

CS-6210: HW 1

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1 Chapter 3: Questions 6,12,16,24,25

3.6 a) Here I solve for A^{-1} the old school way:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) &\xrightarrow{R3 - R1 \rightarrow R3} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{R1 - R2 \rightarrow R1} \\ \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) &\xrightarrow{R3 + R2 \rightarrow R3} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{R3/2 \rightarrow R3} \\ \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right) &\xrightarrow{\text{Solve}} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

b)

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\| &= \max(2, 2, 2) = 2 \\ \|A^{-1}\| &= \max\left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{2} \\ k_{\infty}(A) &= \|A\| * \|A^{-1}\| = 3 \end{aligned}$$

c)

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{12} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{13} & l_{23} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{21} & u_{31} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{21} & u_{31} \\ u_{11}l_{12} & u_{21}l_{12} + u_{22} & u_{31}l_{12} + u_{32} \\ u_{11}l_{13} & u_{21}l_{13} + u_{22}l_{23} & u_{31}l_{13} + u_{32}l_{23} + u_{33} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Solving for each unknown we get:

$$\begin{aligned} u_{11} &= 1 & u_{21} &= 1 & u_{31} &= 0 \\ l_{12} &= 0 & u_{22} &= 1 & u_{32} &= 1 \\ l_{13} &= 1 & l_{23} &= -1 & u_{33} &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

And the Doolittle factorization becomes:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- 3.12 a) To determine the values α that make A *ill-conditioned*, we can compute the condition number k using the infinity norm, denoted k_∞ :

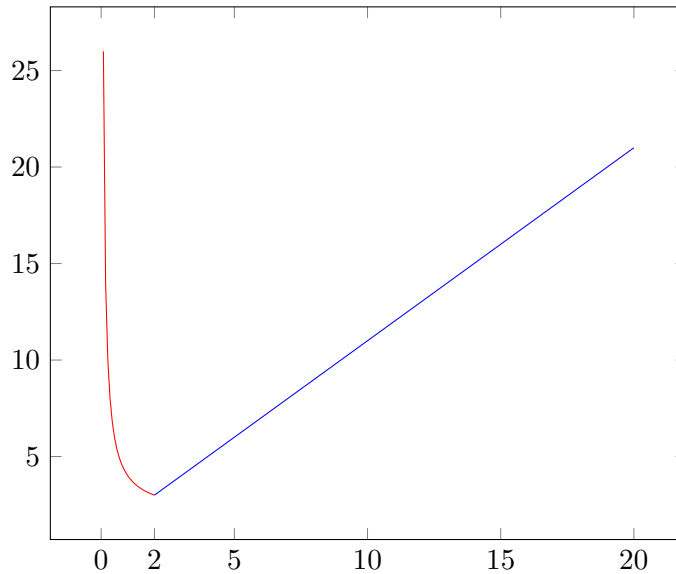
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{pmatrix} \quad A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1/\alpha \\ 0 & 1/\alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\|A\| = \max(2, \alpha) \quad \|A^{-1}\| = 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha}$$

The condition number can then be computed as:

$$k_\infty(A) = \|A\| * \|A^{-1}\|$$

For $0 < \alpha \leq 2$, k takes the values: $2 * (\frac{1+\alpha}{\alpha})$; and for $2 < \alpha$, k can be calculated as: $1 + \alpha$. This is most easily seen as we graph the curve for both domains of α :



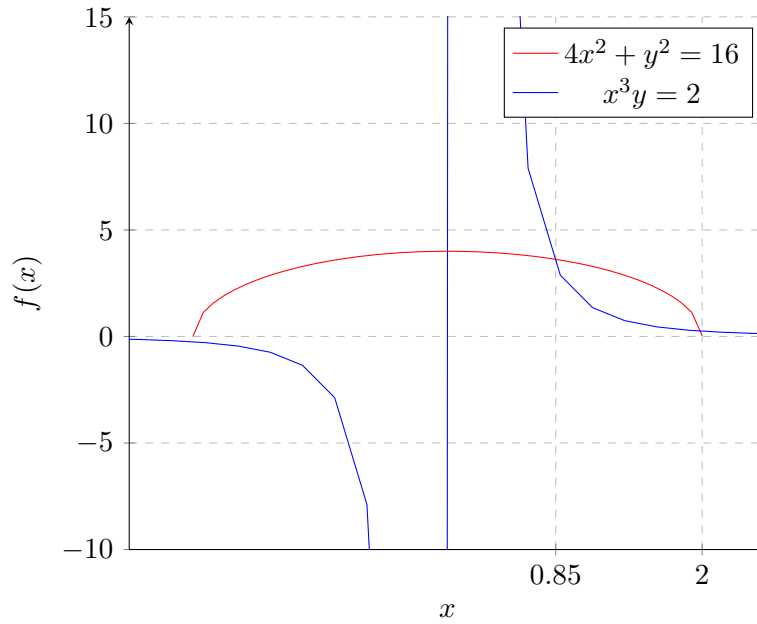
The matrix A will be ill-conditioned for very small values of α ($0 < \alpha \ll 1$) and for very large values of α (k increases linearly with α).

- b) Error can also be defined as $e = A^{-1}r$, which is convenient considering α is an element of the matrix A . In that case $e_1 = -r_1 + \frac{r_2}{\alpha}$ and $e_2 = \frac{r_2}{\alpha}$. It quickly becomes apparent that a matrix A which contains very small ($\alpha \ll 1$) values of α could take a small residual and create a large error.
- c) Conversely, residual can be written as $r = Ae$, which allows us to see the effect of α on r . Here we see $r_1 = -e_1 + e_2$ and $r_2 = \alpha e_2$. The effect of α on error is opposite, where r can be large given a small e if $\alpha \gg 1$.

3.16 1. Need to solve in MATLAB

3.24

- a) Based solely on the sketch, the solutions are located (approximately) at $(x_1 = .85)$ and $(x_2 = 2)$:



- b) Calculating the Jacobian matrix J of the nonlinear system of equations involves taking the partial derivatives of each equation with respect to x and y :

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(x, y) \\ g(x, y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4x^2 + y^2 - 16 \\ x^3 y - 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} 8x & 2y \\ 3x^2 y & x^3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } f = \begin{bmatrix} 4x^2 + y^2 - 16 \\ x^3 y - 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- c) Good initial starting values for the solutions, again going based off the sketch, would be anywhere in the general range of the expected solution. A convention that appears to be common (I could be mistaken) is to choose an easy to calculate point like $x = 1$. I would guess, given the curves, that wouldn't be a bad place to begin here either. After 2 or 3 iterations, you would have a good approximation of either solution depending on which curve you plugged x into initially. In fact, any initial starting value of x where $x > 0$ seems like it would work if you began with the blue curve, and any point $0 < x < 2$ if starting with the red curve.

3.25

- a) The algorithm works only because of the combination of the simplified and generalizable LU factorization of tri-diagonal matrices and the convenience of Cholesky Factorization. Factorizations of tri-diagonal matrices take the form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & & & & \\ l_{12} & l_{22} & & & \\ & l_{23} & l_{33} & & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & l_{i-1,i} & l_{ii} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{21} & & & \\ & u_{22} & u_{32} & & \\ & & u_{33} & u_{43} & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & u_{i,i-1} & u_{ii} \end{pmatrix}$$

And Cholesky allows us to simplify the process by assuming $A = U^T U$ rather than

$A = LU$ by setting $L = U^T$. This allows our factorization to become:

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & & & & \\ u_{21} & u_{22} & & & \\ & u_{32} & u_{33} & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & & u_{i,i-1} & u_{ii} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{21} & & & \\ & u_{22} & u_{32} & & \\ & & u_{33} & u_{43} & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & & u_{i,i-1} & u_{ii} \end{pmatrix}$$

Where the super/sub diagonals have the same values. Combining the matrices, you come to the general form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{11}^2 & u_{11}u_{21} & & & \\ u_{11}u_{21} & u_{21}^2 & u_{22}u_{32} & & \\ & u_{22}u_{32} & u_{32}^2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & u_{ij}u_{i+1,j} \\ & & & & u_{ij}u_{i+1,j} & u_{ij}^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

It then becomes apparent that the algorithm solves this factorization. The upper-leftmost value u_{11}^2 (or d_1^2 in the algorithm) equals the upper-leftmost value in the original tridiagonal matrix, a_1 . And solving for d_1 we see $d_1 = \sqrt{a_1}$. The rest is equally trivial to connect if we remember that $L = U^T$ and so $u_{i,i+1} = u_{i+1,i}$ for every entry along the super/sub diagonal, and to fill in the blanks in the algorithm, $v_{i-1} = \frac{b_{i-1}}{d_{i-1}}$, where b_{i-1} is the subdiagonal entry b at index i in the original matrix A ; d_i is then calculated by solving:

$$v_{i-1}^2 d_i^2 = a_i$$

$$d_i = \sqrt{a_i}/v_{i-1}$$

- b) The equation needs to be solved in two parts: First, we solve $U^T y = z$. Second, using our answer for y , we calculate $Ux = y$. The first part of the algorithm solves for y , by first calculating the trivial case where $d_1 y_1 = z_1$ (because the upper diagonal of U^T is zero) $\rightarrow y_1 = z_1/d_1$.

The remaining y 's can be solved by calculating $v_{i-1} y_{i-1} + d_i y_i = z_i$. For $i = 2 : n$, $y_i = (z_i - y_{i-1} v_{i-1})/d_i$.

Once y has been calculated, we solve for x via the equation $Ux = y$. It's important to remember the matrix U is upper diagonal with values on the main diagonal, super diagonal and zeros everywhere else. The trivial case here is no longer located at d_1 , but at d_n where $d_n x_n = y_n$. The algorithm takes this into account by first solving $x_n = y_n/d_n$ and then backsolving the remaining x 's:

$$d_n x_n + d_{n-1} x_{n-1} = y_{n-1}$$

$$x_{n-1} = (y_{n-1} - d_n x_n)/d_{n-1}$$

Or for the arbitrary case i for $i = n - 1 : 1 \rightarrow x_i = (y_i - d_{i+1} x_{i+1})/d_i$

- c) Need MATLAB

- d)

2 Chapter 4: Questions 10,22,31

4.10

4.22

4.31