Homework set 2

Jupyter Lab file menu. Homework is in **groups of two**, and you are expected to hand in original work. Work that is copied from

Please submit this Jupyter notebook through Canvas no later than Mon Nov. 14, 9:00. Submit the notebook file with your answers (as .ipynb file) and a pdf printout. The pdf version can be used by the teachers to provide feedback. A pdf version can be made using the save and export option in the

another group will not be accepted. **Exercise 0**

Write down the names + student ID of the people in your group. Karin Brinksma 13919938 Dominique Weltevreden 12161160

Exercise 1

Run the following cell to import some packages, add additional packages yourself when needed.

In [1]: import numpy as np

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt from scipy import linalg

(a) 1 point

Let A be the matrix $egin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & \alpha \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & \alpha & -3/2 \end{bmatrix}$. For which values of α is A singular? YOUR ANSWER HERE

(b) 1 point For the largest value of lpha you found above, find a nonzero vector b such that Ax=b has infinitely many solutions. Explain your answer.

YOUR ANSWER HERE **Exercise 2**

by using the LU-decomposition of A.

for computing matrix inverses directly).

y = np.empty(n)

(Make sure to import the necessary functions/packages.)

(a) 2 points Write an algorithm to compute A^{-1} for a non-singular matrix A using its LU-decomposition. You can use

scipy.linalg.lu (which returns an LU-decomposition with partial pivoting, i.e., with a permutation

matrix P) and the other scipy.linalg.lu_* functions, but not scipy.linalg.inv (or other methods

For solving linear systems such as Ax = b, it is unnecessary (and often unstable) to compute the inverse A^{-1} . Nonetheless, there can be situations where it is useful to compute A^{-1} explicitly. One way to do so is

def forward substitution(L, b): #source https://johnfoster.pge.utexas.edu/numerical-methods-book/LinearAlgebra LU # or alternatively https://ristohinno.medium.com/lu-decomposition-41a3cb0d1ba

Forward substitution for an LU decompostion; solves Ly = b for y #Get number of rows n = L.shape[0]#Allocating space for the solution vector

```
# Here we perform the forward-substitution, initializing with the first row.
     y[0] = b[0] / L[0, 0]
     # Looping over rows in reverse (from the bottom up), starting with the second to
     # last row solve was completed in the last step.
     for i in range(1, n):
          y[i] = (b[i] - (L[i,:i] @ y[:i])) / L[i,i]
     return y
 def back substitution(U, y):
     Backward substition for an LU decompostion; solves Ux = y for x
     #source https://johnfoster.pge.utexas.edu/numerical-methods-book/LinearAlgebra LU
     #Number of rows
     n = U.shape[0]
     x = np.zeros(n)
     # Here we perform the back-substitution, initializing with the last row.
     x[-1] = y[-1] / U[-1, -1]
     # Looping over rows in reverse (from the bottom up), starting with the second to
     # last row solve was completed in the last step.
     for i in range(n - 2, -1, -1):
         x[i] = (y[i] - (U[i,i:] @ x[i:])) / U[i,i]
     return x
 def invert(A):
     #source: https://johnfoster.pge.utexas.edu/numerical-methods-book/LinearAlgebra Ll
     # Check if the determinant is not 0, i.e. the matrix is not invertible
     assert (linalg.det(A))
     # Find n based on A
     n = A.shape[0]
     # b will be rows of the identity matrix, as you're inverting it
     B = np.eye(n)
     # Initialize the inverted A matrix
     A inv = np.empty((n, n))
     # Perform LU decomposition
     P, L, U = linalg.lu(A)
     # Get one row of the identity matrix to use as b
     for i in range(n):
          # Get y from forward substitution
          y = forward substitution(L, (P @ (B[i, :])))
          # Add this solution for x from backward substitution as a column to the inver-
          #print(back substitution(U, y))
          A_inv[:, i] = back_substitution(U, y)
     return A inv
 A_{\text{matrix}} = \text{np.array}([[1, 5, 1], [2, 8, 2], [8, 3, 3]])
 inv = invert(A matrix)
 print(inv)
 actual inv = linalg.inv(A matrix)
 print(actual inv)
 equal = np.allclose(inv, actual inv)
 print(equal)
 [[1.8 -1.2 0.2]
  [ 1. -0.5 0. ]
  [-5.8 3.7 -0.2]]
 [[ 1.80000000e+00 -1.20000000e+00 2.00000000e-01]
 [ 1.00000000e+00 -5.00000000e-01 1.38777878e-17]
  [-5.80000000e+00 3.70000000e+00 -2.00000000e-01]]
True
(b) 1 point
What is the computational complexity of your algorithm, given that the input matrix has size n \times n? Give a
short calculation/explanation for your answer.
The computational complexity of this algorithm where a matrix is explicitly inverted using LU
decomposition is, in Big O notation, \mathcal{O}(n^3).
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The algorithm requires an LU decomposition and a loop of n complexity for all the columns of the identity matrix of size n. In the loop, forward and backward substitutions, which have a complexity of n^2 . This is because there is a loop over n and within this loop a dot product is calculated, with a complexity of n. This

What happens when Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is used on a matrix of the following form?

 $\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

Do the entries of the transformed matrix grow? What happens if complete pivoting is used instead? (Note

Write a method that generates a matrix of the form of part (a) of size $n \times n$ for any n. Use a library routine for Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting to solve various sizes of linear systems of this form, using right-hand-side vectors chosen so that the solution is known. Try for example the case where the true solution is a vector of uniformly distributed random numbers between 0 and 1. How do the error, residual, and condition number behave as the systems become larger? Comment on the stability (see chapter 1) of

would mean $2n^2$ for both operations, within a loop of n; leading to $2n^3$. This reduces to n^3 as n

YOUR ANSWER HERE

(b) (2 points)

that part (a) does not require a computer.)

approaches infinity.

Exercise 3

(a) (2 points)

In [2]: def create matrix(n): A = np.ones((n,n))# Get lower triangular matrix with -1

> A[:, -1] = 1#print(A) return A

def generate x(n):

def get b(A, x): return A @ x

return x

def get_lu_x(A, b):

A = np.tril(A, -1) * -1

Set last column to ones

return np.random.rand(n, 1)

lu = linalg.lu_factor(A) $x = linalg.lu_solve(lu, b)$

Generate a given x

Calculate error

plt.xlabel("n") plt.show()

plt.xlabel("n") plt.show()

plt.xlabel("n") plt.show()

plt.xlabel("n") plt.show()

20

0

1000

50

100

150

Residuals

200

250

300

true_x = generate_x(n_chosen)

x hat = get lu x(matrix, true b)

plt.title("Condition number of the matrix")

plt.plot(n_options, condition_nrs)

plt.plot(n options, residuals)

plt.plot(n_options, rel_ress) plt.title("Relative residuals")

plt.title("Residuals")

Calculate b with this x true_b = get_b(matrix, true_x)

LU decomposition with partial pivoting

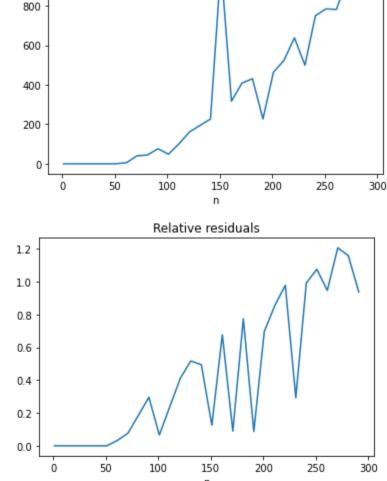
A += np.identity(n)

Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting in this case. / N.B. This is an artificially contrived system that does not reflect the behavior of Gaussian elimination in realistic examples.

 $n_{options} = np.arange(1, 300, 10)$ errors = [] condition_nrs = [] residuals = [] rel_ress = [] for n_chosen in n_options: # Generate matrix matrix = create_matrix(n_chosen)

error = np.linalg.norm(x hat - true x) errors.append(error) # Calculate residuals by using the x_hat to calculate the solution bb hat = get b(matrix, x hat) residual = np.linalg.norm(b_hat - true_b) residuals.append(residual) # Relative residual rel_res = residual / (np.linalg.norm(matrix) * np.linalg.norm(x_hat)) rel ress.append(rel res) # Calculate condition number for this matrix cond = np.linalg.cond(matrix) condition nrs.append(cond) plt.plot(n_options, errors, label=r"double") plt.title("Error")

Approximate x using this b and the Gaussian elimination



does not seems to be particularly small and increases as the n increases.

300 As the n increases, so does the condition number of the matrix; with a higher condition number, the system is more sensitive to relatively small disturbances in the input. A relatively large residual implies a large backward error in the matrix, which means an unstable algorithm; the relative residual varies somewhat, but