 2nd step

n	x_n
1	1.0
2	0.75
3	0.53125
4	
5	
E	0.30330

Divergence 3rd step - 2nd step > 3rd step - 1st step.

n	x_n
1	2.0
2	2.25
3	2.78125
4	4.11768
5	8.72763
6	38.33574

Root! এটা কী করে মান যের পরে $f(x) = 0$ এর function
কি value o করে রাখাটা মান আয়।

Bracketing Method

The bracketing method is a numerical technique for finding the root of an equation $f(x)=0$ by identifying two initial values a and b such that:

$f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$. So that the function must be continuous

in the interval.

Types of Bracketing methods

- ④ Bisection Method (split the interval and chooses half with sign change)
- ④ False Position (Regula Falsi)
use a secant line between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ to estimate root.

Brent's Method:
Combined bisection, secant and interpolation for faster convergence

Bisection Method:

If $f(x)$ is real and continuous in the interval from x_l to x_u and $f(x_l)$ and $f(x_u)$ have opposite sign, that is $f(x_l) \cdot f(x_u) < 0$, then there is at least one real root between x_l and x_u .

Bisection Method Algorithm:

① Choose lower x_l and upper x_u greater for the root such that the function changes sign over the interval. This can be checked by ensuring that $f(x_l) \cdot f(x_u) < 0$

② An estimate of the root x_n is determined by

$$x_n = \frac{x_l + x_u}{2}$$

③ Make the following evaluations to determine in which subinterval the root lies:

If $f(x_l) \cdot f(x_n) < 0$, the root lies in the lower subinterval. Therefore let $x_u = x_n$ and return to step 2.

If $f(x_l) \cdot f(x_n) > 0$, the root lies in the upper subinterval. Therefore let $x_l = x_n$ and return to step 2.

If $f(x_l) \cdot f(x_n) = 0$, the root equals x_n ; terminate the computation.

Example-5.3 Use Bisection method to solve the following problem up to approximate percent relative error $E_a = 0.42\%$. $f(c) = \frac{g_m}{c} (1 - e^{-\frac{10c}{(8.1)}}) - 40$

$$f(c) = \frac{667.38}{c} (1 - e^{-0.146848c}) - 40$$

Solution-

$$\text{Let } x_L = 12, x_U = 16$$

Algo Step 1: $f(12) = 6.0669$

$$f(16) = \cancel{6.0669} - 2.2687$$

$$f(12).f(16) = 6.0669 \times -2.2687 = -13.76$$

$$\therefore f(x_L) \cdot f(x_U) < 0; x_U = x_R$$

Algo Step 2: Now, $x_R = \frac{12+16}{2} = 14$.

$$f(14) = 1.5687$$

$$f(12).f(14) = 6.0669 \times 1.5687 = 9.52 > 0; x_L = x_R$$

$$\therefore x_R = 14$$

$$x_R = \frac{14+16}{2} = 15$$

$$f(14) f(15) = 1.5687 \times -0.4248 = -0.666 < 0; x_U = x_R$$

$$\therefore x_R = 15$$

$$\text{Now } x_{U0} + x_{R0} = \frac{14+15}{2} = 14.5$$

I am going to continue this process until the appropriate error

$$E_a = 0.422$$

$$E_a = \left| \frac{x_n^{\text{new}} - x_n^{\text{old}}}{x_n^{\text{new}}} \right| \times 100\%.$$

~~$f(x_n) \cdot f(x_{n+1})$~~
 positive \rightarrow lower charge
 negative \rightarrow upper charge

Iteration	x_L	x_R	x_m	$E_a (\%)$
1	12	16	14	100.00
2	14	16	15	6.677
3	14	15	14.5	3.448
4	14.5	15	14.75	1.695
5	14.75	15	14.875	0.840
6	14.75	14.875	14.8125	0.422

Thus after 6 iterations, E_a falls below 0.422%.

Difference between Iteration method and Bisection method \Rightarrow

Bisection Method	Iteration Method
① Always converges	② May not converge
③ Slower (linear convergence)	④ Faster (if converges)
⑤ Needs interval with sign change	⑥ Needs good initial guess.
⑦ Safe and slow	⑧ Fast but sensitive

$F(x) = x - \text{Cot}(x)$ we have to solve in both iteration method and Bisection method \Rightarrow

Iteration method

Let us assume,

$$F(0) = -1.00 < 0$$

$$F(1) = 0.00015 > 0$$

so the root lies between the 0 and 1.

$$x_0 = \frac{0+1}{2} = 0.5$$

$$x - \text{Cot}x = 0$$

$$\therefore x = \text{Cot}x$$

$$\Phi(x) = \text{Cot}x$$

~~$$x_1 = \text{Cot}(0.5 \times 57.3) = 0.89966$$~~

$$x_1 = \text{Cot}(0.5 \times 57.3) = 0.89966$$

$$x_2 = 0.80267$$

$$x_3 = 0.69474$$

$$x_4 = 0.76818$$

$$x_5 = 0.71913$$

$$x_6 = 0.75234$$

$$x_7 = 0.73005$$

$$x_8 = 0.7451$$

If it is going to a fix point so the root of $x = \text{Cot}x$ is approximately 0.7391

Iteration	x_L	x_u	x_m	$F(x_L)$	$F(x_u)$	$F(x_m)$	E_a
1	0	1	0.5	-1	0.459	0.01820	
2	0	0.5	0.25	-1	0.1224	0.0311	100
3	0	0.25	0.125	-1	0.0311	-0.8672	50
	0.125	0.25	0.1875	-0.8672	0.0311	-0.795	

Iteration	x_L	x_u	x_m	$F(x_L)$	$F(x_u)$	$F(x_m)$	E_a
1	0	1	0.5	-1	0.459	-0.3776	
2	0.5	1	0.75	-0.3776	0.459	0.0183	33.33%
3	0.5	0.75	0.625	-0.3776	0.0183	-0.1859	20%
4	0.625	0.75	0.6875	-0.1859	0.0183	-0.0853	9.09%
5	0.6875	0.75	0.7188	-0.0853	0.0183	-0.338	4.35%
6	0.7188	0.75	0.7344	-0.338	0.0183	-0.0078	2.12%
7	0.7344	0.75	0.7422	-0.0078	0.0183	0.0053	1.05%
8	0.7344	0.7422	0.7383	-0.0078	0.0053	-0.0013	0.53%
9	0.7383	0.7422	0.7403	-0.0013	0.0053	0.0020	0.27%
10	0.7383	0.7403	0.7393	-0.0013	0.0020	0.0004	0.135%
11	0.7383	0.7393	0.7388	-0.0013	0.0004	-0.0004	0.067

As the error becomes very small to the root we can say $x = 0.7388$.

False-Position Method (Linear interpolation method, regula Falsi)

False Position method joins $f(x_l)$ and $f(x_u)$ by a straight line.

The intersection of this line and x -axis represents an improved estimator of the root.

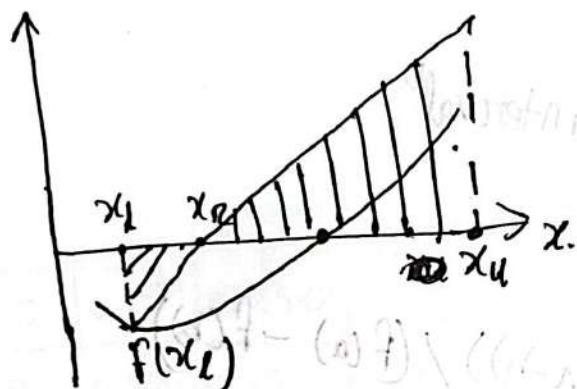


Fig: Graphical depiction of the method of false Position.

The intersection of the straight line with the x -axis can be estimated as,

$$\frac{f(x_l)}{x_u - x_l} = \frac{f(x_u)}{x_u - x_l}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_l) \cdot (x_u - x_l) = f(x_u) \cdot (x_u - x_l)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_u [f(x_l) - f(x_u)] = x_u f(x_u) - x_l f(x_u)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_u = \frac{x_u f(x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)} - \frac{x_l f(x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_u = x_u + \frac{x_u \cdot f(x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)} - x_u - \frac{x_l f(x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_u = x_u + \frac{x_u f(x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)} - \frac{x_l f(x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_n = x_u - \frac{f(x_u) \cdot (x_l - x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)}$$

False Position Method Algorithm:

Input: $f(x)$, a , b , ϵ , N

If $f(a) * f(b) \geq 0$:

Print "Invalid interval"

Exit

For $i=1$ to N :

$$x_n = b - \frac{(f(b) + (a-b)) / (f(a) - f(b))}{(x_l) - (x_u)}$$

If $|f(x_n)| < \epsilon$:

Return x_n

If $f(a) * f(x_n) < 0$:

$$b = x_n$$

Else:

$$a = x_n$$

Return x_n .

Example: $f(x) = x^3 - 4x + 1$

Let us assume,

$$x_u = 0, x_{ll} = 1$$

$$\underline{x_n} = \frac{f(x_u) \cdot (x_l - x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)} = \frac{(0)^3 - 4(0) + 1}{(1)^3 - (0)^3} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

$$f(x_d) = 1, f(x_u) = -2$$

$A_1 \cdot f(x_l) \cdot f(x_u) < 0$ so the root lies between them

$$x_{l2} = l - \frac{(-2)(-1)}{1+2}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}$$

$$x_{r2} = x_u - \frac{f(x_u)(x_l - x_u)}{f(x_l) - f(x_u)}$$

Iteration	x_l	x_u	x_{l2}	$f(x_l)$	$f(x_u)$	$f(x_{l2})$	E
1	0	1	$\frac{1}{3}$	-2	-0.2963	0.001802	-0.0115
2	0	0.333	0.1667 0.2571	1	-0.2963	-0.0009	29.63%
3	0	0.2571	0.2542	1	-0.0115	-0.0035	1.14%
4	0	0.2542	0.2532	1	-0.004	0.0035	0.3949%
5	0.2532	0.2542	0.2537	0.0035	-0.004	0.0017	0.1971%
6	0.2537	0.2542	0.2538	0.0017	-0.004	0.0010	0.0394%
7	0.2538	0.2542	0.2539	0.0010	-0.004	0.0008	0.0394%

so that the root is 0.2539

preferable than false positioning.

A case where bisection is *preferable than false positioning.*
 Although false position method would seem to be the bracketing method of preference, there are certain cases where it performs poorly.

Example-5.6 :- $f(x) = x^{10} - 1$

Let us assume the lower limit $x_l = 0$ and upper limit $x_u = 1.3$.

Using Bisection the result can be summarized as,

Iteration	x_l	x_u	x_m	$F(x_l)$	$F(x_u)$	$F(x_m)$	E
1	0	1.3	0.65	-1	12.7858	-0.9865	
2	0.65	1.3	0.9750	-0.9865	12.7858	-0.2237	33.3%
3	0.9750	1.3	1.1375	-0.2237	12.758	2.6267	14.2857%
4	0.975	1.1375	1.0563	-0.2237	2.6267	0.7285	7.71%
5	0.975	1.0563	1.0157	-0.2237	0.7285	0.1686	3.99%

Using False Position

Iteration	x_l	x_u	x_m	E
1	0	1.3	0.0943	88.0
2	0.0943	1.3	0.18176	48.1
3	0.18176	1.3	0.26287	30.9
4	0.26287	1.3	0.33811	22.3
5	0.33811	1.3	0.40788	17.1

After 5 iteration, appropriate error from bisection is 40 and from false position is 17.1.

This proves that, there are cases where bisection is preferable

Before integrating, $f_1(x) = f(a) + \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{(b-a)}(x-a)$ can be expressed,

$$f_1(x) = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}x + f(a) - \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \cdot a.$$

Grouping the last two terms gives

$$f_1(x) = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \cdot x + \frac{bf(a) - af(a) - af(b) + af(a)}{b-a}$$
$$= \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \cdot x + \frac{bf(a) - af(a)}{b-a}.$$

which can be integrated between $x=a$ and $x=b$.

$$I = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{bf(a) - af(a)}{b-a} \cdot x \Big|_a^b$$
$$= \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} + \frac{bf(a) - af(a)}{b-a} (b-a)$$

$$\text{Since, } b^2 - a^2 = (b-a)(b+a)$$

$$I = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{2} (b+a) + \frac{bf(a) - af(a)}{b-a} (b-a)$$
$$= \frac{2}{b-a} \left[\frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2} \right]$$

This is the derivation of trapezoid rule.

Newton-Raphson Method:-

It is a powerful iterative technique to find root of nonlinear equations of the form $f(x) = 0$.

$$\text{formula of root } x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

x_n = current approximation

x_{n+1} = next approximation

$f(x_n)$ = Function

$f'(x_n)$ = derivative of the function.

Algorithm Steps:-

① choose an initial guess x_0 .

② compute next value using $x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$

③ Repeat the formula until the solution converges.

$$|x_{n+1} - x_n| < \epsilon \text{ (small tolerance)}$$

Solve $x^2 - 2 = 0$.

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2$$

$$f'(x) = 2x$$

x_n	$f(x_n)$	$f'(x_n)$	$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$
1	-1	2	1.5
1.5	0.25	3	1.4167
1.4167	0.0069	2.8334	1.4143
1.4143	0.0001	2.8286	1.4143

Converges to $\sqrt{2} \approx 1.4142$

repeated the root.

Adv:

- Fast convergence (quadratic)
- Simple to implement
- Great for well-behaved functions.

Disadv:

- Needs derivative $f'(x)$
- Can diverge if initial guess is poor.
- Fail at points where $f'(x) = 0$.

Method **Convergence rate** **speed**

Bisection	Linear	Slow
Secant	Super linear	Moderate
Newton-Raphson	Quadratic	Fast

Real Application:

Used in calculators to compute square roots and inverse trigonometric functions.

- Efficient for embedded systems with limited resources (e.g. old Nokia phones).

Method can diverge

- ① Poor initial guess.
- ② $f'(x) = 0$ or very small
- ③ Function not continuous or badly behaved.
- ④ Root is multiple \Rightarrow The slope becomes flat \rightarrow convergence becomes slow or fails.

Gauss Elimination Method: $\xrightarrow{\text{REF}} \text{Reduce Row echelon form.}$

The Gauss Elimination Method is a systematic technique for solving systems of linear equations. It reduces a system to row-echelon form using row operations, then solve it using back-substitution.

Method:

Forward Elimination: Convert the coefficient matrix into upper triangular form by eliminating variable below (diagonal) the pivot.

Back Substitution: Solve the last equation first and substitute back to find other unknowns.

Solve this example. $2x + 3y + z = 1$

$$4x + 7y + 5z = 2$$

$$6x + 13y + 6z = 5$$

Matrix
$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 7 & 5 & 2 \\ 6 & 13 & 6 & 5 \end{array} \right]$$

Now, $R_2 - 2R_1$,

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 6 & 13 & 6 & 5 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{again, } R_3 - 3R_1 = R'_3$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 3 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

Now making the matrix upper triangular by

$$R_3' = R_3 - 9R_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -24 \end{bmatrix} : 2$$

$$-242 = 2$$

$$\therefore z = \frac{-1}{1^2}$$

$$y + 32 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow y = -3z = -3 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = -\frac{3}{4}$$

$$2x + 3y + z = 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x + 3 \cdot 1/4 - 1/2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{6}$$

∴ So the answer is $x = \frac{1}{6}$, $y = \frac{1}{4}$, $z = -\frac{1}{12}$.

Gauss-Jordan Elimination

It is a step by step method used to solve a system of linear equations by transforming the augmented matrix into Reduced Row Echelon Form (RREF) using row operation.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 200 \\ 150 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & 2.00 & 1.00 & | & 100 \\ 0.00 & -1.00 & 1.00 & | & 200 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 1.00 & | & 150 \end{bmatrix}$$

1) R₁ stays same

$$2) R_2 = R_2 - 2 \times R_1 = [0, -1, 1] \quad | \quad 0$$

$$3) R_3 = R_3 - R_1 = [0, -1, 1] \quad | \quad 50$$

$$4) R_3 = R_3 - R_2 = [0, 0, 0] \quad | \quad 50 \quad \text{contradiction}$$

This is inconsistent method and there is no solution, as one row is totally zero so it is inconsistent.

A math for both Gauss-Jordan Elimination and Gauss Elimination.

$$3x_1 - 0.1x_2 - 0.2x_3 = 7.85$$

$$0.1x_1 + 7x_2 - 0.3x_3 = -19.3$$

$$0.3x_1 - 0.2x_2 + 10x_3 = 71.4$$

Solution: First we have to express the coefficients and the right-hand side in an augmented matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -0.1 & -0.2 & 7.85 \\ 0.1 & 7 & -0.3 & -19.3 \\ 0.3 & -0.2 & 10 & 71.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi_1' = \frac{\pi_1}{3}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.03333 & -0.06667 & 2.61667 \\ 0.1 & 7 & -0.3 & -19.3 \\ 0.3 & -0.2 & 10 & 71.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then, } \pi_2' = \pi_2 - \pi_1 \times 0.1$$

$$\pi_3' = \pi_3 - \pi_1 \times 0.3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.03333 & -0.06667 & 2.61667 \\ 0 & 7.00333 & -0.29333 & -19.5617 \\ 0 & -0.190000 & 10.0200 & 70.6150 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Next, } \pi_2' = \frac{\pi_2}{7.00333}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.03333 & -0.06667 & 2.61667 \\ 0 & 1 & -0.04188 & -2.79320 \\ 0 & -0.19000 & 10.0200 & 70.6150 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi_1' = \pi_1 + 0.03333\pi_2$$

$$\pi_3' = \pi_3 + 0.1900\pi_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -0.0680629 & 2.52356 \\ 0 & 1 & -0.0418848 & -2.79320 \\ 0 & 0 & 10.01200 & 70.0843 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3' = R_3 / 10,01200$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -0.0680629 & 2.52356 \\ 0 & 1 & -0.0418848 & -2.79320 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 7.0000 \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_1' = R_1 + 0.0680629 R_3$$

$$R_2' = R_2 + 0.0418848 R_3$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 8 & 2 \\ 0 & -10 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & -7/2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3.000 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2.5000 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 7.000 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\therefore x = 3, y = -2.5, z = 7.$$

$$R_1 \text{ contains } 0 \text{ at } R_2 \text{ contains } 50 \text{ at point } 0$$

at first LT on

$$R_1 \text{ contains } 2 \text{ at } 0 \text{ at } R_3 \text{ contains } 50 \text{ at point } 0$$

Compare

$$R_3 \geq R_1 \quad \frac{2}{-7/2}$$

All time

$$R_3 \text{ contains } 50 \text{ at point } 0$$

Difference between Gauss elimination and Gauss Jordan

- When an unknown is eliminated in the Gauss-Jordan method it is eliminated from all other equations but in Gauss elimination, just the subsequent ones are eliminated.
- In Gauss-Jordan method, the elimination steps result in an identity matrix whereas, in Gauss elimination, the elimination steps result in a triangular matrix.
- If it is not necessary to employ back substitution to obtain the solution in Gauss-Jordan method, but in

Gauss elimination, the back substitution is necessary for the solution.

Interpolation

The value of ' x ' for which the value of ' y ' is to be estimated is an intermediate value in the given set of values of ' x ' then the method of determining ' y ' is called interpolation.

$x \rightarrow$ argument
 $y \rightarrow$ entry

Interpolation is a numerical method used to estimate the value of a function at a point within the range of known data points.

Interpolation methods

- 1) Newton's forward interpolation → if the interval is equal.
- 2) Newton's backward interpolation → if the interval is unequal.
- 3) Binomial method → missing terms.
- 4) Lagrange's interpolation → unequal interval.

Newton's Forward and Backward Interpolation

Let $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n$ be a set of equidistant values of variable x .

$$\therefore x_1 - x_0 = x_2 - x_1 = x_3 - x_2 = \dots = x_n - x_{n-1} = h$$

$$\text{Let } u = \frac{x - x_0}{h}$$

Newton's forward difference formula,

$$y = y_0 + \frac{u}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)(u-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + \dots + \frac{u(u-1)(u-2)\dots(u-n+1)}{n!} \Delta^n y_0.$$

Horizontal difference (First-order difference):

These are differences along the rows of a table.

$$\Delta y_i = y_{i+1} - y_i$$

x	y	$\Delta y_0 = 4 - 2 = 2$
1	2	
2	4	$\Delta y_1 = 7 - 4 = 3$
3	7	$\Delta y_2 = 11 - 7 = 4$
n	11	

(x)	y
1	2
2	4
3	7
n	11

diagonal difference (the second-order difference):

These are taken diagonally between the horizontal differences.

horizontal differences,

$$\Delta^2 y_0 = \Delta y_1 - \Delta y_0 = 3 - 2 = 1$$

$$\Delta^2 y_1 = \Delta y_2 - \Delta y_1 = 4 - 3 = 1$$

third order difference,

$$\Delta^3 y_0 = \Delta y_1 - \Delta y_0 = 1 - 1 = 0.$$

so the full difference table looks like:

x	y	Δy	$\Delta^2 y$	$\Delta^3 y$
1	2	2	1	0
2	4	3	1	
3	7	4		
4	11			

$f(x) = x^2 + 1$

x	$f(x)$
0	1
1	2
2	5
3	10
4	17

first difference,

$$\Delta f_0 = f(1) - f(0) = 2 - 1 = 1$$

$$\Delta f_1 = 3, \Delta f_2 = 5, \Delta f_3 = 7$$

second difference,

$$\Delta^2 f_0 = 2, \Delta^2 f_1 = 2, \Delta^2 f_2 = 2$$

The second difference are constant which confirms

degree 2 polynomial

third difference,

$$\Delta^3 f_0 = 2 - 2 = 0$$

And all higher difference are zero

So for a Polynomial of degree n, the nth order finite difference is constant and all higher-order differences are zero.

For degree 1, first difference constant
deg 2, second constant

Newton's Forward interpolation to find $f(2.5)$

$$f(x) = x^3$$

x	$y = f(x)$
1	1
2	8
3	27
4	64

$u = \frac{x - x_0}{h}$

output looks diff wrong
 $0.8333 \cdot (2.5) = x = 0.7$

Condition checking,

$n = x_1 - x_0 = 2 - 1 = 1$, $x_2 - x_1 = 3 - 2 = 1$
the interval of x is equal, and at 2.5 is closer to the beginning of the table we are going to use,

Newton's Forward interpolation.

The forward difference table,

x	y	Δy	$\Delta^2 y$	$\Delta^3 y$
1	1	7	12	6
2	8	19	18	
3	27	37		
4	64			

Newton's forward interpolation formula,

$$f(x) = y_0 + u\Delta y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)(u-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0$$

$$x_0 = 1$$

$$h = 1$$

$$d = \frac{x - x_0}{h} = \frac{2.5 - 1}{1} = 1.5$$

$$f(2.5) = y_0 + u \cdot \Delta y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)(u-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0$$

$$= 1 + (1.5)(7) + \frac{1.5 \times 0.5}{2} (12) + \frac{1.5(0.5)(-0.5)}{6} 6$$

$$= 15.625$$

since the actual function,

$$f(x) = x^3 = (2.5)^3 = 15.625.$$

Newton Backward Formula:

$$f(x) = y_n + u \cdot \Delta y_n + \frac{u(u+1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_n + \frac{u(u+1)(u+2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_n$$

Given table,
 $f(x) = x^3 = y$

x	f(x) = x ³ = y
1	1
2	8
3	27
4	64

$x_1 - x_0 = 2 - 1 = 1 = x_2 - x_1 = 3 - 2 = 1$
i.e difference is equal. And as 3.5 is near the end so we will use Backward formula.

$$n = 4$$

$$h = \frac{x - x_1}{n} = \frac{3.5 - 3}{4} = 0.5$$

$$2.1 = \frac{1-2.5}{1} = \frac{0.5-1}{1}$$

<u>x</u>	<u>y</u>	Δy	$\Delta^2 y$	$\Delta^3 y$
1	1			
2	8	7		
3	27	19	12	
4	64	37	18	6

plugging the values in formula,

$$f(3.5) = y_n + u \Delta y_n + \frac{u(u+1)}{2} \Delta^2 y_n + \frac{u(u+1)(u+2)}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 1} \Delta^3 y_n$$

$$= 64 + (-0.5)(37) + \frac{-0.5(0.5)}{2}(18) + \frac{-0.5(0.5)(1.5)}{6}(6)$$

$$= 42.875$$

At the function,

$$f(x) = x^3$$

$$f(3.5) = (3.5)^3 = 42.875$$

Comparison table for Forward and Backward interpolation

Forward interpolation	Backward interpolation
when x is near the beginning of the data.	when x is near the end of the data
First value y_0	Last value y_n
$u = \frac{x - x_0}{h}$	$u = \frac{x - x_n}{h}$
Forward difference (Δy)	Backward difference (∇y)
$f(x) = y_0 + u \Delta y_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \dots$	$f(x) = y_n + u \nabla y_n + \frac{u(u+1)}{2!} \nabla^2 y_n + \dots$
values of x close to x_0	values of x close to x_n
From top to bottom (Forward step)	From bottom to top (backward step)

Interpolation is finding the unknown value of a function between known data points.

Adv of Lagrange interpolation \Rightarrow

- ① No difference table need.
- ② Works for unequal interval.
- ③ simple to apply
- ④ Accurate for small data sets.
- ⑤ Good for computer.

Newton-Cote integration Formula

The Newton Cotes method helps in estimating the area under a curve by using simple shapes like straight lines or curves; that connect some points on the function.

General Newton-Cote formula

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

- ① x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are equally spaced points in $[a, b]$.
- ② w_i are weights depending on the interpolation.
- ③ The degree n of the formula is the number of points used minus 1. or the subinterval.

Types of Newton Cote Formula (closed form)

① Trapezoidal Rule ($n=1$):

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{b-a}{2} [f(a) + f(b)]$$

Use a straight line to connect two points.

② Simpson's 1/3 Rule ($n=2$):

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{b-a}{6} [f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b)]$$

use Parabola through 3 points.

$$x_b \left[(a-x) \frac{(a)^2 - (x)^2}{a-x} + (x)^2 \right] = F$$

③ Simpson's 3/8 Rule ($n=3$):

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{3h}{8} [f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)]$$

use cubic polynomial through 4 points.

④ Boole's Rule ($n=4$):

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{2h}{45} [7f(x_0) + 32f(x_1) + 12f(x_2) + 32f(x_3) + 7f(x_4)]$$

uses 5 points and fits a higher degree polynomial.

$h = \frac{b-a}{n}$; this is the width of each small subinterval.

Trapezoidal Rule: ~~Derivation of Trapezoid rule.~~

The trapezoidal rule is the first of the Newton-Cotes closed integration formulas. It corresponds to the case where the polynomial in the eqn is first order.

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f_1(x) dx.$$

A straight line can be represented as

$$f_1(x) = f(a) + \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} (x-a)$$

The area under this straight line is an estimate of the integral of $f(x)$ between limits a and b :

$$I = \int_a^b \left[f(a) + \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} (x-a) \right] dx$$

$$= \left[f(a)x + \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \cdot \frac{(x-a)^2}{2} \right]_a^b$$

$$= f(a) \cdot b - f(a) \cdot a + \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \cdot \frac{(b-a)^2}{2}$$

$$= f(a)(b-a) + \frac{[f(b)-f(a)] \cdot (b-a)}{2}$$

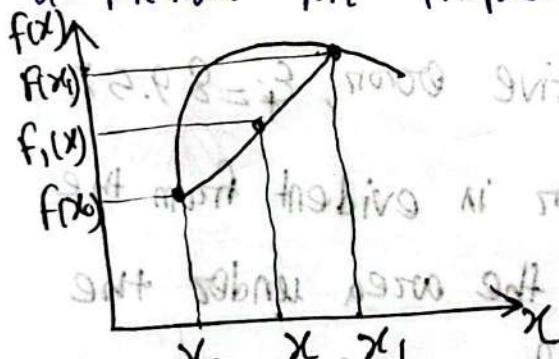
$$= \frac{2f(a)(b-a) + f(b)(b-a) - f(a)(b-a)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{f(a)(b-a) + f(b)(b-a)}{2}$$

$$\therefore I = (b-a) \cdot \frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2}$$

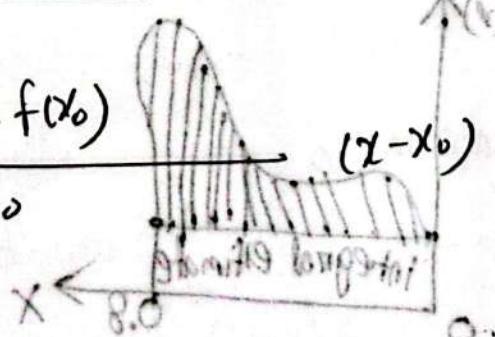
$I \approx$ width \times average height.

This is a formula for trapezoidal rule.



$$\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow f_i(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} (x - x_0)$$



Thus trapezoidal rule approximates

1.5 x 1

area below curve

Ex-21.1

use trapezoidal rule to numerically integrate $f(x) = 0.2 + 25x - 200x^2 + 675x^3 - 900x^4 + 400x^5$.

from $a=0$ to $b=0.8$ exact value = 1.640533

Solution:

The function values.

$$f(0) = 0.2$$

$$f(0.8) = 0.232$$

using trapezoidal rule we get,

$$I \approx 0.8 \cdot \frac{0.2 + 0.232}{2} = 0.1728.$$

which represents an error of

$$E_t = 1.640533 - 0.1728 = 1.467733$$

which corresponds to percent relative error, $\epsilon_t = 8.95\%$.

The reason for this large error is evident from the figure as we can see that the area under the straight line neglects a significant portion of the integral

lying above the line.

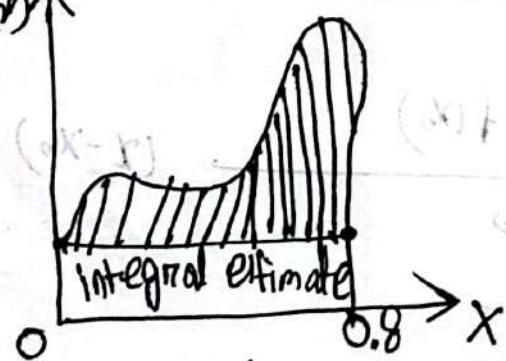


Fig: Single Application of Trapezoidal rule

$$\epsilon_t = \left| \frac{V_A - V_E}{V_E} \right| \times 100\%$$

V_A = actual value observed

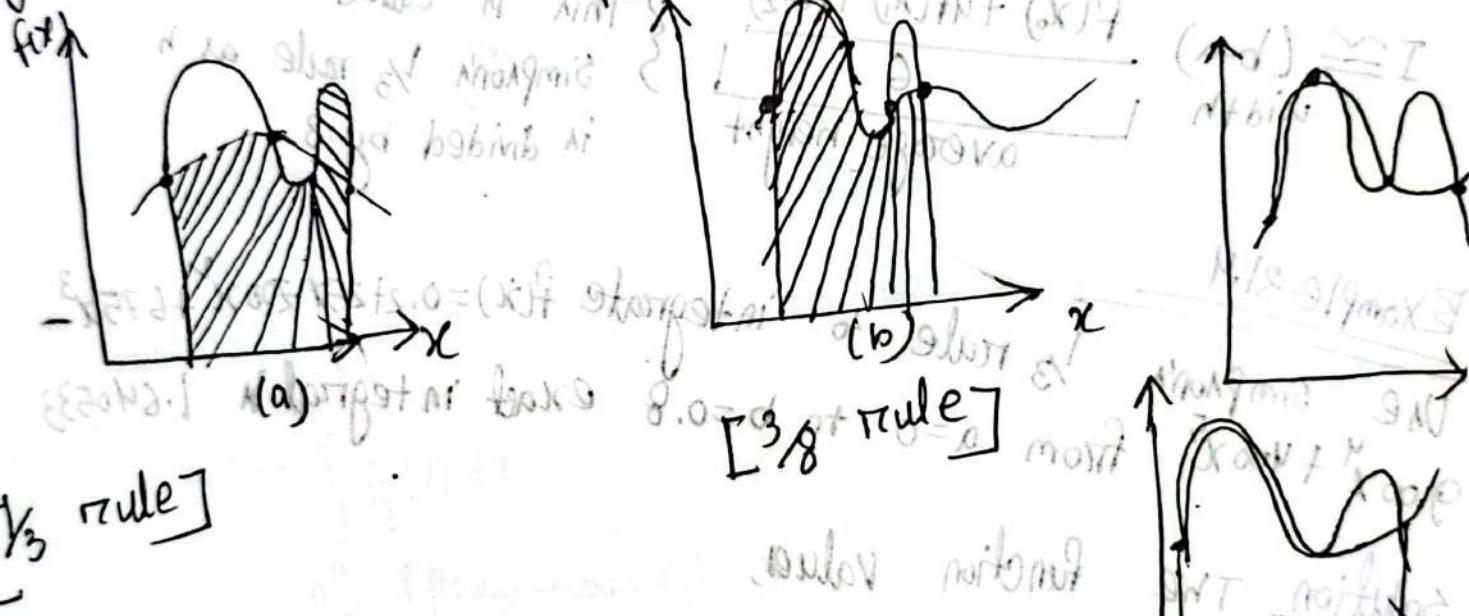
V_E = expected value.

How to remove Trapezoidal rule? using Simpson's rule

⇒ By using Simpson's $\frac{1}{3}$ Rule

Simpson's Rule:

Another way to obtain a more accurate estimate of an integral is to use higher-order polynomials to connect the points. For example if there is an extra point midway between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, the three points can be connected with a parabola. If there are two points equally spaced between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, the four points can be connected with a third-order polynomial. The formula that result from taking the integrals under these polynomials are called Simpson's rule.



[$\frac{1}{3}$ rule]

Simpson $\frac{1}{3}$ Rule:

Simpson's $\frac{1}{3}$ rule results when a second order interpolating polynomial is substituted into

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f_2(x) dx$$

when a second order interpolating polynomial is substituted into

$$SES.0 + (2P.S)N + S.0 \leq I$$

If a and b are designated as x_0 and x_2 , and $f_2(x)$ is represented by a second order lagrange polynomial, the integral becomes,

$$I = \int_{x_0}^{x_2} \left[\frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_1-x_2)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} f(x_1) \right. \\ \left. + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)} f(x_2) \right] dx$$

After integration and algebraic manipulation the following formula results.

$$I \approx \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)] ; h = \frac{b-a}{2}$$

$$I \approx \frac{(b-a)}{\text{width}} \underbrace{\frac{f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)}{6}}_{\text{average height}}$$

} This is called Simpson's $\frac{1}{3}$ rule as it is divided by 3.

Example-21.4

Use Simpson's $\frac{1}{3}$ rule to integrate $f(x) = 0.2 + 25x - 200x^2 + 675x^3 - 900x^4 + 400x^5$ from $a=0$ to $b=0.8$ exact integral is 1.64053

Solution The function values,

$$f(0) = 0.2, f(0.4) = 2.456, f(0.8) = 0.232$$

Using Simpson's $\frac{1}{3}$ rule,

$$I \approx 0.8 \frac{0.2 + 4(2.456) + 0.232}{6} \\ = 1.367467$$

which represents an exact error of

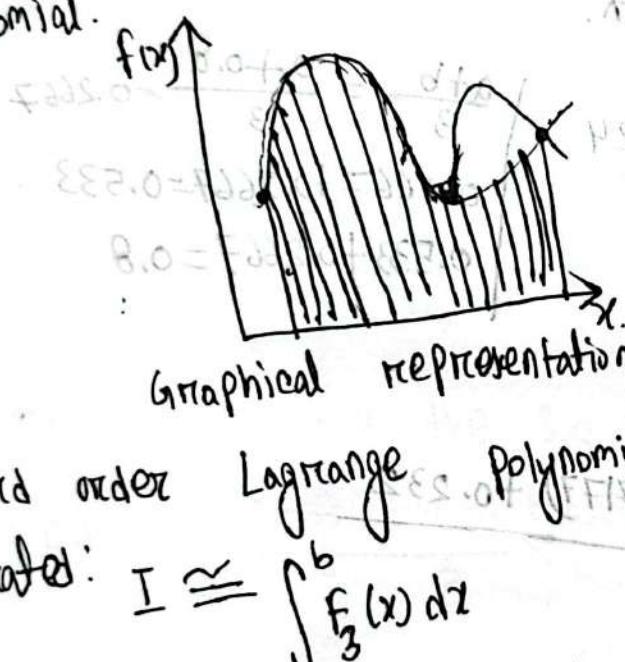
$$E_t = 1.64053^3 - 1.36746^7 \\ = 0.2730667.$$

$$E_t = \frac{E}{\text{exact value}} \times 100\% = 16.6\%$$

which is 5 times more accurate than for a single application of the trapezoidal rule.

Simpson's 3/8 Rule:

If there are two points equally spaced between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ the four points can be connected with a third order polynomial.



Graphical representation of Simpson 3/8 rule
a third order Lagrange polynomial can be fit to four points and integrated: $I \cong \int_a^b f_3(x) dx$

$$I \cong \frac{3h}{8} [f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)] \quad \text{where } h = \frac{b-a}{3}$$

This equation is called Simpson's 3/8 rule because h is manipulated by $3/8$. It is the third Newton-Cotes closed integration formula.

The $\frac{3}{8}$ rule can also be expressed as,

$$I \approx \frac{\text{width}}{8} \cdot \underbrace{f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)}_{\text{average height}}$$

Example 21.6

Use Simpson's $\frac{3}{8}$ rule to integrate

$$f(x) = 0.2 + 25x - 200x^2 + 675x^3 - 900x^4 + 400x^5$$

from $a=0$ to $b=0.8$

Solution- A single application of Simpson's $\frac{3}{8}$ rule requires four equally spaced points.

$$f(0) = 0.2 ; f(0.2667) = 1.432724$$

$$f(0.5333) = 3.487177$$

$$f(0.8) = 0.232$$

Using Simpson's $\frac{3}{8}$ rule,

$$I \approx \frac{0.8}{8} \cdot 0.2 + 3(1.432724 + 3.487177) + 0.232$$

$$= 1.519170$$

$$\text{error, } E_t = 1.640533 - 1.519170 = 0.1213630$$

$$E_t = 7.41 \times 10^{-5} - \text{relative error. Since } 0.1213630 \ll 1, \text{ so it is acceptable.}$$

* Use it in conjunction with Simpson's $\frac{3}{8}$ rule to integrate the same function for five segments.

Solution:

The data needed for a five segment application $0.8/5 = 0.16$, $\therefore h = 0.16$.

$$f(0) = 0.2$$

$$f(0.16) = 1.296919$$

$$f(0.32) = 1.743393$$

$$f(0.48) = 3.186015$$

$$f(0.64) = 3.181929$$

$$f(0.80) = 0.232$$

The integral for the first two segments is obtained using Simpson's $\frac{1}{3}$ rule:

$$I = 0.32 \frac{0.2 + 4(1.296919) + 1.743393}{6}$$

$$= 0.3803237$$

$$= (b-a) \frac{f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)}{6}$$

for first two segments,

$$x_0 = 0.2$$

$$x_1 = 0.16$$

$$x_2 = 0.32$$

$$a = 0$$

$$b = 0.32$$

For last three segments the $\frac{3}{8}$ rule can be used to obtain,

$$I = 0.48 \frac{1.743393 + 3(3.186015 + 3.181929) + 0.232}{8}$$

$$= 1.264754$$

$$= (b-a) \frac{f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)}{8}$$

$$x_0 = 0.32$$

$$x_1 = 0.48$$

$$x_2 = 0.64$$

$$x_3 = 0.8$$

$$a = 0.32$$

$$b = 0.8$$

$$b-a = 0.8 - 0.32 = 0.48$$

The total integral is computed by summing the two results:

$$I = 0.3803237 + 1.264754 = 1.645077$$

$$B_t = 1.640533 - 1.645077$$

$$E_t = -0.28\%$$

Runge-Kutta Method

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$$

New value = old value + slope \times step size

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \phi h$$

ordinary differential equation:

An ordinary differential equation is an equation that relates a function with its derivative. It is ordinary because it involves derivative with respect to a single variable.

Euler Method

Euler method is a numerical technique to approximate the solution of ordinary differential equation,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$$

Euler method estimates the value of y at the next point using the slope at the current point.

Euler's formula: $y_{n+1} = y_n + h \cdot f(x_n, y_n)$ if $y(0) = y_0$

① x_n, y_n are the current point

② h is the step size.

③ $f(x, y)$ is the derivative function

④ y_{n+1} is the estimated value at $x_{n+1} = x_n + h$

Ex 25.1 Use Euler's Method to numerically integrate the given equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -2x^3 + 12x^2 - 20x + 8.5$$

From $x=0$ to $x=4$ with a step size of 0.5. The initial condition at $x=0$ is $y=1$. Recall the exact eqn is given by $y = -0.5x^4 + 4x^3 - 10x^2 + 8.5x + 1$

Solution $y_{i+1} = y_i + f(x_i, y_i) h$ can be used to implement Euler's method.

$$y(0.5) = y(0) + f(0, 1) \cdot 0.5$$

where $f(0) = 1$ and the slope estimate at $x=0$ is

$$f(0, 1) = -2(0)^3 + 12(0)^2 - 20(0) + 8.5 = 8.5$$

Therefore,

$$y(0.5) = 1 + 8.5(0.5) = 5.85$$

The true solution at $x=0.5$ is

$$y = -0.5(0.5)^4 + 4(0.5)^3 - 10(0.5)^2 + 8.5(0.5) + 1 \\ = 3.21875$$

Thus the error, $E_t = \frac{\text{true} - \text{approximate}}{\text{true}} \times 100\%$

$$= \frac{3.21875 - 5.25}{3.21875} \times 100\%$$

$$= -63.1\%$$

For next step,

$$\begin{aligned} y(1) &= y(0.5) + f(0.5, 5.25)0.5 \\ &= 5.25 + [-2(0.5)^3 + 12(0.5)^2 - 20(0.5) + 8.5]0.5 \\ &= 5.875 \end{aligned}$$

The true solution at $x = 1.0$ is,

$$\begin{aligned} y &= -0.5(1.0)^4 + 4(1)^3 - 10(1) + 8.5 \\ &= 3.0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $E_t = \frac{3 - 5.875}{3} \times 100\%$

$$= -95.8\%$$

The computation is repeated and the results are shown in the table and figure below.

x	y_{true}	y_{Euler}	Percent relative error
0	1	1	-63.1%
0.5	3.21875	5.25	-95.8%
1	3	5.875	-131%
1.5	2.21875	5.125	-125%
2	2	4.5	-74.7%
2.5	2.71875	4.75	-46.9%
3	4	5.875	-51.0%
3.5	4.71875	7.125	-133.3%
4	3	7	

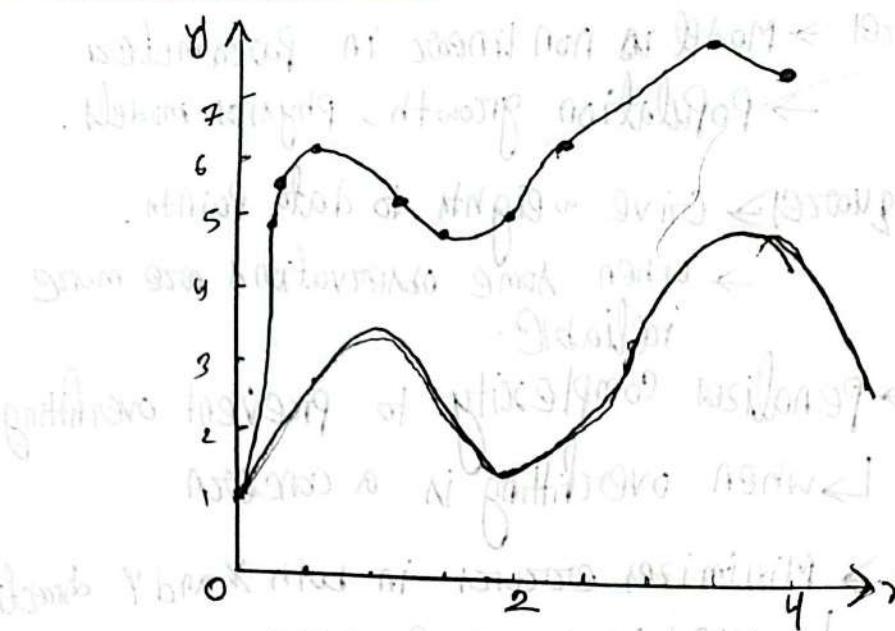


Figure → Comparison of true solution with a numerical solution using Euler's method for the given ~~integ~~ integral.

Least Squares Regression

Least square regression is a method used to find the best-fitting line (or curve) through a set of data points by minimizing the sum of the ~~integ~~ squared errors (difference between actual and predicted values). We square so that we can find the positive and negative difference both types of Least-Square Regression.

- ① Linear Least Squares → straight line $y = B_0 + B_1 x \rightarrow$ relationship is linear.
- ② Multiple Linear Regression → fits multiple input: $y = B_0 + B_1 x_1 + B_2 x_2 + \dots$ → predict house price
- ③ Polynomial regression → fits nonlinear curves → $y = a + b x + c x^2 + \dots$ → u shaped or curved trend

- ④ Nonlinear Least Squares \rightarrow Model is non linear in parameters
 \rightarrow Population growth, Physical models.
- ⑤ Weighted Least Squares \rightarrow Give weights to data points.
 \rightarrow When some observations are more reliable.
- ⑥ Ridge Regression \rightarrow Penalize complexity to prevent overfitting
 \rightarrow When overfitting is a concern.
- ⑦ Total Least Squares \rightarrow Minimizes errors in both X and Y direction,
 \rightarrow used in image processing or when X values have noise.

Linear Regression:

Linear Regression is a supervised machine learning algorithm that predicts a continuous output based on the linear relationship between input and output variables.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

Y = output (dependent variable)

X = input (independent variable)

β_0 and β_1 are intercept (value of Y when $X=0$) and slope (change in Y per unit change in X) respectively

ϵ = error or residual between the model and the observation.

$$f(X) + \epsilon = Y$$

about errors no before n

Criteria for a 'best' fit:

For fitting a best line through the data would be, to minimize sum of the residual errors (for all available data).

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |e_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - a_0 - a_1 x_i| \quad \text{--- (1) where } n = \text{total no of Points}$$

$$\text{Let, } S_{RZ} = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - a_0 - a_1 x_i)^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\frac{\partial S_{RZ}}{\partial a_0} = -2 \sum (y_i - a_0 - a_1 x_i) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\frac{\partial S_{RZ}}{\partial a_1} = -2 \sum (y_i - a_0 - a_1 x_i) x_i \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$(3) \Rightarrow 0 = \sum y_i - \sum a_0 - \sum a_1 x_i \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$(4) \Rightarrow 0 = \sum y_i x_i - \sum a_0 x_i - \sum a_1 x_i^2 \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

$$(5) \Rightarrow n a_0 + (\sum x_i) a_1 = \sum y_i \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

$$(6) \Rightarrow (\sum x_i) a_0 + (\sum x_i^2) a_1 = \sum x_i y_i$$

From (6) and (7) we get,

$$a_1 = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2}$$

This can be asked as "Find out the value of a_0 and a_1 in the case of least square regression."

$$(7) \Rightarrow n a_0 + (\sum x_i) a_1 = \sum y_i$$

$$\Rightarrow n a_0 = \sum y_i - (\sum x_i) a_1 \quad \bar{y} = \frac{\sum y_i}{n} \quad \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow a_0 = \frac{\sum y_i}{n} - \frac{(\sum x_i) a_1}{n} \quad \therefore a_0 = \bar{y} - a_1 \bar{x}$$

Ex-17.1

Fit a straight line to the x and y values in the first two columns of the table for an error analysis of the linear fit.

x_i	y_i	$(y_i - \bar{y})^2$	$(y_i - a_0 - a_1 x_i)^2$
1	0.5	8.5765	0.1687
2	2.5	0.8622	0.5625
3	2.0	2.0408	0.3473
4	4.0	0.3265	0.3265
5	3.5	0.0051	0.5896
6	6.0	6.6122	0.7972
7	5.5	4.2908	0.1993
$\sum x_i$	$\sum y_i$	$\sum (x_i^2)$	$\sum (y_i^2)$
28	24.0	22.7143	2.9911

Solution: Here the quantities are,

$$n=7, \sum x_i y_i = 119.5 \quad \sum (x_i^2) = 140$$

$$\sum x_i = 28 \quad \bar{x} = \frac{28}{7} = 4$$

$$\sum y_i = 24 \quad \bar{y} = \frac{24}{7} = 3.428571$$

$$\bar{x}, 0 - \bar{y} = 0 \quad \frac{\sum (x_i y_i)}{n}$$

$$\text{Now, } a_1 = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum (x_i^2) - (\sum x_i)^2}$$

$$= \frac{7(119.5) - 28(24)}{7(140) - (28)^2}$$

$$= 0.8392857$$

$$a_0 = \bar{y} - a_1 \bar{x}$$

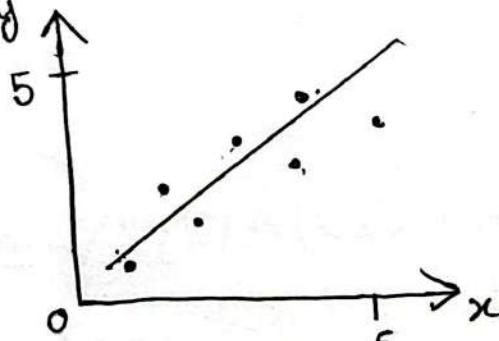
$$= 3.428571 - 0.8392857(4)$$

$$= 0.07142857$$

There the least square fit is,

$$y = a_0 + a_1 x$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 0.07142857 + 0.8392857x$$



More satisfactory result using the least square fit.

$$(fa.81-)/10.0-a = \frac{\text{MajG}}{mG} \cdot x - m = 1.11$$

$$fa.81.0 = \frac{1.11}{10.0-0} =$$

Training a linear regression model using Gradient Descent

	x	y
1	2	2
2	4	4
3	6	6

$$(1x^2) - (0.01)x =$$

$$(1x^2) - (0.01)x =$$

$$2 - 0.01x =$$

$$2 - 0.01x =$$

First let us predict,

$$m=0, b=0, \alpha=0.01$$

$$\hat{y}_1 = 0x1+0 = 0$$

$$\hat{y}_2 = 0x2+0 = 0$$

$$\hat{y}_3 = 0x3+0 = 0$$

$$\text{Error}, y_i - \hat{y}_i = 2-0=2 = e_1$$

$$e_2 = 4-0=4$$

$$e_3 = 6-0=6$$

Gradient,

$$\frac{\partial \text{Loss}}{\partial m} = \frac{-2}{n} \sum (x_i) (\hat{y}_i - y_i)$$

$$= \frac{-2}{3} [(1x2) + (2x4) + (3x6)]$$

$$\Sigma -18.67$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Loss}}{\partial b} = \frac{-2}{n} \sum (\hat{y}_i - y_i)$$

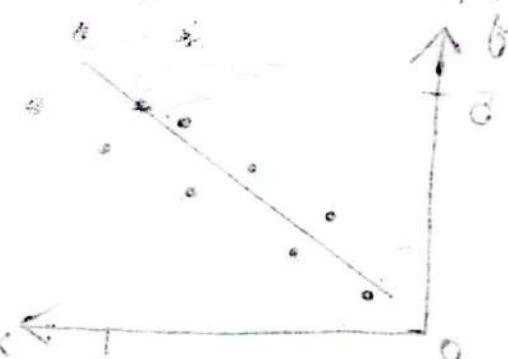
$$= \frac{-2}{3} (2+4+6) = -8$$

Updated,

$$m: m - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial \text{Loss}}{\partial m} = 0 - 0.01(-18.67)$$

$$= 0.1867$$

$$= 0 - 0.01 \cancel{-}$$



$$b' = b - \alpha \frac{\partial \text{Loss}}{\partial b}$$

$$= 0 - 0.01(-8)$$

$$= 0.08$$

iteration 2,

$$\hat{y}_1 = 0.1867x_1 + 0.08 = 0.2667$$

$$\hat{y}_2 = 0.1867x_2 + 0.08 = 0.4534$$

$$\hat{y}_3 = 0.1867x_3 + 0.08 = 0.6401$$

Error,

$$e_1 = 2 - 0.2667 = 1.7333$$

$$e_2 = 4 - 0.4534 = 3.5466$$

$$e_3 = 6 - 0.6401 = 5.3599$$

gradient,

$$\frac{\partial \text{Loss}}{\partial m} = \frac{-2}{3} (1 \times 1.7333 + 2 \times 3.5466 + 3 \times 5.3599) = -16.60$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Loss}}{\partial b} = \frac{-2}{3} (1.7333 + 3.5466 + 5.3599) = -7.09$$

update,

$$m: = 0.1867 + 0.01 \times 16.60 = 0.1867 + 0.166 = 0.3527$$

$$b: = 0.08 + 0.01 \times 7.09 = 0.1509$$

Eventually the model will learn,

$$\theta \approx 27.$$

Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression based on two or more input variables.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n + \epsilon$$

Q Y = target variable

X₁, X₂, ..., X_n = input features.

β₀ = intercept (Constant term)

β₁, ..., β_n = coefficient (weights) for each feature.

ε = error term (difference between actual and predicted)

What is R² (R-squared)?

R² is the coefficient of determination a metric that tells you how well your regression model fits the data.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{res}}}{SS_{\text{tot}}}$$

$$SS_{\text{res}} = \text{Residual sum of squares} = \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$SS_{\text{tot}} = \text{Total sum of squares} = \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

R² value

- 1.0 → perfect prediction - all points lie on the regression line
- 0.8 → 80% of variation explained by model.
- 0.0 → model explains nothing (just guessing mean)
- < 0 → worse than just using mean.

Polynomial Regression:

Polynomial regression is an extension of linear regression, where the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (y) is modeled as n th degree polynomial.

Linear regression may not capture non-linear pattern in data. Polynomial regression allows more flexibility with curved trends.

The least square procedure can be readily extended to fit the data to a higher-order polynomial. For example, let's suppose that we fit a second-order polynomial or quadratic:

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 + \epsilon$$

For this case the sum of the squared of the residual is:

$$S_{\text{R}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\gamma_i - \alpha_0 - \alpha_1 x_i - \alpha_2 x_i^2)^2$$

Taking the derivative of eqn ① with respect to each of the unknown coefficient of the polynomial, as in:

$$\frac{\partial S_{\text{R}}}{\partial \alpha_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (\gamma_i - \alpha_0 - \alpha_1 x_i - \alpha_2 x_i^2) \quad 3.51$$

$$\frac{\partial S_{\text{R}}}{\partial \alpha_1} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (\gamma_i - \alpha_0 - \alpha_1 x_i - \alpha_2 x_i^2) \quad 3.52$$

$$\frac{\partial S_{\text{R}}}{\partial \alpha_2} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 (\gamma_i - \alpha_0 - \alpha_1 x_i - \alpha_2 x_i^2) \quad 3.53$$

These equations can be set equal to zero and rearranged to develop the following set of normal equations:

$$\begin{cases} (1) \alpha_0 + (\sum x_i) \alpha_1 + (\sum x_i^2) \alpha_2 = \sum y \\ (2) \alpha_0 + (\sum x_i^2) \alpha_1 + (\sum x_i^3) \alpha_2 = \sum xy \\ (3) \alpha_0 + (\sum x_i^3) \alpha_1 + (\sum x_i^4) \alpha_2 = \sum y^2 \end{cases}$$

Standard error is formulated as:

$$S_{yx} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y - \bar{y})^2}{n - (m+1)}}$$

Example 17.5

Fit a second order polynomial to the data in the first two columns of the table.

x_i	y_i	$(y_i - \bar{y})$	$(y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})$	$(x_i - \bar{x})^2$
0	2.1	544.44	0.14332	
1	7.7	314.47	1.00280	
2	13.6	140.03	1.08158	
3	27.2	312	0.80491	
4	40.9	239.22	0.61951	
5	61.6	1272.11	0.09439	
Σ	152.6	2513.39	3.74657	

~~(30x1) (3x3)~~ Since we follow step by step method first of all

From the given data,

on dat, m=2 $\sum x_i = 15$, $\sum x_i^2 = 979$, $\sum x_i^3 = 225$, $\sum x_i^4 = 585.6$

$$\begin{aligned} n &= 6 \\ \bar{x} &= 2.5 \\ \bar{y} &= 25.433 \end{aligned}$$

$\sum x_i = 55$ $\sum x_i y_i = 2488.8$

$\sum x_i^3 = 225$ $\sum x_i^4 = 585.6$

Simplification linear equation,

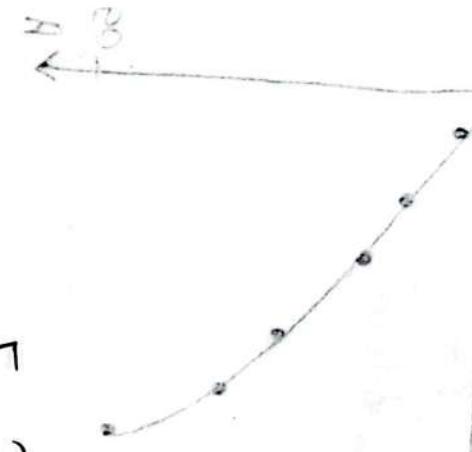
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \sum x_i & \sum x_i^2 \\ \sum x_i & \sum x_i^2 & \sum x_i^3 \\ \sum x_i^2 & \sum x_i^3 & \sum x_i^4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i \\ \sum x_i y_i \\ \sum x_i^2 y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

MATB

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 15 & 55 \\ 15 & 55 & 225 \\ 55 & 225 & 979 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 152.6 \\ 2488.8 \\ 585.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

MATB

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = (\text{MATB})^{-1} \times \text{MATB}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2.47857 \\ 2.35929 \\ 1.86071 \end{bmatrix}$$



Using Gram Elimination we get,
 $a_0 = 2.47857$, $a_1 = 2.35929$, $a_2 = 1.86071$ for fit of fit

The least square quadratic equation for two case,

$$y = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2$$
$$= 2.47857 + 2.35929 x + 1.86071 x^2$$

The standard error of estimate based on the regression is

Polyomial in $\frac{3.74654}{6^{-3}} = 1.12$ Actual function $\frac{1.12}{6^{-3}}$

The coefficient of determination,

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{3.74657}{2513.39} = 0.9985$$

The correlation coefficient in $R = \sqrt{0.99851} = 0.9993$

These result indicate that 99.851 percent of the original uncertainty has been explained by the model.



Fig: Fit of a second order polynomial to the data points

Logistic Regression

Logistic regression is a type of machine learning algorithm used for classification problem and predict probability between 0 and 1. and output is binary as yes/no, pass/fail etc.

It use sigmoid function,

$$P(Y=1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n)}}$$

where,

x_1, x_2, \dots input Feature

β_0 intercept

β_1 model coefficient.

if $P \geq 0.5 \Rightarrow 1$ (Positive) else 0 (negative) here using threshold.

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} \text{Always have to predict,} \\ \beta_0 = -4.5 \\ \beta_1 = 0.03 \\ \beta_2 = 0.05 \\ \beta_3 = 0.1 \end{array} \right|$$

Aspect

Linear regression

output
used for

Logistic regression

Probability (0-1)

Classification Problem.

Algorithm
function

Maximum likelihood
sigmoid logistic.

predict if house will sell
first (y/n)

Example

1	0	28
0	1	0
0	0	1

Age	Income	Time on website	Buy
22	25	8	0
35	45	22	1
50	60	10	0
29	30	5	0

Age = x_1 , Income = x_2 , Time on website = x_3 , Buy = Prediction

$$P(\text{Buy}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3)}}$$

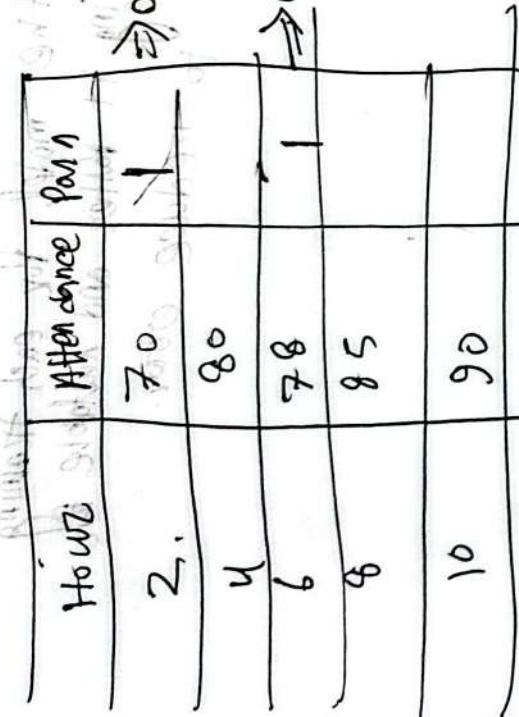
$$\text{For, } x_1 = 22, x_2 = 45, x_3 = 8 \\ \sigma \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 = -1.5 + (0.03 \times 22) + (0.05 \times 45) + (0.1 \times 8) \\ = -1.79$$

$$P(\text{Buy}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(1.79)}} = 0.143 < 0.5 \text{ So it will have negative result.}$$

Now negative result. If we take $\beta_0 = 4.159$

Hours Studied	Attendance	Park	$\beta_0 = 4.159$	$\beta_1 = 0.03$	$\beta_2 = 0.05$	$\beta_3 = 0.1$
2	70	0	30.9	0.06	0.1	0.39
4	80	0	30.9	0.08	0.1	0.49
6	78	0	30.9	0.1	0.1	0.49
10	90	1	30.9	0.14	0.1	0.49

$$\beta_2 = 0.1, \beta_1 = 0.03$$



Linear vs logistic regression \Rightarrow

linear

logistic

- ① Predict continuous value

$$2) Y = a^0 + a_1 X_1$$

- ③ Output can be any real number between $-\infty$ to $+\infty$
- ④ straight line graph
- ⑤ Predicting house price in area
- ⑥ It in regression means continuous prediction

- ② Predict categorical outcomes

$$2) Y = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\text{Costar}}}$$

- ② output can only be between 0 and 1.
- ⑦ S shaped curve graph.
- ⑧ classification \Rightarrow binary
- ⑨ prediction it will have 2 output

$P = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(a+bX)}}$

$(b=1.0 - 0.1 \cdot \text{House Size})$

$P = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(1.0 - 0.1 \cdot 10)}} = 0.5$

$P = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(1.0 - 0.1 \cdot 15)}} = 0.75$

$P = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(1.0 - 0.1 \cdot 20)}} = 0.89$

Stochastic Gradient Descent

stochastic gradient descent updates the model for each training example, not the whole dataset making it faster and suitable for large datasets. It updates parameter to reduce error.

Formula:

$$w^* = \hat{w} - \eta \cdot \frac{\partial L(w)}{\partial w}$$

w^* = updated weight

w = weight Parameter (Predicted)

η = learning rate (small positive number)

$L(w)$ = loss function error.

loss function $L(w) = (y - wx)^2$

derivative of $L(w) = 2(y - wx) \cdot (-x) = -2x(y - wx)$

learning rate for first $\eta = 0.1$

x	y
1	2
2	4
3	6

$$y = wx$$

First iteration,

Let us predict

$$x = 1$$

$$y = 2$$

$$\text{learning rate} = 0.1$$

$$\text{initial weight} = 0$$

$$\hat{w} = \text{predicted weight} = \frac{wx}{0.1} = 0$$

gradient,

$$-2x(y - wx)$$

$$= -2 \cdot 1 (2 - 0 \cdot 1) = -4$$

$$\text{update weight: } = 0 - 0.1(-4) \\ = 0.4$$

iteration 3, after iteration 3, initial weight = 0.4

updated predicted weight $w = 0.4 \times 1 = 0.4$

$$\text{Gradient} = -2x(y-wx) = -2 \cdot 1(2 - 0.4 \cdot 1) = -3.2$$

$$\text{Updated weight} = 0.4 - 0.1(-3.2)$$

$$= 0.72$$

After iteration 2, ^{updated initial} predicted weight = 0.72

~~$$\text{predicted weight} = 0.72 \times 1 = 0.72$$~~

$$\text{Gradient} = -2x(y-wx)$$

$$= -2 \cdot 1(2 - 0.72)$$

$$= -2(2 - 0.72) = -2.56$$

$$\text{updated weight} = \hat{w} - \eta = \frac{dL(w)}{dw}$$

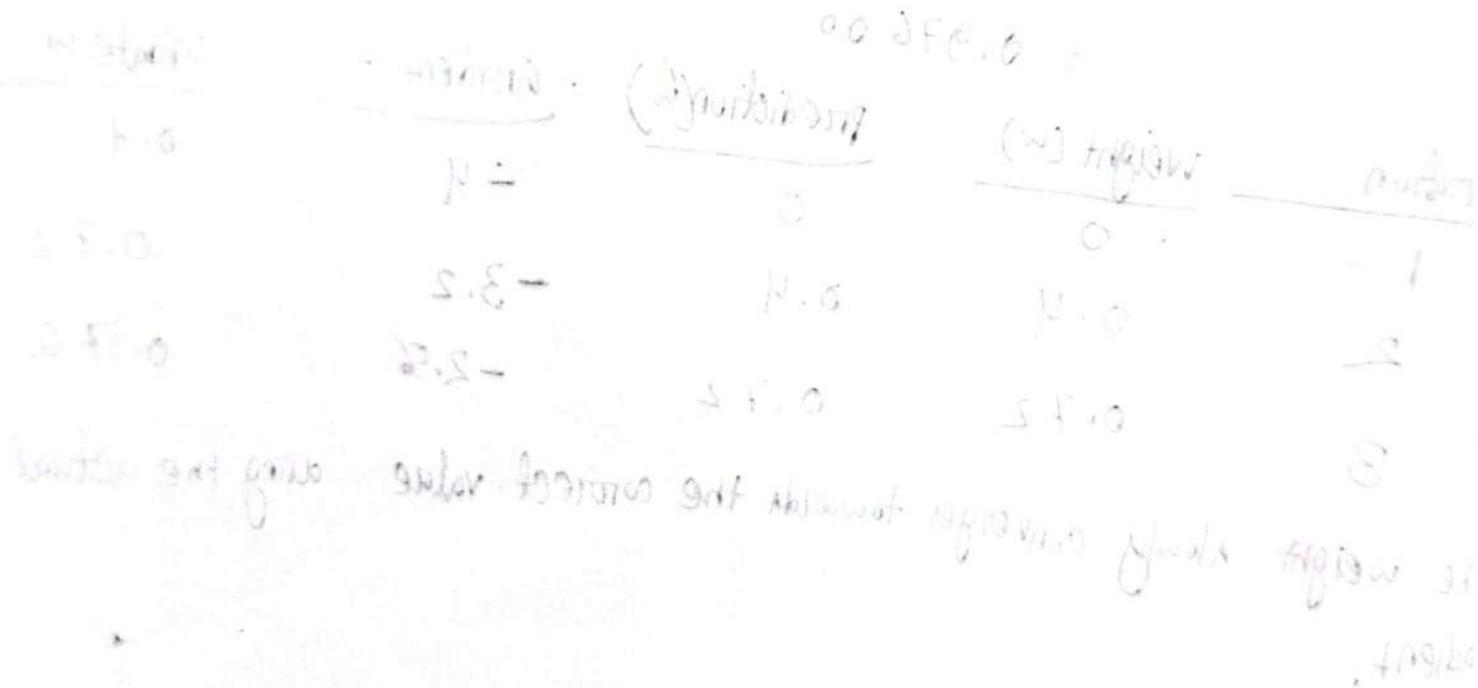
$$= 0.72 - 0.1(-2.56)$$

$$= 0.97600$$

iteration	weight (w)	prediction (\hat{w})	gradient	update w
1	0	0	-4	0.4
2	0.4	0.4	-3.2	0.72
3	0.72	0.72	-2.56	0.976

The weight slowly converges towards the correct value along the actual gradient.

<u>Stochastic Gradient Descent</u>	<u>Batch Gradient Descent</u>	<u>Stochastic Gradient Descent</u>
<u>Feature</u>	<u>Batch Gradient Descent</u>	<u>Stochastic Gradient Descent</u>
Update rule \rightarrow use entire dataset to compute gradient	\rightarrow use 1 random point per update	
Speed \rightarrow slower per iteration \rightarrow faster per iteration (more data to process)		
Convergence \rightarrow smooth but might get stuck in local minima	\rightarrow noisy path, may escape local minima.	
Memory usage \rightarrow High (loads all data)	\rightarrow Low (use one example at a time)	
stability \rightarrow stable, steady convergence	\rightarrow noisy, but can converge faster overall.	
use case \rightarrow small / medium data \rightarrow large scale / online learning		



Milens Method

Milens predictor formula, $y_{n+1,p} = y_{n-3} + \frac{4h}{3} [2y'_{n-2} - y'_{n-1} + 2y'_n]$

Milens corrector formula, $y_{n+1,c} = y_{n-1} + \frac{h}{3} [y'_{n-1} + 4y'_n + y'_{n+1}]$

Given $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}(x+y)$, $y(0) = 2$, $y(0.5) = 2.636$, $y(1.0) = 3.595$,

$y(1.5) = 4.968$. Find $y(2)$ by Milens Method.

Putting $n=3$ into equation,

$$y_{up} = y_0 + \frac{4h}{3} [2y'_1 - y'_2 - 2y'_3] \quad \text{--- ①}$$

Given that, $x_0 = 0$, $y_0 = 2$

$x_1 = 0.5$, $y_1 = 2.636$

$x_2 = 1.0$, $y_2 = 3.595$

$x_3 = 1.5$, $y_3 = 4.968$

We have three
values hence $n=3$.

The differential equation, $y' = \frac{1}{2}(x+y)$

$$y'_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x_1+y_1) = \frac{1}{2}(0.5+2.636) = 1.568$$

$$y'_2 = \frac{1}{2}(x_2+y_2) = \frac{1}{2}(1.0+3.595) = 2.2975$$

$$y'_3 = \frac{1}{2}(x_3+y_3) = \frac{1}{2}(1.5+4.968) = 3.234$$

Putting the values in equation ①

$$\begin{aligned} y_{up} &= y_0 + \frac{4h}{3} [2y'_1 - y'_2 - 2y'_3] \\ &= 2 + \frac{4 \times 0.5}{3} [2 \times 1.568 - 2.2975 + 2 \times 3.234] \\ &= 6.871 \end{aligned}$$

Our predictor value is 6.871.

$$y'_4 = \frac{1}{2}(y_4 + y_4) \\ = \frac{1}{2}(2 + 6.871) = 4.4355$$

Now we will correct it to get the actual value by Milen's corrector formula,

$$y_{n+1}, c = y_{n-1} + \frac{h}{3} [y_2 + 4y_3 + y_4] \\ = y_2 + \frac{0.5}{3} [2.2975 + 4 \times 3.324 + 4.4355] \\ = 6.8731$$

If four values of y are not given you have to use Taylor's method to find remaining values of y .

$$S = 0.8, O = 0.6 \\ \partial S, S = 0.8, 2.0 = 20 \\ \partial O, S = 0.6, 0.1 = 6 \\ \partial O, N = 0.6, 2.1 = 21$$

$$(O+N) \frac{1}{2} = 18$$

$$\partial O, I = (\partial S, S + \partial, O) \frac{1}{2} = (0.8 + 21) \frac{1}{2}$$

$$2Fes, S = (202 - 8) \frac{1}{2} = (0.8 + 21) \frac{1}{2}$$

$$NES, S = (800, N + 21) \frac{1}{2} = (0.8 + 21) \frac{1}{2}$$

① making of table.

$$[0.8 - 0.8 - 1.08] \frac{dN}{\delta} + 0.8 = 9$$

$$[NES, S \times \delta + 2Fes, S - \partial O, I \times \delta] \frac{2.0 \times N}{\delta} = 0.8$$

$$148.2$$

148.2 in table solving

Picard Method

$$y_{n+1} = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(x, y_n) dx$$

Approximation, minimum 3rd approximation का गति तथा गति दर्शाता है।

$$y_1 = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x (x, y_0) dx \quad [\text{First approximation}]$$

$$y_2 = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x (x, y_1) dx \quad [\text{Second approximation}]$$

$$y_n = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x (x, y_n) dx \quad [\text{n-th approximation}]$$

$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1+xy$ and $y(0)=1$, calculate $y(0.1)$, $y(0.2)$ using Picard.

$$x_0 = 0, y_0 = 1, f(x, y) = 1+xy$$

1st approximation,

$$y_1 = 1 + \int_0^x (1+xy_0) dx$$

$$= 1 + \int_0^x 1+x \cdot 1 dx$$

$$= 1 + \int_0^x 1+x dx = 1 + \left[x + \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^x$$

$$= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

2nd approximation,

$$y_2 = 1 + \int_0^x (1+xy_1) dx$$

$$= 1 + \int_0^x 1+x\left(1+x+\frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx$$

$$= 1 + \int_0^x 1+x+x+\frac{x^3}{2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[x + x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{3}{4}} + x^{\frac{7}{8}} \right]_0^x$$

$$= 1 + x + x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{3}{4}} + x^{\frac{7}{8}}$$

3rd approximation,

$$y_3 = 1 + \int_0^x (1 + xy_2) dx$$

$$= 1 + \int_0^x (1 + x(1 + x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{3}{4}} + x^{\frac{7}{8}})) dx$$

$$= 1 + \int_0^x 1 + x + x^{\frac{3}{2}} + x^{\frac{5}{4}} + x^{\frac{15}{8}} dx$$

$$= 1 + \left[x + x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{3}{4}} + x^{\frac{7}{8}} + x^{\frac{5}{15}} + x^{\frac{15}{48}} \right]_0^x$$

$$= 1 + x + x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{3}{4}} + x^{\frac{7}{8}} + x^{\frac{5}{15}} + x^{\frac{15}{48}}$$

$$y(0.1) = 1 + 0.1 + \frac{(0.1)^2}{2} + \frac{(0.1)^3}{3} + \frac{(0.1)^4}{8} + \frac{(0.1)^5}{15} + \frac{(0.1)^6}{48}$$

$$y(0.1)$$

$$= 1.10534$$

$$y(0.2)$$

$$= 1.22286$$

Lagrange Method Interpolation

The Lagrange interpolation formula is a way to find a polynomial called Lagrange polynomial, that takes certain values at arbitrary point.

General form, $P(x) = \frac{(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_0-x_2)(x_0-x_3)} y_0 + \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_3)}{(x_2-x_1)(x_2-x_3)} y_1 + \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_3-x_1)(x_3-x_2)} y_2$

\rightarrow It finds the value y at value x (which can also be an arbitrary point) by finding y at x_0 , x_1 , x_2 and x_3 and then taking a weighted average of these values.

Using Lagrange's interpolation formula find $y(10)$ from the following

table:

x	5	6	9	11
y	12	13	14	16

$$x_0 = 5, x_1 = 6, x_2 = 9, x_3 = 11$$

$$y_0 = 12, y_1 = 13, y_2 = 14, y_3 = 16.$$

$$y = f(x) = \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)(x_0-x_3)} y_0 + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)(x_1-x_3)} y_1 + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_3)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)(x_2-x_3)} y_2 + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_3-x_0)(x_3-x_1)(x_3-x_2)} y_3$$

Putting, $x=10$ and all values,

$$f(10) = \frac{(10-6)(10-9)(10-11)}{18} \times 12 + \frac{(10-5)(10-9)(10-11)}{15} \times 13$$

$$+ \frac{(10-5)(10-6)(10-11)}{-24} \times 14 + \frac{(x-5)(x-6)(x-9)}{60} \times 16$$

$$= -\frac{12}{9} - \frac{13}{3} + \frac{70}{12} + \frac{130}{30}$$

$$= 14.6663,$$

5.10 Using Lagrange's Interpolation Find $f'(0.12)$

x	$f(x)$
0.05	0.05
0.10	0.0999
0.20	0.1987
0.26	0.2571

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(0.12) &= \frac{(0.12-0.05)(0.12-0.10)(0.12-0.2)}{(0.05-0.1)(0.05-0.2)(0.05-0.26)} \times 0.05 \\
 &\quad + \frac{(0.12-0.05)(0.12-0.2)(0.12-0.26)}{(0.1-0.05)(0.1-0.2)(0.1-0.26)} \times 0.0999 + \frac{(0.12-0.05)(0.12-0.1)(0.12-0.26)}{(0.2-0.05)(0.2-0.1)(0.2-0.26)} \\
 &\quad \times 0.1987 + \frac{(0.12-0.05)(0.12-0.1)(0.12-0.2)}{(0.26-0.05)(0.26-0.1)(0.26-0.2)} \times 0.2571 \\
 &= -0.0071 + 0.0979 + 0.0433 - 0.0143 \\
 &= 0.1198
 \end{aligned}$$

- Advantages:
- The formula is used to find the value of the function even when the arguments are not equally spaced.
 - The formula is used to find the value of independent variable x corresponding to a given value of the function.

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{x_1-x_0} + p_1(x) \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_2-x_0)} + \\
 &\quad \frac{p_2(x)}{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)} + \frac{p_3(x)}{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)} + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore p_1 =$

Runge-Kutta Method

Apply RK method to find an approximate value of y , when $x=0.2$
given that $\frac{dy}{dx} = xy$ and $y=1$.

If $x_0=0$, $h=x_1$

so $h=0.2$

$$y_1 = y_0 + k$$

$$k = \frac{1}{6} [k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4]$$

$$k_1 = hf(x_0, y_0)$$

$$k_2 = hf(x_0 + h/2, y_0 + k_1/2)$$

$$k_3 = hf(x_0 + h/2, y_0 + k_2/2)$$

$$k_4 = hf(x_0 + h, y_0 + k_3)$$

$$\text{so now, } k_1 = 0.2(x_0 + y_0)$$

$$= 0.2(0 + 1)$$

$$= 0.2$$

$$k_2 = 0.2(x_0 + h/2 + y_0 + k_1/2)$$

$$= 0.2(0 + 0.1 + 1 + 0.1)$$

$$= 0.24$$

$$k_3 = 0.2(0.1 + 1 + 0.12)$$

$$= 0.244$$

$$k_4 = 0.2(0.2 + 1 + 0.244)$$

$$= 0.28880$$

$$k = \frac{1}{6}(0.2 + 2x_0.24 + 0.244 \times 2 + 0.28880)$$

$$= 0.24280$$

$$y_1 = 1 + 0.24280$$

$$= 1.24280.$$

RREF \Rightarrow Row echelon form \Rightarrow upper triangular matrix.

RRREF \Rightarrow Reduced row echelon form.

RREF \Rightarrow Row echelon matrix \Rightarrow upper triangular matrix \Rightarrow all elements below pivot in zero.

Reduced row echelon matrix \Rightarrow identity matrix \Rightarrow all elements below and above pivot in zero.

* An ordinary differential equation is an equation that involves one independent variable, one or more of its derivatives. It shows how one quantity changes in respect to others.

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + 4y \right) S.O = \\ & \left(\frac{dy}{dt} + 0 \right) S.O = \\ & \left(y(t_0) \right) S.O = \\ & \left(y(t_0) + \frac{dy}{dt}(t_0) \right) S.O = \\ & \left(y(t_0) + 1.0 \right) S.O = \\ & S.O = \\ & \left(\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + 4y + \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 \right) S.O = \\ & (1.0 + 1.0 + 0) S.O = \\ & 2S.O = \\ & (S.O + 1.0) S.O = \\ & NS.O = \\ & (NS.O + 1.0) S.O = \\ & 0.888 S.O = \end{aligned}$$

$$(1.888 S.O + 3NS.O + NS.O \times 0.888 + 1.0) \frac{1}{2} =$$

$$0.888 NS.O + 1.088 = 0.888 NS.O - 0.888 NS.O =$$

A car is moving on a road. Its acceleration is not constant. $\frac{dv}{dt} = a(t) = 2t$, the $v(0) = 0$, step size $h = 0.1$ what is the velocity of the car at $t = 0.4$ seconds.

Step	t_n	v_n	$f(t_n) = 2t$	$v_{n+1} = v_n + h \cdot f$
initial	0.0	0	0	0
1	0.1	0	0.2	0.2
2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6
3	0.3	0.6	0.6	1.2
4	0.4	1.2	0.8	2.0

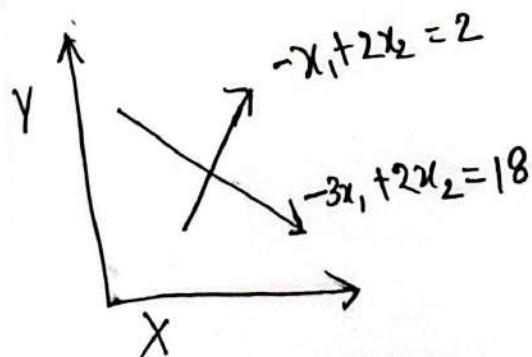
Approximate total velocity at $t = 0.4$ second is 0.200 m^{-1}

Runge-Kutta Method

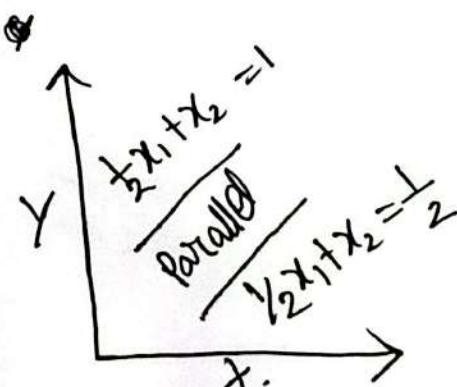
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$$

New value = old value + slope \times step size

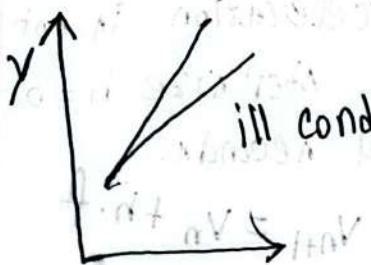
$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \phi h$$



- There is only one solution or root

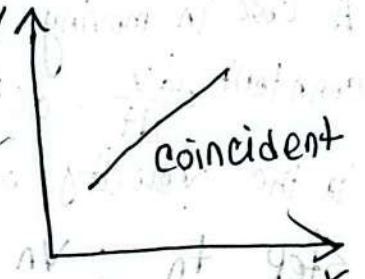


As the lines are parallel, there is no solution.



slope is very close, Point O
of intersection difficult
to detect.

(1) and (2) are singular



infinite solution

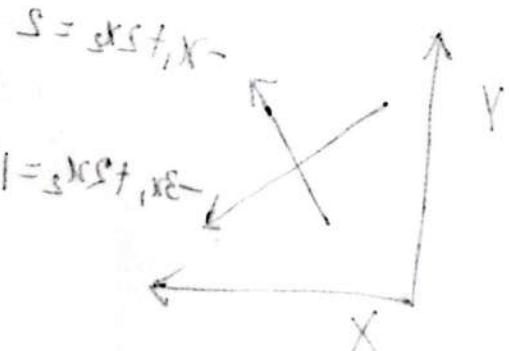
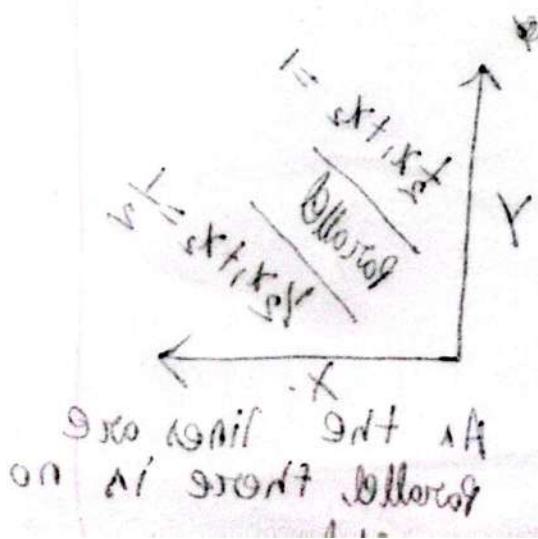
	0	1.0	1
	0.0	2.0	2
	0.0	3.0	3
	0.0	4.0	4
	0.0	5.0	5

Homogeneous linear eqn to discuss
bottom right - graph

$$\text{Sinh } \theta = \frac{y_2}{x_2} \quad (\text{Bottom right})$$

$$\text{Sinh } \phi = \frac{y_1}{x_1}$$

$$\theta + \phi = 180^\circ$$



Sinh $\theta / 180^\circ$ M SINGL
FOOT no nail/ok