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# THEORETICAL COMPUTER SCIENCE: A COMPLETE GUIDE

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COMPUTER SCIENCE

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*Solo Pursuit of Learning*



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# **Part I**

## **Comp Phys 381**

# Chapter 1

## Root Finding Methods

### 1.1.0 Bisection Method

**Process 1.1.1.** To find the roots of a function  $f$  we first choose a pair of initial values  $x_B$  and  $x_U$  such that  $f(x_B) < 0$  and  $f(x_U) > 0$ . Then we perform the following iterative procedure:

1. Define  $x_C = \frac{x_B + x_U}{2}$ , and evaluate  $f(x_C)$ .
2. If  $f(x_C) > 0$  set  $x_U = x_C$
3. If  $f(x_C) < 0$  set  $x_B = x_C$
4. Repeat until  $|f(x_C)|$  is less than some chosen tolerance,  $\epsilon$ .

### 1.2.0 Newton-Raphson Method

**Process 1.2.1.** Consider a real valued function  $f$ . Note that the Taylor expansion of  $f$  centered at a point  $x_0$  and evaluated at  $x_0 + \epsilon$  is

$$f(x_0 + \epsilon) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)\epsilon^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)\epsilon^n}{n!} \quad (1.2.1)$$

With the NR Method  $x_0$  is the current estimate for the root of our function. We now truncate the series to terms linear in  $\epsilon$ :

$$f(x_0 + \epsilon) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)\epsilon + O(\epsilon^2) \quad (1.2.2)$$

where  $O(\epsilon^2)$  indicates that the terms of order  $\epsilon^2$  and higher are omitted. We set  $f(x_0 + \epsilon) = 0$ . This gives

$$f(x_0) + f'(x_0)\epsilon = 0 \quad (1.2.3)$$

from which we obtain

$$\epsilon_0 = -\frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)} \quad (1.2.4)$$

setting  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0$ . We then let  $x_1 = x_0 + \epsilon_0$  and calculate a new  $\epsilon_1$ . We extend this process and define it recursively as

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \quad (1.2.5)$$

for an indexing integer  $n \geq 0$ .

# Chapter 2

## Non-Linear ODEs

**Remark 2.0.1.** In this chapter considered the differential equation described by

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = y, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = f(x, y, t) \quad (2.0.1)$$

### 2.1.0 Euler Method

**Process 2.1.1.** We first choose initial conditions  $x(0) = x_0$  and  $y(0) = y_0$ . Consider the Taylor series expansion of a function  $g$  about  $a + h$  centered at  $a$ :

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2!}f''(a) + O(h^3) \quad (2.1.1)$$

We apply this to  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  to obtain

$$x(t + \Delta t) = x(t) + \Delta t \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + O(\Delta t^2) \quad (2.1.2)$$

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + \Delta t \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + O(\Delta t^2) \quad (2.1.3)$$

where we omit terms of order  $\Delta t^2$ . We shall vary  $t$  steps discretely and label  $\Delta t = t_{n-1} - t_n$ , so our equations of motion become

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + y_n \Delta t \quad (2.1.4)$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + f(x_n, y_n, t_n) \Delta t \quad (2.1.5)$$

using Euler's Method for approximating integrals. In particular, for Euler's method we take

$$g(b) - g(a) = \int_a^b \frac{dg}{dt} dt \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dg(t_i)}{dt} \Delta t, t_1 = a, t_n = b - \Delta t \quad (2.1.6)$$

## 2.2.0 Trapezoid Rule

**Process 2.2.1.** For the trapezoid rule we approximate an integral as follows

$$(b - a) \left[ \frac{\frac{dg(a)}{dt} + \frac{dg(b)}{dt}}{2} \right] \approx \int_a^b \frac{dg}{dt} dt = g(b) - g(a) \quad (2.2.1)$$

Then, applying this to our DE we obtain the iterative equation

$$x_{n+1} \approx x_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} (y_n + y_{n+1}) \quad (2.2.2)$$

where  $\Delta t = t_{n+1} - t_n$ . We then approximate  $y_{n+1}$  using Euler's Method

$$y_{n+1} \approx y_n + \Delta t f(x_n, y_n, t_n) \quad (2.2.3)$$

Substituting this back into our previous approximation for  $x_{n+1}$  we have

$$x_{n+1} \approx x_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} [y_n + (y_n + \Delta t f(x_n, y_n, t_n))] \quad (2.2.4)$$

We apply this again to  $y_{n+1}$  to obtain the approximation

$$y_{n+1} \approx y_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} [f(x_n, y_n, t_n) + \delta t f(x_{n+1}, y_n + \Delta t f(x_n, y_n, t_n), t_{n+1})] \quad (2.2.5)$$

This pair of iterative equations constitute the application of the trapezoid rule to solving our DE.

## 2.3.0 Runge-Kutta

**Process 2.3.1 (Second Order).** We first carry out a Taylor expansion of  $\frac{dx(t)}{dt}$  about the mid-points of our interval,  $\Delta t/2$ :

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \frac{dx(\Delta t/2)}{dt} + \frac{d^2x(\Delta t/2)}{dt^2} (t - \Delta t/2) + O\left(\frac{\Delta t^2}{2}\right) \quad (2.3.1)$$

We use this expansion to approximate the following integral:

$$\int_0^{\Delta t} \frac{x(t)}{dt} dt \approx \frac{dx(\Delta t/2)}{dt} \Delta t + \frac{d^2x(\Delta t/2)}{dt^2} \int_0^{\Delta t} (t - \Delta t/2) dt = \frac{dx(\Delta t/2)}{dt} \Delta t \quad (2.3.2)$$

Then, the rule to update  $x$  in an algorithmic notation is given by

$$x_{n+1} \approx x_n + y_{n+1/2} \Delta t + O\left(\frac{\Delta t^2}{2}\right) \quad (2.3.3)$$

and applying the Taylor expansion to  $y_{n+1/2}$  we have

$$y_{n+1/2} \approx y_n + f(x_n, y_n, t_n) \frac{\Delta t}{2} + O\left(\frac{\Delta t^2}{2}\right) \quad (2.3.4)$$

Substituting into our  $x_{n+1}$  rule we have

$$x_{n+1} \approx x_n + \left( y_n + f(x_n, y_n, t_n) \frac{\Delta t}{2} \right) \Delta t \quad (2.3.5)$$

The rule for updating  $y_n$  is given by

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + f(x_{n+1/2}, y_{n+1/2}, t_{n+1/2}) \Delta t \quad (2.3.6)$$

$$y_{n+1/2} = y_n + f(x_n, y_n, t_n) \frac{\Delta t}{2} \quad (2.3.7)$$

$$x_{n+1/2} = x_n + y_n \frac{\Delta t}{2} \quad (2.3.8)$$

**Process 2.3.2 (Fourth Order).** In implementing we take a series of approximations for  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  then take a weighted average of the result. In particular, we take the approximations

$$k_{1x,n} = \Delta t y_n \quad (2.3.9)$$

$$k_{1y,n} = \Delta t f(x_n, y_n, t_n) \quad (2.3.10)$$

$$k_{2x,n} = \Delta t \left( y_n + \frac{k_{1y,n}}{2} \right) \quad (2.3.11)$$

$$k_{2y,n} = \Delta t f \left( x_n + \frac{k_{1x,n}}{2}, y_n + \frac{k_{1y,n}}{2}, t_n + \Delta t/2 \right) \quad (2.3.12)$$

$$k_{3x,n} = \Delta t \left( y_n + \frac{k_{2y,n}}{2} \right) \quad (2.3.13)$$

$$k_{3y,n} = \Delta t f \left( x_n + \frac{k_{2x,n}}{2}, y_n + \frac{k_{2y,n}}{2}, t_n + \Delta t/2 \right) \quad (2.3.14)$$

$$k_{4x,n} = \Delta t (y_n + k_{3y,n}) \quad (2.3.15)$$

$$k_{4y,n} = \Delta t f(x_n + k_{3x,n}, y_n + k_{3y,n}, t_n + \Delta t) \quad (2.3.16)$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \frac{k_{1x,n} + 2k_{2x,n} + 2k_{3x,n} + k_{4x,n}}{6} \quad (2.3.17)$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{k_{1y,n} + 2k_{2y,n} + 2k_{3y,n} + k_{4y,n}}{6} \quad (2.3.18)$$



# Chapter 3

## Numerical Fourier Analysis

### 3.1.0 Fourier Series

**Definition 3.1.1 (Fourier Series).** Any periodic function  $f(t)$  with period  $T = 2\pi/\omega$  can be represented as a Fourier Series

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)] \quad (3.1.1)$$

The frequency  $\omega$  is known as the fundamental frequency and  $\omega_n = n\omega$  for  $n > 1$  are the harmonics. The result of Fourier-analysing a signal is a set of values for these coefficients for all  $n$ .

**Process 3.1.2.** The Fourier coefficients for a periodic function  $f$  are evaluated using the orthogonality properties of sines and cosines:

$$\frac{2}{T} \int_0^T \sin(n\omega t) \sin(k\omega t) dt = \delta_{nk} \quad (3.1.2)$$

$$\frac{2}{T} \int_0^T \cos(n\omega t) \sin(k\omega t) dt = 0 \quad (3.1.3)$$

$$\frac{2}{T} \int_0^T \cos(n\omega t) \cos(k\omega t) dt = \delta_{nk} \quad (3.1.4)$$

Applying these orthogonality properties we obtain the following equations for the coefficients:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(t) dt \quad (3.1.5)$$

$$a_k = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) \cos(k\omega t) dt, k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} \quad (3.1.6)$$

$$b_k = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) \sin(k\omega t) dt, k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} \quad (3.1.7)$$

### 3.2.0 Simpson's Rule

**Process 3.2.1.** *Simpson's rule is a method of numerical integration. In particular, to approximate the integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  we split the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  steps of length  $h = (b - a)/n$ , where  $n \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ . The approximation is taken as*

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt \approx \frac{h}{3} \left[ f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n/2-1} f(x_{2j}) + 4 \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f(x_{2j-1}) + f(x_n) \right] \quad (3.2.1)$$

where  $x_j = a + jh$  for  $j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1, n\}$ . In particular  $x_0 = a$  and  $x_n = b$ .

### 3.3.0 Fourier Integral

**Remark 3.3.1.** For a non-periodic function  $f(t)$  we require a **Fourier integral** over a continuous range of frequencies. The Fourier integral may be viewed as a limit of a Fourier series in the limit  $T \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Process 3.3.1.** *For a non periodic function  $f(t)$  its Fourier integral is given by*

$$f(t) = \int_0^\infty [a(\omega) \cos(\omega t) + b(\omega) \sin(\omega t)] d\omega \quad (3.3.1)$$

and the coefficient equations become functions of  $\omega$ :

$$a(\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(t) \cos(\omega t) dt \quad (3.3.2)$$

$$b(\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(t) \sin(\omega t) dt \quad (3.3.3)$$

Using Euler's identity  $e^{i\omega t} = \cos(\omega t) + i \sin(\omega t)$  we can rewrite this as

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty F(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega \quad (3.3.4)$$

$$F(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt \quad (3.3.5)$$

where  $F(\omega)$  is the **Fourier Transform** of  $f(t)$ . If the signal has dimensions of energy, then its Fourier Transform has units of Power, and its magnitude  $|F(\omega)|$  is a measure of the total power in the signal at frequency  $\omega$ :

$$|F(\omega)| = \sqrt{\Re\{F(\omega)\}^2 + \Im\{F(\omega)\}^2} = \sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{a^2(\omega) + b^2(\omega)} \quad (3.3.6)$$

### 3.4.0 Discrete Fourier Transform

**Definition 3.4.1.** In practice we approximate the Fourier integral and its other corresponding forms using finite summations, known as the **Discrete Fourier Transform**. Let  $f(t)$  be a non-periodic function that we have  $N$  samples of at intervals  $h$  going from  $t = 0$  to  $t = (N - 1)h$ .

We define a discrete timeline by  $t_m = mh$  for  $m \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$ . The time  $\tau = Nh$  will become the period of our approximated function under reconstruction, and we need  $\tau$  to be the longest time over which we are interested in the behaviour of  $f(t)$ . We also assume

$$f(t) = f(t + \tau) \iff f(t_m) = f(t_{m+N}) \iff f_m = f_{m+N} \quad (3.4.1)$$

The lowest frequency in the DFT will be  $\nu_1 = 1/\tau = 1/(Nh)$ , and this will be the fundamental frequency of our reconstructed function. The frequency spectrum is given by

$$\Lambda := \left\{ \nu_n = \frac{n}{Nh} = n\nu_1 \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \quad (3.4.2)$$

We then discretize the integrals for the function and its Fourier transform as

$$f_m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} F_n e^{i2\pi\nu_n t_m} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} F_n e^{i2\pi mn/N} \quad (3.4.3)$$

$$F_n = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-i2\pi\nu_n t_m} = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-2\pi mn/N} \quad (3.4.4)$$

Note that it can be shown that  $F_{N/2-n} = \overline{F_{N/2+n}}$  for  $n \in \{0, 1, \dots, N/2\}$ . The highest frequency component is thus  $F_{N/2-1}$ , corresponding to a frequency of

$$\nu_{\max} = (N/2 - 1)/Nh = 1/(2h) - 1/(Nh) \approx 1/(2h), \text{ if } N \text{ large} \quad (3.4.5)$$

This is also known as the **nyquist frequency**  $\nu_{\text{Nyquist}}$ .

If the function has a component with frequency  $\nu > \nu_{\text{Nyquist}}$  there are less than two sample points per period. This implies that there will be one or more frequencies less than  $\nu_{\text{Nyquist}}$  for which the amplitude equals the true amplitude at the sample points, but these lower frequencies are not in the signal although they will appear in the frequency spectrum - this is phenomenon known as **aliasing**. The power spectrum of the DFT is often plotted as all values

$$P_n = |F_n|^2 = \text{Re}\{F_n\}^2 + \text{Im}\{F_n\}^2 \quad (3.4.6)$$

**Process 3.4.2.** In application we use the following summations for the components of  $F_n$

$$\text{Re}\{F_n\} = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m \cos\left(\frac{2\pi mn}{N}\right) \quad (3.4.7)$$

$$\text{Im}\{F_n\} = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m \sin\left(\frac{2\pi mn}{N}\right) \quad (3.4.8)$$

We then reconstruct the original signal as

$$f_m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left\{ \text{Re}\{F_n\} \cos\left(\frac{2\pi mn}{N}\right) + \text{Im}\{F_n\} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi mn}{N}\right) \right\} \quad (3.4.9)$$

# Chapter 4

## Curve-fitting and Optimization

### 4.1.0 Least Squares

**Process 4.1.1.** Assume we have some sequence of measurements at times  $t_i$

$$y_i = y(t_i) \quad (4.1.1)$$

and for some presumed model of the relationship

$$y = f(t; p) \quad (4.1.2)$$

expressed in terms of the independent variable  $t$  and the model parameters  $p$ . We define the distance between a data point and our model by

$$\delta_i = y_i - y_i \quad (4.1.3)$$

A general measure of the distance is

$$\sum_i |\delta_i|^d \quad (4.1.4)$$

For  $d = 2$  we obtain the **chi-squared** measure

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i |y_i - y_i(p_1, \dots, p_K)|^2 \quad (4.1.5)$$

The best fit is assumed to minimize  $\chi^2$  with respect to the model parameters

$$\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial p_l} = \sum_i 2|y_i - y_i(p_1, \dots, p_K)| \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial p_l} \quad (4.1.6)$$

We also usually use the **reduce chi-squared** value

$$\chi_N^2 = \frac{\chi^2}{N} \quad (4.1.7)$$

In general we want  $\chi^2$  to scale with the uncertainty in our measurements, so we wish to minimize

$$\sum \left( \frac{\text{expected} - \text{observed}}{\text{uncertainty}} \right)^2 \quad (4.1.8)$$

**Remark 4.1.1.** This minimization can be done numerically using `scipy.optimize` package's `minimize` method. This package also has a `curve_fit` method for non-linear data sets.

## 4.2.0 Finite Differences

**Process 4.2.1.** Consider a real-valued function  $f(x)$  and its Taylor series about some point  $x = a$ :

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n \quad (4.2.1)$$

Consider a set of points,  $x_i$ , such that  $x_{i+1} = x_i + \Delta$ . Then we have that

$$f(x_{i+n}) = f(x_i) + f'(x_i)n\Delta + \frac{f''(x_i)}{2!}(n\Delta)^2 + \frac{f'''(x_i)}{3!}(n\Delta)^3 + O(\Delta^4) \quad (4.2.2)$$

Define  $f(x_{i+n}) =: f_{i+n}$ . Then for neighboring points we have

$$f_{i+1} = f_i + f'_i\Delta + \frac{f''_i}{2!}\Delta^2 + \frac{f'''_i}{3!}\Delta^3 + O(\Delta^4) \quad (4.2.3)$$

$$f_i = f_i \quad (4.2.4)$$

$$f_{i-1} = f_i - f'_i\Delta + \frac{f''_i}{2!}\Delta^2 - \frac{f'''_i}{3!}\Delta^3 + O(\Delta^4) \quad (4.2.5)$$

Subtracting the expression for two neighboring points we have

$$f_{i+1} - f_i = f'_i\Delta + \frac{f''_i}{2!}\Delta^2 + \frac{f'''_i}{3!}\Delta^3 + O(\Delta^4) \quad (4.2.6)$$

Dividing by  $\Delta$  we obtain the following **forward difference** estimate of the first derivative

$$\frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{\Delta} = f'_i + \frac{f''_i}{2!}\Delta + \frac{f'''_i}{3!}\Delta^2 + O(\Delta^3) \approx f'_i + O(\Delta) \quad (4.2.7)$$

Similarly we obtain the **backward difference** estimate

$$f'_i \approx \frac{f_i - f_{i-1}}{\Delta} + O(\Delta) \quad (4.2.8)$$

We can also cancel all even terms in the expansion by

$$f_{i+1} - f_{i-1} = 2f'_i\Delta + 2\frac{f'''_i}{3!}\Delta^3 + O(\Delta^5) \quad (4.2.9)$$

which gives us the **centered difference** estimate

$$f'_i \approx \frac{f_{i+1} - f_{i-1}}{2\Delta} + O(\Delta^2) \quad (4.2.10)$$

By adding terms we can cancel all odd terms and obtain

$$f_{i+1} + f_{i-1} = 2f_i + 2\frac{f''_i}{2!}\Delta^2 + O(\Delta^4) \quad (4.2.11)$$

We then obtain an expression for the **second difference** estimate

$$f''_i = \frac{f_{i+1} - 2f_i + f_{i-1}}{\Delta^2} + O(\Delta^2) \quad (4.2.12)$$

# **Appendices**

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## .1.0 Lambda Functions

**Definition .1.1.** *Lambda functions are in practice one-line functions which cannot contain commands or more than one expression. In particular, a Lambda function can be created to and assigned to a variable in Python by*

$$g = \text{lambda } args_{array} : \text{function rule} \quad (.1.1)$$

## .2.0 List Comprehension

**Definition .2.1.** *List comprehension is a method of defining and filling a list all in one step. In general, list comprehension can be implemented in Python by*

$$list = [item \text{ for } item \text{ in old list if } P(item) == True] \quad (.2.1)$$

## .3.0 ODE-int Solve

**Definition .3.1.** *The scipy.integrate.odeint method can be used to numerically solve a system of differential equations. Define a method which takes the input vector of the system, a timeline, as well as any other needed parameters. Then, implement odeint by*

$$result = \text{odeint}(\text{system\_function}, y0, t, args = (arg\_tuple)) \quad (.3.1)$$

where  $y0$  is an initial state vector.

# **Appendices**