SYSTEM OF LINEAR ALGEBRAIC EQUATIONS



Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you should be able to:

- 1. State when LU Decomposition is numerically more efficient than Gaussian Elimination,
- 2. Decompose a non-singular matrix into LU,
- 3. Show how LU Decomposition is used to find matrix inverse

Unit content

SESSION 1-2: Matrices

- 1-2.1 Matrix Inversion and Cramer's Rule
- 1-2.2 Triangular System of Equations
- 1-2.3 Back Substitution
- 1-2.4 Division by zero:
- 1-2.5 Finding the determinant of a square matrix using Naïve Gauss Elimination methods

SESSION 2-2: Techniques for improving Naïve Gauss Elimination Method

- 2-2.1 Gaussian Elimination with partial pivoting
- 2-2.2 LU Decomposition
- 2-2.3 Decomposing a non-singular matrix A into the form A=LU.
- 2-2.4 Finding the inverse of a square matrix using LU Decomposition

SESSION 3-1: Iterative Method

- 3-1.1 Jacobi Method
- 3-1.2 Gauss-Seidel Method
- 3-1.3 Successive over–relaxation method
- 3-1.4 A necessary and sufficient condition for the convergence of iterative schemes

SESSION 1-2: MATRICES

1-2.1 Matrix Inversion and Cramer's Rule

A system of linear Algebraic equations is nothing but a system of n algebraic linear equations satisfied by a set of n unknown quantities. The aim is to find these n unknown quantities satisfying the n equations.

It is a very common practice to write the system of n equations in matrix form as Ax = b, where A is an $n \times n$, non-singular matrix and x and b are $n \times 1$ matrices out of which b is known. i.e.,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

For small n the elementary methods like matrix inversion or Cramers rule given below are very convenient to get the unknown vector x from the system Ax = b.

Let A be a nonsingular matrix of order n and b be an n-vector. The solution x of the system Ax = b is given by:

a) Matrix Inversion as $x = A^{-1}.b$

b) Cramer's rule as
$$x_i = \frac{\det(A_i)}{\det(A)}$$
, $i = 1,...,n$

where A_i is a matrix obtained by replacing the i^{th} column of A by the vector b and $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)^T$, i.e., Cramer's Rule or by matrix inversion formula given as $x = A^{-1}b$

However, for large 'n' these methods will become computationally very expensive because of the evaluation of matrix determinants involved in these methods. Hence to make the solution methods computationally less expensive one has to find alternate means which doesn't require the evaluation of any determinants or inverses to find x form Ax = b.

1-2.2 Triangular System of Equations

The system of equations below is an upper triangular system of equations

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

$$a_{33}x_3 + \cdots + a_{3n}x_n = b_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n-1,n-1}x_{n-1} + a_{n-1,n}x_n = b_{n-1}$$

$$a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

Now the equations are solved starting from the last equation as it has only one unknown.

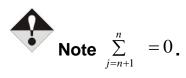
$$x_n^* = \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}}$$

Then the second last equation, that is the $(n-1)^{th}$ equation, has two unknowns (x_n and x_{n-1}), but x_n^* is already known. This reduces the $(n-1)^{th}$ equation also to one unknown and we have:

$$x_{n-1} = \frac{1}{a_{n-1,n-1}} \left(b_{n-1} - a_{n-1,n} x_n^* \right)$$

Back substitution hence can be represented for all equations by the formula

$$x_n^* = \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}}$$
 and $x_i = \frac{1}{a_{i,i}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{i,j} x_j^* \right)$ for $i = n-1, n-2, ..., 1$



1-2.3 Back Substitution

Now the equations are solved starting from the last equation as it has only one unknown.

$$x_n = \frac{b_n^{(n-1)}}{a_{nn}^{(n-1)}}$$

Then the second last equation, that is the $(n-1)^{th}$ equation, has two unknowns - x_n and x_{n-1} , but x_n is already known. This reduces the $(n-1)^{th}$ equation also to one unknown. Back substitution

hence can be represented for all equations by the formula $x_i = \frac{1}{a_{ii}^{(i-1)}} \left(b_i^{(i-1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}^{(i-1)} x_j \right)$ for $i = n, n-1, n-2, \dots, 1$

Note:
$$\sum_{j=n+1}^{n} = 0$$
.

The procedure just described above is called the Naïve Gaussian Elimination method or the Gaussian Elimination without pivoting.

Example 1

Use Naïve Gaussian Elimination to solve Ax = b, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ 177.2 \\ 279.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

<u>Forward Elimination of Unknowns:</u> Since there are three equations, there will be two steps of forward elimination of unknowns.

<u>First step</u>: Divide *Row 1* by 25 and then multiply it by 64, i.e.,

$$\left[\frac{Row\ 1}{25}\right] \times (64) = Row\ 1 \times 2.566 \text{ gives } Row\ 1 \text{ as } \begin{bmatrix} 64 & 12.8 & 2.56 \end{bmatrix}$$
 [273.408]

Subtract the result from Row 2

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.81 \\ -96.21 \\ 279.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Divide Row 1 by 25 and then multiply it by 144

$$\left[\frac{Row\ 1}{25}\right] \times (144) = Row\ 1 \times 5.76 \text{ gives } Row\ 1 \text{ as } \left[144 \quad 28.8 \quad 5.76\right]$$
 [615.2256]

Subtract the result from Row 3

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & -16.8 & -4.76 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ -96.21 \\ -336.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Second step: We now divide Row 2 by -4.8 and then multiply by -16.8

$$\left[\frac{Row\ 2}{-4.8}\right] \times (-16.8) = Row\ 2 \times 3.5 \text{ gives } Row\ 2 \text{ as } \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -16.8 & -5.46 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -336.735 \end{bmatrix}$$

Subtract the result from Row 3

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ -96.21 \\ 0.735 \end{bmatrix}$$

Back substitution: From the third equation

$$0.7x_3 = 0.735 \implies x_3 = \frac{0.735}{0.7} = 1.050$$

Substituting the value of x_3 in the second equation,

$$-4.8x_2 - 1.56x_3 = -96.21 \implies x_2 = \frac{-96.21 + 1.56x_3}{-4.8} = \frac{-96.21 + 1.56(1.050)}{-4.8} = 19.70$$

Substituting the value of x_2 and x_3 in the first equation,

$$25x_1 + 5x_2 + x_3 = 106.8 \implies$$

$$x_1 = \frac{106.8 - 5x_2 - x_3}{25} = \frac{106.8 - 5(19.70) - 1.050}{25} = 0.2900$$

Hence the solution vector is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2900 \\ 19.70 \\ 1.050 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 2

Use Naïve Gauss Elimination to solve

$$10x_1 - 7x_2 = 7$$

$$-3x_1 + 2.099x_2 + 6x_3 = 3.901$$

$$5x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 = 6$$

Use six significant digits with chopping in your calculations.

Solution

Working in the matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ -3 & 2.099 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 3.901 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Forward Elimination of Unknowns

Dividing Row 1 by 10 and multiplying by -3, that is, multiplying Row 1 by -0.3, and subtract it from Row 2 would eliminate a_{21} ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Again dividing Row 1 by 10 and multiplying by 5, that is, multiplying Row 1 by 0.5, and subtract it from Row 3 would eliminate a_{31} .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 0 & 2.5 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 2.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the end of the first step of forward elimination.

Now for the second step of forward elimination, we would use Row 2 as the pivot equation and eliminate Row 3 – Column 2. Dividing Row 2 by -0.001 and multiplying by 2.5, that is multiplying Row 2 by -2500, and subtracting from Row 3 gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 15005 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 15005 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the end of the forward elimination steps.

Back substitution

We can now solve the above equations by back substitution. From the third equation,

$$15005x_3 = 15005 \implies x_3 = \frac{15005}{15005} = 1$$

Substituting the value of x_3 in the second equation

$$-0.001x_2 + 6x_3 = 6.001 \implies$$

$$x_2 = \frac{6.001 - 6x_3}{-0.001} = \frac{6.001 - 6(1)}{-0.001} = \frac{0.001}{-0.001} = -1$$

Substituting the value of x_3 and x_2 in the first equation,

$$10x_1 - 7x_2 + 0x_3 = 7 \implies x_1 = \frac{7 + 7x_2 - 0x_3}{10} = \frac{7 + 7(-1) - 0(1)}{10} = 0$$

Hence the solution is

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Note:

There are two pitfalls of Naïve Gauss Elimination method:

- 1. Division by zero,
- 2. Round-off error.

1-2.4 Division by zero

It is possible that division by zero may occur during forward elimination steps. For example for the set of equations

$$10x_2 - 7x_3 = 7$$

$$6x_1 + 2.099x_2 - 3x_3 = 3.901$$

$$5x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 = 6$$

during the first forward elimination step, the coefficient of x_1 is zero and hence normalization would require division by zero.

Round-off error:

Naïve Gauss Elimination Method is prone to round-off errors. This is true when there are large numbers of equations as errors propagate. Also, if there is subtraction of numbers from each other, it may create large errors. See the example below.

Example 3

Remember the previous example where we used Naïve Gauss Elimination to solve

$$10x_1 - 7x_2 = 7$$

$$-3x_1 + 2.099x_2 + 6x_3 = 3.901$$

$$5x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 = 6$$

using <u>six</u> significant digits with chopping in your calculations. Repeat the problem, but now use <u>five</u> significant digits with chopping in your calculations.

Solution

Writing in the matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ -3 & 2.099 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 3.901 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Forward Elimination of Unknowns

Dividing Row 1 by 10 and multiplying by -3, that is, multiplying Row 1 by -0.3, and subtract it from Row 2 would eliminate a_{21} ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Again dividing Row 1 by 10 and multiplying by 5, that is, multiplying the Row 1 by 0.5, and subtract it from Row 3 would eliminate a_{31} .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 0 & 2.5 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 2.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the end of the first step of forward elimination.

Now for the second step of forward elimination, we would use Row 2 as the pivoting equation and eliminate Row 3 – Column 2. Dividing Row 2 by -0.001 and multiplying by 2.5, that is, multiplying Row 2 by -2500, and subtract from Row 3 gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 15005 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 15004 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the end of the forward elimination steps.

Back substitution

We can now solve the above equations by back substitution. From the third equation,

$$15005x_3 = 15004 \implies x_3 = \frac{15004}{15005} = 0.99993$$

Substituting the value of x_3 in the second equation

$$-0.001x_2 + 6x_3 = 6.001 \implies$$

$$x_2 = \frac{6.001 - 6x_3}{-0.001} = \frac{6.001 - 6(0.99993)}{-0.001} = \frac{6.001 - 5.9995}{-0.001} = \frac{0.0015}{-0.001} = -1.5$$

Substituting the value of x_3 and x_2 in the first equation, $10x_1 - 7x_2 + 0x_3 = 7 \implies$

$$x_1 = \frac{7 + 7x_2 - 0x_3}{10} = \frac{7 + 7(-1.5) - 0(1)}{10} = \frac{7 + 7(-1.5) - 0(1)}{10}$$
$$= \frac{7 - 10.5 - 0}{10} = \frac{-3.5}{10} = -0.3500$$

Hence the solution is

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.35 \\ -1.5 \\ 0.99993 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compare this with the exact solution of

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-2.5 Finding the determinant of a square matrix using Naïve Gaussian Elimination methods

One of the more efficient ways to find the determinant of a square matrix is by taking advantage of the following two theorems on a determinant of matrices coupled with Naïve Gauss Elimination.

Theorem 1:

Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix. Then, if B is a matrix that results from adding or subtracting a multiple of one row to another row, then det(B) = det(A). (The same is true for column operations also).

Theorem 2:

Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix that is upper triangular, lower triangular or diagonal, then $\det(A) = a_{11} * a_{22} * \cdots * a_{nn} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$

This implies that if we apply the forward elimination steps of Naive Gauss Elimination method, the determinant of the matrix stays the same according the Theorem 1. Then since at the end of

the forward elimination steps, the resulting matrix is upper triangular, the determinant will be given by Theorem 2.

Example 5

Find the determinant of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

Remember earlier in this chapter, we conducted the steps of forward elimination of unknowns using Na $\ddot{\text{v}}$ e Gauss Elimination method on A to give

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

According to Theorem 2

$$\det(A) = \det(B) = (25)(-4.8)(0.7) = -84.00$$



If you cannot find the determinant of the matrix using Naive Gauss Elimination method due to a division by zero problems during Naïve Gauss Elimination method, you can apply Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting. However, the determinant of the resulting upper triangular matrix may differ by a sign. The following theorem applies in addition to the previous two to find determinant of a square matrix.

Theorem 3:

Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix. Then, if B is a matrix that results from switching one row with another row, then det(A) = -det(B).

Example 6

Find the determinant of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ -3 & 2.099 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

Remember from that at the end of the forward elimination steps of Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting, we obtained

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & 2.5 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6.002 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(B) = (10)(2.5)(6.002) = 150.05$$

Since rows were switched once during the forward elimination steps of Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting, det(A) = -det(B) = -150.05

Prove that
$$\det(A) = \frac{1}{\det(A^{-1})}$$

Proof:

$$AA^{-1} = I \det\left(A A^{-1}\right) = \det\left(I\right) \implies \det\left(A\right) \det\left(A^{-1}\right) = 1 \implies \det\left(A\right) = \frac{1}{\det\left(A^{-1}\right)}.$$

If A is a nxn matrix and det $(A) \neq 0$, what other statements are equivalent to it?

- 1. A is invertible.
- 2. A^{-1} exists.
- 3. Ax = b has a unique solution.
- 4. Ax = 0 solution is x = 0
- 5. $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$.

SESSION 2-2: Techniques for improving Naïve Gauss Elimination Method

As seen in the example, round off errors were large when five significant digits were used as opposed to six significant digits. So, one way of decreasing round off error would be to use more significant digits, that is, use double or quad precision. However, this would not avoid division by zero errors in Naïve Gauss Elimination. To avoid division by zero as well as reduce (not eliminate) round off error, Gaussian Elimination with partial pivoting is the method of choice.

2-2.1 Gaussian Elimination with partial pivoting

The Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting and the Naïve Gauss elimination methods are the same, except in the beginning of each step of forward elimination; a row switching is done based on the following criterion. If there are n equations, then there are (n-1) forward elimination steps. At the beginning of the k^{th} step of forward elimination, one finds the maximum of $|a_{kk}|, |a_{k+1,k}|, \ldots, |a_{nk}|$

Then if the maximum of these values is $\left|a_{pk}\right|$ in the p^{th} row, $k \leq p \leq n$, then switch rows p and k. The other steps of forward elimination are the same as Naïve Gauss elimination method. The back substitution steps stay exactly the same as Naïve Gauss Elimination method.

Example 4

In the previous two examples, we used Naïve Gauss Elimination to solve

$$10x_1 - 7x_2 = 7$$

$$-3x_1 + 2.099x_2 + 6x_3 = 3.901$$

$$5x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 = 6$$

using five and six significant digits with chopping in the calculations. Using <u>five</u> significant digits with chopping, the solution found was

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.35 \\ -1.5 \\ 0.99993 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is different from the exact solution

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the solution using Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting using five significant digits with chopping in your calculations.

Solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ -3 & 2.099 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 2.901 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Forward Elimination of Unknowns

Now for the first step of forward elimination, the absolute values of first column elements are |10|, |-3|, |5| or 10, 3, 5.

So the largest absolute value is in the Row 1. So as per Gaussian Elimination with partial pivoting, the switch is between Row 1 and Row 1 to give

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & 7 & 0 \\ -3 & 2.099 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 3.901 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dividing Row 1 by 10 and multiplying by -3, that is, multiplying the Row 1 by -0.3, and subtract it from Row 2 would eliminate a_{21} ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 5 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Again dividing Row 1 by 10 and multiplying by 5, that is, multiplying the Row 1 by 0.5, and subtract it from Row 3 would eliminate a_{31} .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \\ 0 & 2.5 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6.001 \\ 2.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the end of the first step of forward elimination.

Now for the second step of forward elimination, the absolute value of the second column elements below the Row 2 is |-0.001|, |2.5| or 0.001, 2.5

So the largest absolute value is in Row 3. So the Row 2 is switched with the Row 3 to give

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & 2.5 & 5 \\ 0 & -0.001 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 2.5 \\ 6.001 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dividing row 2 by 2.5 and multiplying by -0.001, that is multiplying by 0.001/2.5 = -0.0004, and then subtracting from Row 3 gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & 2.5 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6.002 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 2.5 \\ 6.002 \end{bmatrix}$$

Back substitution

$$6.002x_3 = 6.002 \implies x_3 = \frac{6.002}{6.002} = 1$$

Substituting the value of x_3 in Row 2

$$2.5x_2 + 5x_3 = 2.5 \implies x_2 = \frac{2.5 - 5x_2}{2.5} = \frac{2.5 - 5}{2.5} = -1$$

Substituting the value of x_3 and x_2 in Row 1

$$10x_1 - 7x_2 + 0x_2 = 7 \implies$$

$$x_1 = \frac{7 + 7x_2 - 0x_3}{10} = \frac{7 + 7(-1) - 0(1)}{10} = \frac{7 - 7 - 0}{10} = \frac{0}{10} = 0$$

So the solution is

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This, in fact, is the exact solution. By coincidence only, in this case, the round off error is fully removed.

2-2.2 LU Decomposition

We already studied two numerical methods of finding the solution to simultaneous linear equations – Naïve Gauss Elimination and Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting. To appreciate why LU Decomposition could be a better choice than the Gaussian Elimination techniques in some cases, let us discuss first what LU Decomposition is about.

For any non-singular matrix A on which one can conduct Naïve Gaussian Elimination or forward elimination steps, one can always write it as A = LU where

L = Lower triangular matrix

U =Upper triangular matrix

Then if one is solving a set of equations Ax = b, it will imply that LUx = b since A = LU.

Multiplying both side by L^{-1} , we have

$$L^{-1}LUx = L^{-1}b$$

$$\Rightarrow IUx = L^{-1}b \text{ since } (L^{-1}L = I),$$

$$\Rightarrow Ux = L^{-1}b$$
 since $(IU = U)$

Let
$$L^{-1}b = z$$
 then $Lz = b$ (1)

And
$$Ux = z$$
 (2)

So we can solve equation (1) first for z and then use equation (2) to calculate x.

The computational time required to decompose the A matrix to LU form is proportional to $\frac{n^3}{3}$, where n is the number of equations (size of A matrix). Then to solve the Lz=b, the computational time is proportional to $\frac{n^2}{2}$. Then to solve the Ux=z, the computational time is proportional to $\frac{n^2}{2}$. So the total computational time to solve a set of equations by LU decomposition is proportional to $\frac{n^3}{3} + n^2$.

In comparison, Gaussian elimination is computationally more efficient. It takes a computational time proportional to $\frac{n^3}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2}$, where the computational time for forward elimination is proportional to $\frac{n^3}{3}$ and for the back substitution the time is proportional to $\frac{n^2}{2}$.

Finding the inverse of the matrix A reduces to solving n sets of equations with the n columns of the identity matrix as the RHS vector. For calculations of each column of the inverse of the A

matrix, the coefficient matrix A matrix in the set of equation Ax = b does not change. So if we use LU Decomposition method, the A = LU decomposition needs to be done only once and the use of equations (1) and (2) still needs to be done 'n' times.

So the total computational time required to find the inverse of a matrix using LU decomposition is proportional to $\frac{n^3}{3} + n(n^2) = \frac{4n^3}{3}$.

In comparison, if Gaussian elimination method were applied to find the inverse of a matrix, the time would be proportional to $n\left(\frac{n^3}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2}\right) = \frac{n^4}{3} + \frac{n^3}{2}$.

For large values of
$$n$$
, $\frac{n^4}{3} + \frac{n^3}{2} \rangle \rangle \frac{4n^3}{3}$

2-2.3 Decomposing a non-singular matrix A into the form A=LU.

L U Decomposition Algorithm:

In these methods the coefficient matrix A of the given system of equation Ax = b is written as a product of a Lower triangular matrix L and an Upper triangular matrix U, such that A = LU where the elements of $L = (l_{ij} = 0; \text{ for } i < j)$ and the elements of $U = (u_{ij} = 0; \text{ for } i > j)$ that is,

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ l_{n1} & l_{n2} & \cdots & l_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1n} \\ 0 & u_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & u_{n-1,n} \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & u_{nn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now using the rules of matrix multiplication $a_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{\min(i,j)} l_{ik} u_{kj}, \quad i, j = 1,...,n$

This gives a system of n^2 equations for the $n^2 + n$ unknowns (the non-zero elements in L and U). To make the number of unknowns and the number of equations equal one can fix the diagonal element either in L or in U such as '1's then solve the n^2 equations for the remaining n^2 unknowns in L and U. This leads to the following algorithm:

Algorithm

The factorization A = LU, where $L = (l_{ij})_{n \times n}$ is a lower triangular and $U = (u_{ij})_{n \times n}$ an upper triangular, can be computed directly by the following algorithm (provided zero divisions are not encountered):

Algorithm

For k=1 to n do specify $(l_{kk} \text{ or } u_{kk})$ and compute the other such that $l_{kk}u_{kk}=a_{kk}-\sum_{m=1}^{k-1}l_{km}u_{mk}$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Compute the k^{th} column of L using $l_{ik} = \frac{1}{u_{kk}}\bigg(a_{ik} - \sum_{m=1}^{k-1} l_{im} u_{mk}\bigg)$ $\left(k < i \leq n\right)$, and compute the k^{th} \\ & \text{row of U using $u_{kj} = \frac{1}{l_{kk}}\bigg(a_{kj} - \sum_{m=1}^{k-1} l_{km} u_{mj}\bigg)$ $\left(k < j \leq n\right)$} \end{aligned}$$

End



The procedure is called *Doolittle* or *Crout* Factorization when $l_{ii} = 1$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ or $u_{jj} = 1$ $(1 \le j \le n)$ respectively.

If forward elimination steps of Naïve Gauss elimination methods can be applied on a non-singular matrix, then A can be decomposed into LU as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & a_{n-1,n} \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{n,n-1} & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \ell_{21} & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \ell_{n1} & \cdots & \ell_{n-1,n-1} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1n} \\ 0 & u_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & u_{n-1,n} \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & u_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

- 1. The elements of the U matrix are exactly the same as the coefficient matrix one obtains at the end of the forward elimination steps in Naïve Gauss Elimination.
- 2. The lower triangular matrix L has 1 in its diagonal entries. The non-zero elements below the diagonal in L are multipliers that made the corresponding entries zero in the upper triangular matrix U during forward elimination.

Solving Ax=b in pure matrix Notations

Solving systems of linear equations (AX=b) using LU factorization can be quite cumbersome, although it seem to be one of the simplest ways of finding the solution for the system, Ax=b. In pure matrix notation, the upper triangular matrix, U, can be calculated by constructing specific permutation matrices and elementary matrices to solve the Elimination process with both partial and complete pivoting.

The elimination process is equivalent to pre multiplying A by a sequence of lower-triangular matrices M_k as follows:

$$M_{k-1}M_{k-2} \dots M_1A = U$$

Where
$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ m_{21} & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ m_{n1} & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & m_{n2} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ with $m_{ij} = -\frac{a_{ij}^{(j-1)}}{a_{jj}}$ known as the

multiplier

In solving Gaussian elimination without partial pivoting to triangularize A, the process yields the factorization, MA = U. In this case, the system Ax = b is equivalent to the triangular system

$$Ux = Mb = b'$$
 where $M = M_{k-1}M_{k-2}M_{k-3}...M_1$

The elementary matrices M_1 and M_2 are called first and second Gaussian transformation matrix respectively with M_k being the k^{th} Gaussian transformation matrix.

Generally, to solve Ax = b using Naïve Gaussian elimination without partial pivoting by this approach, a permutation matrix is introduced to perform the pivoting strategies:

First We find the factorization MA = U by the triangularization algorithm using partial pivoting. We then solve the triangular system by back substitution as follows Ux = Mb = b'.

Note that
$$M = M_{n-1}P_{n-1}M_{n-2}P_{n-2}\cdots M_2P_2M_1P_1$$

The vector $b' = Mb = M_{n-1}P_{n-1}M_{n-2}P_{n-2}\cdots M_2P_2M_1P_1b$
Generally if we set $s_1 = b = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_n)^T$
Then For $k = 1, 2, ..., n-1$ do $s_{k+1} = M_k P_k s_k$

Example

If
$$n = 3$$
, $P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ m_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ m_{31} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then $s_2 = M_1 P_1 s_1 = \begin{pmatrix} s_1^{(2)} \\ s_2^{(2)} \\ s_3^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$

If
$$P_1 s_1 = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix}$$
 then the entries of $s^{(2)}$ are given by:
$$s_1^{(2)} = b_1$$
$$s_2^{(2)} = m_{21}b_1 + b_3$$
$$s_3^{(2)} = m_{31}b_1 + b_2$$

In the same way, to solve $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ Using Gaussian Elimination with Complete Pivoting, we modify the previous construction to include another permutation matrix, Q such that when post multiplied by A, we can perform column interchange. This results in M(PAQ) = U

Example 1

Find the LU decomposition of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

$$A = LU = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \ell_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ \ell_{31} & \ell_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

The U matrix is the same as found at the end of the forward elimination of Naïve Gauss elimination method, that is

<u>Forward Elimination of Unknowns:</u> Since there are three equations, there will be two steps of forward elimination of unknowns.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

First step: Divide Row 1 by 25 and then multiply it by 64 and subtract the results from Row 2

$$Row\ 2 - \left[\frac{64}{25}\right] \times (Row\ 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1\\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56\\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here the multiplier , $m_{21} = -\frac{64}{25}$

Divide Row 1 by 25 and then multiply it by 144 and subtract the results from Row 3

$$Row \ 3 - \left[\frac{144}{25}\right] \times (Row \ 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1\\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56\\ 0 & -16.8 & -4.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here the multiplier , $m_{31}=-\frac{144}{25}$, hence the first Gaussian transformation matrix is given by:

$$M_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ m_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ m_{31} & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ -5.76 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 And the corresponding product is given by:

$$A^{(1)} = M_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2.60 & 1 & 0 \\ -5.76 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & -16.8 & -4.76 \end{bmatrix}$$
(by a single multiplication)

<u>Second step</u>: We now divide Row 2 by -4.8 and then multiply by -16.8 and subtract the results from Row 3

$$Row\ 3 - \left[\frac{-16.8}{-4.8}\right] \times (Row\ 2) = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \text{ which produces } U = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here the multiplier, $m_{32} = -\frac{-16.8}{-4.8}$, hence the 2nd Gaussian transformation matrix is given by:

$$M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & m_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 And the corresponding product is given by:

$$A^{(2)} = M_2 A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & -16.8 & -4.76 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} = U \text{ (by a single multiplication)}$$

To find ℓ_{21} and ℓ_{31} , what multiplier was used to make the a_{21} and a_{31} elements zero in the first step of forward elimination of Naïve Gauss Elimination Method It was

$$\ell_{21} = -m_{21} = \frac{64}{25} = 2.56$$

$$\ell_{31} = -m_{31} = \frac{144}{25} = 5.76$$

To find ℓ_{32} , what multiplier was used to make a_{32} element zero. Remember a_{32} element was made zero in the second step of forward elimination. The A matrix at the beginning of the second step of forward elimination was

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & -16.8 & -4.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

So

$$\ell_{32} = -m_{32} = \frac{-16.8}{-4.8} = 3.5$$

Hence

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -m_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ -m_{31} & -m_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ 5.76 & 3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Confirm LU = A.

$$LU = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ 5.76 & 3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 2

Use LU decomposition method to solve the following linear system of equations.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ 177.2 \\ 279.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

Recall that Ax = b and if A = LU then first solving Lz = b and then Ux = z gives the solution vector x.

Now in the previous example, we showed

$$A = LU = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ 5.76 & 3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

First solve Lz = b, i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ 5.76 & 3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ 177.2 \\ 279.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

to give

$$z_1$$
 = 106.8
2.56 z_1 + z_2 = 177.2
5.76 z_1 + 3.5 z_2 + z_3 = 279.2

Forward substitution starting from the first equation gives

$$z_1 = 106.8$$

 $z_2 = 177.2 - 2.56z_1 = 177.2 - 2.56(106.8) = -96.2$
 $z_3 = 279.2 - 5.76z_1 - 3.5z_2 = 279.2 - 5.76(106.8) - 3.5(-96.21) = 0.735$

Hence

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ -96.21 \\ 0.735 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix is same as the right hand side obtained at the end of the forward elimination steps of Naïve Gauss elimination method. Is this a coincidence?

Now solve Ux = z, i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ -96.21 \\ 0.735 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$25x_1 + 5x_2 + x_3 = 106.8$$
$$-4.8x_2 - 1.56x_3 = -96.21$$
$$0.7x_3 = 0.735$$

From the third equation $0.7x_3 = 0.735 \implies x_3 = \frac{0.735}{0.7} = 1.050$

Substituting the value of a₃ in the second equation,

$$-4.8x_2 - 1.56x_3 = -96.21 \implies x_2 = \frac{-96.21 + 1.56x_3}{-4.8} = \frac{-96.21 + 1.56(1.050)}{-4.8} = 19.70$$

Substituting the value of x_2 and x_3 in the first equation,

$$25x_1 + 5x_2 + x_3 = 106.8 \implies x_1 = \frac{106.8 - 5x_2 - x_3}{25}$$
$$= \frac{106.8 - 5(19.70) - 1.050}{25} = 0.2900$$

The solution vector is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2900 \\ 19.70 \\ 1.050 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 2.2

Solve

$$Ax = b \text{ with } A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } b = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

(a) using partial pivoting and (b) using complete pivoting.

Solution:

(a) Partial pivoting:

We compute U as follows:

Step 1:

$$P_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad P_{1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad M_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix};$$

$$A^{(1)} = M_{1}P_{1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix};$$

Step 2:

$$\begin{split} P_2 = &\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad P_2 A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \\ U = A^{(2)} = M_2 P_2 A^{(1)} = M_2 P_2 M_1 P_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

Note: Defining $P = P_2 P_1$ and $L = P(M_2 P_2 M_1 P_1)^{-1}$, we have PA = LU.

We compute b' as follows:

Step1:

$$P_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad P_{1}b = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}; \quad M_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix};$$

Step 2:

$$P_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad P_{2}M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}; \quad M_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \qquad b' = M_{2}P_{2}M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix};$$

The solution of the system

$$Ux = b' \implies \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 1$$

(b) Complete pivoting: We compute *U* as follows: Step 1:

$$\begin{split} P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad Q_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad P_1 A Q_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{3} & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{3} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \\ A^{(1)} = M_1 P_1 A Q_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

Step 2:

$$\begin{split} P_2 = & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad Q_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad P_2 A^{(1)} Q_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}; \qquad M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \\ U = A^{(2)} = M_2 P_2 A^{(1)} Q_2 = M_2 P_2 M_1 P_1 A Q_1 Q_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

Note: Defining $P = P_2P_1$, $Q = Q_1Q_2$ and $L = P(M_2P_2M_1P_1)^{-1}$, we have PAQ = LU. We compute b' as follows: *Step*1:

$$P_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad P_{1}b = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}; \quad M_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{3} & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{3} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Step 2:

$$P_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad P_{2}M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad M_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix};$$

$$b' = M_{2}P_{2}M_{1}P_{1}b = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The solution of the system

$$Uy = b' \implies \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

is $y_1 = y_2 = y_3 = 1$. Because $\{x_k\}$, k = 1, 2, 3 is simply the rearrangement of $\{y_k\}$, we have $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 1$.

2-2.4 Finding the inverse of a square matrix using LU Decomposition

A matrix B is the inverse of A if AB = I = BA. First assume that the first column of B (the inverse of A is $\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{21} & \cdots & b_{n1} \end{bmatrix}^T$ then from the above definition of inverse and definition of matrix multiplication.

$$A \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly the second column of B is given by

$$A \begin{bmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, all columns of B can be found by solving n different sets of equations with the column of the right hand sides being the n columns of the identity matrix.

Example 3

Use LU decomposition to find the inverse of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

Knowing that

$$A = LU = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ 5.76 & 3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

We can solve for the first column of $B = A^{-1}$ by solving for

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ b_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

First solve Lz = c, that is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.56 & 1 & 0 \\ 5.76 & 3.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

to give

$$z_1 = 1$$

 $2.56z_1 + z_2 = 0$
 $5.76z_1 + 3.5z_2 + z_3 = 0$

Forward substitution starting from the first equation gives

$$z_1 = 1$$

 $z_2 = 0-2.56z_1 = 0-2.56(1) = -256$
 $z_3 = 0-5.76z_1 - 3.5z_2 = 0-5.76(1) - 3.5(-2.56) = 3.2$

Hence

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2.56 \\ 3.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now solve Ux = z, that is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -4.8 & -1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ b_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2.56 \\ 3.2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 25b_{11} + 5b_{21} + b_{31} = 1 \\ -4.8b_{21} - 1.56b_{31} = -2.56 \\ 0.7b_{31} = 3.2 \end{cases}$$

Backward substitution starting from the third equation gives

$$b_{31} = \frac{3.2}{0.7} = 4.571$$

$$b_{21} = \frac{-2.56 + 1.560b_{31}}{-4.8} = \frac{-2.56 + 1.560(4.571)}{-4.8} = -0.9524$$

$$b_{11} = \frac{1 - 5b_{21} - b_{31}}{25} = \frac{1 - 5(-0.9524) - 4.571}{25} = 0.04762$$

Hence the first column of the inverse of A is

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ b_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.04762 \\ -0.9524 \\ 4.571 \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly by solving

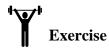
$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \\ b_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \\ b_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.08333 \\ 1.417 \\ -5.000 \end{bmatrix}$$

and solving

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{13} \\ b_{23} \\ b_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} b_{13} \\ b_{23} \\ b_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.03571 \\ -0.4643 \\ 1.429 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4762 & 0.08333 & 0.0357 \\ -0.9524 & 1.417 & -0.4643 \\ 4.571 & -5.050 & 1.429 \end{bmatrix}$$



Show that $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$ for the above example.

SESSION 3-2: Iterative Method

3-1.1 Jacobi Method

Given a general set of n equations and n unknowns, we have

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + a_{n3}x_3 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

If the diagonal elements are non-zero, each equation is rewritten for the corresponding unknown, that is, the first equation is rewritten with x_1 on the left hand side and the second equation is rewritten with x_2 on the left hand side and so on as follows:

$$x_{1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}} (b_{1} - a_{12}x_{2} - a_{13}x_{3} - \dots - a_{1n}x_{n})$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{1}{a_{22}} (b_{2} - a_{21}x_{1} - a_{23}x_{3} - \dots - a_{2n}x_{n})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_{n-1} = \frac{1}{a_{n-1,n-1}} (b_{n-1} - a_{n-1,1}x_{1} - a_{n-1,2}x_{2} - \dots - a_{n-1,n}x_{n})$$

$$x_{n} = \frac{1}{a_{nn}} (b_{n} - a_{n1}x_{1} - a_{n2}x_{2} - \dots - a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1})$$

These equations can be rewritten in the summation form as

$$x_{1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}} \left(b_{1} - \sum_{j=1, j \neq 1}^{n} a_{1j} x_{j} \right)$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{1}{a_{22}} \left(b_{2} - \sum_{j=1, j \neq 2}^{n} a_{2j} x_{j} \right)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_{n-1} = \frac{1}{a_{n-1,n-1}} \left(b_{n-1} - \sum_{j=1, j \neq n-1}^{n} a_{n-1j} x_{j} \right)$$

$$x_{n} = \frac{1}{a_{nn}} \left(b_{n} - \sum_{j=1, j \neq n}^{n} a_{nj} x_{j} \right)$$

Hence for any row i, $x_i = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n a_{ij} x_j \right)$, i = 1, 2, ..., n.

By assuming an initial guess for the x_i 's, one uses $x_i^{(k)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n a_{ij} x_j^{(k-1)} \right)$, i = 1, 2, ..., n. to calculate the new values for the x_i 's. At the end of each iteration, one calculates the absolute relative approximate error for each x_i as $\left| \varepsilon_a \right|_i = \left| \frac{x_i^{new} - x_i^{old}}{x_i^{new}} \right| \times 100$, where x_i^{new} is the recently obtained value of x_i , and x_i^{old} is the previous value of x_i .

When the absolute relative approximate error for each x_i is less than the pre-specified tolerance, the iterations are stopped.

If the coefficient matrix A of the system Ax = b, is written as A = L + D + U where D has the diagonal elements of A and L & U respectively have the lower diagonal and upper diagonal elements of A then the Jacobi scheme can be written in matrix form as

$$Dx = -(L+U)x + b$$
$$Dx^{(k)} = -(L+U)x^{(k-1)} + b$$

giving $x^{(k)} = -D^{-1}(L+U)x^{(k-1)} + D^{-1}b$, i.e., the Jacobi iterative matrix and the corresponding vector are given as $T_J = -D^{-1}(L+U)$ and $c_J = D^{-1}b$ respectively.

Example 1

Use Jacobi Method to solve Ax = b, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ 177.2 \\ 279.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume an initial guess of the solution as $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^T$. Perform two iterations only.

Solution

Rewriting the equations gives

$$x_1^{(k)} = \frac{106.8 - 5x_2^{(k-1)} - x_3^{(k-1)}}{25}$$

$$x_2^{(k)} = \frac{177.2 - 64x_1^{(k-1)} - x_3^{(k-1)}}{8}$$

$$x_3^{(k)} = \frac{279.2 - 144x_1^{(k-1)} - 12x_2^{(k-1)}}{1}$$

Iteration #1

Given the initial guess of the solution vector as

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(0)} \\ x_2^{(0)} \\ x_3^{(0)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

we get

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{106.8 - 5(2) - (5)}{25} = 3.6720$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{177.2 - 64(1) - (5)}{8} = 13.525$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = \frac{279.2 - 144(2) - 12(5)}{1} = --68.8$$

The absolute relative approximate error for each x_i then is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{3.6720 - 1.0000}{3.6720} \right| \times 100 = 72.76\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{13.525 - 2.0000}{13.525} \right| \times 100 = 85.21\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{-68.8 - 5.0000}{-68.8} \right| \times 100 = 108.53\% \end{aligned}$$

At the end of the first iteration, the guess of the solution vector is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} \\ x_2^{(1)} \\ x_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.6720 \\ 13.525 \\ -68.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the maximum absolute relative approximate error is 108.53%.

Iteration #2

The estimate of the solution vector at the end of iteration #1 is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} \\ x_2^{(1)} \\ x_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.6720 \\ 13.525 \\ -68.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we get

$$x_1^{(2)} = \frac{106.8 - 5(13.525) - 68.8}{25} = -1.185$$

$$x_2^{(2)} = \frac{177.2 - 64(3.6720) - 68.8}{8} = -15.862$$

$$x_3^{(2)} = \frac{279.2 - 144(3.6720) - 12(-68.8)}{1} = 576.032$$

The absolute relative approximate error for each x_i then is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \in_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{-1.185 - 3.6720}{-1.185} \right| \times 100 = 428.37\% \\ \left| \in_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{-15.862 - (13.525)}{-15.862} \right| \times 100 = 185.27\% \\ \left| \in_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{576.032 - (-68.8)}{576.032} \right| \times 100 = 111.94\% \end{aligned}$$

At the end of second iteration the estimate of the solution is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(2)} \\ x_2^{(2)} \\ x_3^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.185 \\ -15.862 \\ 576.032 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the maximum absolute relative approximate error is 428.37%.

Example 2

Given the system of equations;

$$12x_1 + 3x_2 - 5x_3 = 1$$

$$x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 28$$

$$3x_1 + 7x_2 + 13x_3 = 76$$

find the solution, given $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ as the initial guess.

Solution

Rewriting the equations, we get

$$x_1^{(k)} = \frac{1 - 3x_2^{(k-1)} + 5x_3^{(k-1)}}{12}$$

$$x_2^{(k)} = \frac{28 - x_1^{(k-1)} - 3x_3^{(k-1)}}{5}$$

$$x_3^{(k)} = \frac{76 - 3x_1^{(k-1)} - 7x_2^{(k-1)}}{13}$$

Assuming an initial guess of

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(0)} \\ x_2^{(0)} \\ x_3^{(0)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Iteration #1:

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{1 - 3(0) + 5(1)}{12} = 0.50000$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{28 - (1) - 3(1)}{5} = 4.80000$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = \frac{76 - 3(1) - 7(0)}{13} = 5.6154$$

The absolute relative approximate error at the end of first iteration is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{0.50000 - 1.0000}{0.50000} \right| \times 100 = 67.662\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{4.8000 - 0}{4.8000} \right| \times 100 = 100\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{5.6154 - 1.0000}{5.6154} \right| \times 100 = 82.19\% \end{aligned}$$

The maximum absolute relative approximate error is 100.000%

Iteration #2:

$$x_1^{(2)} = \frac{1 - 3(4.8000) + 5(5.6154)}{12} = 14.677$$

$$x_2^{(2)} = \frac{28 - (0.5000) - 3(5.6154)}{5} = 2.13076$$

$$x_3^{(2)} = \frac{76 - 3(0.5000) - 7(4.800)}{13} = 3.14615$$

At the end of second iteration, the absolute relative approximate error is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \varepsilon_a \right|_1 &= \left| \frac{14.677 - 0.50000}{14.677} \right| \times 100 = 96.59\% \\ \left| \varepsilon_a \right|_2 &= \left| \frac{2.13076 - 4.8000}{2.13076} \right| \times 100 = 125.27\% \\ \left| \varepsilon_a \right|_3 &= \left| \frac{3.14615 - 5.6154}{3.14615} \right| \times 100 = 78.484\% \end{aligned}$$

The maximum absolute relative approximate error is 125.27%.

3-1.2 Gauss-Seidel Method

If the set of n equations and n unknowns

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + a_{n3}x_3 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

is rewritten as

$$a_{11}x_{1} = b_{1} - a_{12}x_{2} - a_{13}x_{3} - \dots - a_{1n}x_{n}$$

$$a_{21}x_{1} + a_{22}x_{2} = b_{2} - a_{23}x_{3} - \dots - a_{2n}x_{n}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n-1,1}x_{1} + a_{n-1,2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{n-1,n-1}x_{n-1} = b_{n-1} - a_{n-1,n}x_{n}$$

$$a_{n1}x_{1} + a_{n2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{n-1}x_{n-1} + a_{nn}x_{n} = b_{n}$$

From the above it is seen that the most recent updates of the x_i 's are used immediately they are available then the above reduces to

$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left\{ b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_i^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij} x_i^{(k-1)} \right\}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
 (*)

Again in the matrix notation, the coefficient matrix A of the system Ax = b, is split into A = L + D + U where D has the diagonal elements of A and L & U respectively have the lower diagonal and upper diagonal elements of A then the Gauss-Seidel scheme can be written as

$$(L+D)x = -Ux + b$$

$$(L+D)x^{(k)} = -Ux^{(k-1)} + b$$

giving
$$x^{(k)} = -(L+D)^{-1}Ux^{(k-1)} + (L+D)^{-1}b$$
.

i.e., the Gauss-Seidel iterative matrix and the corresponding vector are given as $T_{GS} = -(L+D)^{-1}U$ and $c_{GS} = (L+D)^{-1}b$ respectively.

Example 1

Use Gauss-Seidel Method to solve Ax = b, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 5 & 1 \\ 64 & 8 & 1 \\ 144 & 12 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} 106.8 \\ 177.2 \\ 279.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume an initial guess of the solution as $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^T$.

Solution

Rewriting the equations gives

$$x_1^{(k)} = \frac{106.8 - 5x_2^{(k-1)} - x_3^{(k-1)}}{25}$$

$$x_2^{(k)} = \frac{177.2 - 64x_1^{(k)} - x_3^{(k-1)}}{8}$$

$$x_3^{(k)} = \frac{279.2 - 144x_1^{(k)} - 12x_2^{(k)}}{1}$$

Iteration #1

Given the initial guess of the solution vector as

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

we get

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{106.8 - 5(2) - (5)}{25} = 3.6720$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{177.2 - 64(3.6720) - (5)}{8} = -7.8510$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = \frac{279.2 - 144(3.6720) - 12(-7.8510)}{1} = -155.36$$

The absolute relative approximate error for each x_i then is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{3.6720 - 1.0000}{3.6720} \right| \times 100 = 72.76\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{-7.8510 - 2.0000}{-7.8510} \right| \times 100 = 125.47\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{-155.36 - 5.0000}{-155.36} \right| \times 100 = 103.22\% \end{aligned}$$

At the end of the first iteration, the guess of the solution vector is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} \\ x_2^{(1)} \\ x_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.6720 \\ -7.8510 \\ -155.36 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the maximum absolute relative approximate error is 125.47%.

Iteration #2

The estimate of the solution vector at the end of iteration #1 is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} \\ x_2^{(1)} \\ x_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.6720 \\ -7.8510 \\ -155.36 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we get

$$x_{1}^{(2)} = \frac{106.8 - 5(-7.8510) - 155.36}{25} = 12.056$$

$$x_{2}^{(2)} = \frac{177.2 - 64(12.056) - 155.36}{8} = -54.882$$

$$x_{3}^{(2)} = \frac{279.2 - 144(12.056) - 12(-54.882)}{1} = -798.34$$

The absolute relative approximate error for each x_i then is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \in_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{12.056 - 3.6720}{12.056} \right| \times 100 = 69.542\% \\ \left| \in_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{-54.882 - (-7.8510)}{-54.882} \right| \times 100 = 85.695\% \\ \left| \in_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{-798.34 - (-155.36)}{-798.34} \right| \times 100 = 80.54\% \end{aligned}$$

At the end of second iteration the estimate of the solution is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(2)} \\ x_2^{(2)} \\ x_3^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12.056 \\ -54.882 \\ -798.34 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the maximum absolute relative approximate error is 85.695%.

Conducting more iterations gives the following values for the solution vector and the corresponding absolute relative approximate errors.

Iteration k	$X_1^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{1}\%$	$x_{2}^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{2}\%$	$x_3^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{3}\%$
1	3.672	72.767	-7.8510	125.47	-155.36	103.22
2	12.056	67.542	-54.882	85.695	-798.34	80.540
3	47.182	74.448	-255.51	78.521	-3448.9	76.852
4	193.33	75.595	-1093.4	76.632	-14440	76.116
5	800.53	75.850	-4577.2	76.112	-60072	75.962
6	3322.6	75.907	-19049	75.971	-249580	75.931

As seen in the above table, the solution is not converging to the true solution of $x_1 = 0.29048$, $x_2 = 19.690$, $x_3 = 1.0858$

The above system of equations does not seem to converge? Why?

A pitfall of most iterative methods is that they may or may not converge. However, certain classes of systems of simultaneous equations do always converge to a solution using Gauss-Seidel method. This class of system of equations is where the coefficient matrix A in Ax = b is

diagonally dominant, that is
$$|a_{ii}| \ge \sum_{\substack{j=1 \ j \ne i}}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$
 for all i and $|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1 \ i \ne i}}^{n} |a_{ij}|$ for at least one i .

If a system of equations has a coefficient matrix that is not diagonally dominant, it may or may not converge. Fortunately, many physical systems that result in simultaneous linear equations have diagonally dominant coefficient matrix, which then assures convergence for iterative methods such as Gauss-Seidel method of solving simultaneous linear equations.

Example 2

Given the system of equations;

$$12x_1 + 3x_2 - 5x_3 = 1$$

$$x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 28$$

$$3x_1 + 7x_2 + 13x_3 = 76$$

find the solution. Given $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ as the initial guess.

Solution

The coefficient matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 3 & -5 \\ 1 & 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 7 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

is diagonally dominant as

$$|a_{11}| = |12| = 12 \ge |a_{12}| + |a_{13}| = |3| + |-5| = 8$$

$$|a_{22}| = |5| = 5 \ge |a_{21}| + |a_{23}| = |1| + |3| = 4$$

$$|a_{33}| = |13| = 13 \ge |a_{31}| + |a_{32}| = |3| + |7| = 10$$

and the inequality is strictly greater than for at least one row. Hence the solution should converge using Gauss-Seidel method.

Rewriting the equations, we get

$$x_1^{(k)} = \frac{1 - 3x_2^{(k-1)} + 5x_3^{(k-1)}}{12}$$

$$x_2^{(k)} = \frac{28 - x_1^{(k)} - 3x_3^{(k-1)}}{5}$$

$$x_3^{(k)} = \frac{76 - 3x_1^{(k)} - 7x_2^{(k)}}{13}$$

Assuming an initial guess of

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(0)} \\ x_2^{(0)} \\ x_3^{(0)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Iteration #1:

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{1 - 3(0) + 5(1)}{12} = 0.50000$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{28 - (0.5) - 3(1)}{5} = 4.90000$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = \frac{76 - 3(0.50000) - 7(4.9000)}{13} = 3.0923$$

The absolute relative approximate error at the end of first iteration is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{0.50000 - 1.0000}{0.50000} \right| \times 100 = 67.662\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{4.9000 - 0}{4.9000} \right| \times 100 = 100\% \\ \left| \mathcal{E}_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{3.0923 - 1.0000}{3.0923} \right| \times 100 = 67.662\% \end{aligned}$$

The maximum absolute relative approximate error is 100.000%

Iteration #2:

$$x_1^{(2)} = \frac{1 - 3(4.9000) + 5(3.0923)}{12} = 0.14679$$

$$x_2^{(2)} = \frac{28 - (0.14679) - 3(3.0923)}{5} = 3.7153$$

$$x_3^{(2)} = \frac{76 - 3(0.14679) - 7(4.900)}{13} = 3.8118$$

At the end of second iteration, the absolute relative approximate error is

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \varepsilon_{a} \right|_{1} &= \left| \frac{0.14679 - 0.50000}{0.14679} \right| \times 100 = 240.62\% \\ \left| \varepsilon_{a} \right|_{2} &= \left| \frac{3.7153 - 4.9000}{3.7153} \right| \times 100 = 31.887\% \\ \left| \varepsilon_{a} \right|_{3} &= \left| \frac{3.8118 - 3.0923}{3.8118} \right| \times 100 = 18.876\% \end{aligned}$$

The maximum absolute relative approximate error is 240.62%. This is greater than the value of 67.612% we obtained in the first iteration. Is the solution diverging? No, as you conduct more iterations, the solution converges as follows.

Iteration k	$x_1^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{1}$	$x_{2}^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_a \right _2$	$X_3^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{3}$
1	0.50000	67.662	4.900	100.00	3.0923	67.662
2	0.14679	240.62	3.7153	31.887	3.8118	18.876
3	0.74275	80.23	3.1644	17.409	3.9708	4.0042
4	0.94675	21.547	3.0281	4.5012	3.9971	0.65798
5	0.99177	4.5394	3.0034	0.82240	4.0001	0.07499
6	0.99919	0.74260	3.0001	0.11000	4.0001	0.00000

This is close to the exact solution vector of

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 3

Given the system of equations

$$3x_1 + 7x_2 + 13x_3 = 76$$
$$x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 28$$
$$12x_1 + 3x_2 - 5x_3 = 1$$

find the solution using Gauss-Seidal method. Use $\begin{bmatrix} x_1, x_2, x_3 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ as the initial guess.

Solution

Rewriting the equations, we get

$$x_1^{(k)} = \frac{76 - 7x_2^{(k-1)} - 13x_3^{(k-1)}}{3}$$

$$x_2^{(k)} = \frac{28 - x_1^{(k)} - 3x_3^{(k-1)}}{5}$$

$$x_3^{(k)} = \frac{1 - 12x_1^{(k)} - 3x_3^{(k)}}{-5}$$

Assuming an initial guess of

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(0)} \\ x_2^{(0)} \\ x_3^{(0)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

the next six iterative values are given in the table below

Iteration k	$x_1^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{1}$	$X_2^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{2}$	$x_3^{(k)}$	$\left \mathcal{E}_{a}\right _{3}$
1	21.000	110.71	0.80000	100.00	5.0680	98.027
2	-196.15	109.83	14.421	94.453	-462.30	110.96
3	-1995.0	109.90	-116.02	112.43	4718.1	109.80
4	-20149	109.89	1204.6	109.63	-47636	109.90
5	2.0364×10^5	109.90	-12140	109.92	$4.8144x10^5$	109.89
6	-2.0579×10^5	1.0990	1.2272×10^5	109.89	$-4.8653x10^6$	109.89

You can see that this solution is not converging and the coefficient matrix is not diagonally dominant. The coefficient matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 7 & 13 \\ 1 & 5 & 3 \\ 12 & 3 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

is not diagonally dominant as

$$|a_{11}| = |3| = 3 \le |a_{12}| + |a_{13}| = |7| + |13| = 20$$

Hence Gauss-Seidal method may or may not converge.

However, it is the same set of equations as the previous example and that converged. The only difference is that we exchanged first and the third equation with each other and that made the coefficient matrix not diagonally dominant.

So it is possible that a system of equations can be made diagonally dominant if one exchanges the equations with each other. But it is not possible for all cases. For example, the following set of equations.

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 3$$

 $2x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 = 9$
 $x_1 + 7x_2 + x_3 = 9$

cannot be rewritten to make the coefficient matrix diagonally dominant.

Example 4

Find an approximation to the solution of Ax = b by performing two iterations of the Gauss-

Seidel method where
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $x^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution

Using
$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{2} a_{ij} x_j^{(k-1)} \right), i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2, \dots$$
, we have

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \ A_{\text{off}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k = 1$$

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - [0, 2] \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = -\frac{1}{4}, \quad x_2^{(1)} = 1 \left(2 - [1, 0] \times \begin{bmatrix} -1/4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \frac{9}{4}$$

$$\overrightarrow{x_1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/4 \\ 9/4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k = 2$$

$$x_1^{(2)} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - [0, 2] \times \begin{bmatrix} -1/4 \\ 9/4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = -7/8, \quad x_2^{(2)} = 1 \left(2 - [1, 0] \times \begin{bmatrix} -7/8 \\ 9/4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = 23/8$$

$$\overrightarrow{x_2} = \begin{bmatrix} -7/8 \\ 23/8 \end{bmatrix}$$

3-1.3 Successive Over-Relaxation Method

If the Gauss-Seidel iteration equations (*) is written as

$$x_i^{(k)} = x_i^{(k-1)} + \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left\{ b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_i^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i}^{n} a_{ij} x_i^{(k-1)} \right\}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

Then multiplying the second term of the right hand side of the above by ω , we have

$$x_{i}^{(k)} = x_{i}^{(k-1)} + \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}} \left\{ b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{i}^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i}^{n} a_{ij} x_{i}^{(k-1)} \right\}, \quad i = 1, ..., n$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{i}^{(k)} = \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}} \left\{ b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{i}^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{i}^{(k-1)} \right\} + (1 - \omega) x_{i}^{(k-1)}, \quad i = 1, ..., n$$

$$(**)$$

which gives the SOR iteration equations where the factor ω is called the acceleration parameter or relaxation factor, which generally lies in the range $0 < \omega < 2$. The determination of the optimum value of ω for maximum rate of convergence is again a matter of discussion and is not considered. When $\omega = 1$ gives the Gauss-Seidel iteration, $0 < \omega < 1$ we have **under relaxation** and $1 < \omega < 2$ we have **over relaxation**.

From (**), we can write the matrix notation for the SOR method as follows:

$$x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)} = \omega D^{-1} \left(-Lx^{(k)} - Ux^{(k-1)} + b - Dx^{(k-1)} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(I + \omega D^{-1} L \right) x^{(k)} = \omega D^{-1} \left(-U - D \right) x^{(k-1)} + x^{(k-1)} + \omega D^{-1} b$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(D + \omega L \right) x^{(k)} = \omega \left(-U - D \right) x^{(k-1)} + Dx^{(k-1)} + \omega b$$

Therefore,

$$x^{(k)} = (D + \omega L)^{-1} ((1 - \omega)D - \omega U) x^{(k-1)} + \omega (D + \omega L)^{-1} b$$

i.e., the SOR iterative matrix and the corresponding vector are given as

$$T_{SOR} = (D + \omega L)^{-1} ((1 - \omega)D - \omega U)$$
 and $c_{SOR} = \omega (D + \omega L)^{-1} b$ respectively.

Example 1

Find an approximation to the solution of Ax = b by performing two iterations of the SOR method where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $x^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ with $\omega = 1.2$.

Solution

Using
$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{2} a_{ij} x_j^{(k-1)} \right) + (1-\omega) x_i^{(k-1)}, i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2, \dots$$
, we have

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \ A_{\text{off}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k = 1$$

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{1.2}{4} \left(1 - [0, 2] \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) - 0.2 = -0.5, \quad x_2^{(1)} = 1.2 \left(2 - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) - 0.2 = 2.8$$

$$\overrightarrow{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 \\ 2.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k = 2$$

$$x_1^{(2)} = \frac{1.2}{4} \left(1 - [0, 2] \times \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 \\ 2.8 \end{bmatrix} \right) + 0.1 = -1.28, \quad x_2^{(2)} = 1.2 \left(2 - [1, 0] \times \begin{bmatrix} -1.28 \\ 2.8 \end{bmatrix} \right) - 0.56 = 3.376$$

$$\overrightarrow{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1.28 \\ 3.376 \end{bmatrix}$$

3-1.4 A necessary and sufficient condition for the convergence of iterative schemes

Consider any iterative scheme $x^{(k)} = Tx^{(k-1)} + c$, where T is the iterative matrix and c is the constant vector of known values. If $e^{(k)}$ is the error in the k^{th} approximation to the exact solution then it can be written as: $e^{(k)} = x - x^{(k)}$.

Similarly,
$$e^{(k+1)} = x - x^{(k+1)}$$
. Therefore $e^{(k+1)} = Te^{(k)}$ or $e^{(k)} = Te^{(k-1)} = T^2e^{(k-2)} = \cdots = T^ke^{(0)}$.

Since the sequence of approximations $\{x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(k)}, \dots\}$ converges to x as n tends to infinity, we have $\lim_{k \to \infty} e^{(k)} = 0 \implies \lim_{k \to \infty} T^k e^{(0)} = e^{(0)} \lim_{k \to \infty} T^k = 0$

If *T* has *n* linearly independent Eigenvectors v_r , r = 1,...,n then these *n* vectors can be used as a basis for any *n* dimensional space and hence any vector in this *n* dimensional space can be represented in terms of these *n* vectors. In particular, $e^{(0)} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} c_r v_r$, where c_r , r = 1,...,n are

scalars. Hence
$$e^{(1)} = Te^{(0)} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} c_r T v_r$$
.

But $Tv_r = \lambda_r v_r$ by the definition of an eigenvalue, where λ_r is the eigenvalue corresponding to the eigenvector v_r . Hence $e^{(1)} = \sum_{r=1}^n c_r \lambda_r v_r$

Similarly
$$e^{(k)} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} c_r \lambda_r^k v_r$$

Therefore $e^{(k)}$ will tend to the null vector as k tends to infinity, for arbitrary $e^{(0)}$, if and only if $|\lambda_r| < 1$ for all r. In other words the iteration will converge for arbitrary $x^{(0)}$ if and only if, the spectral radius $\rho(T)$ of T is less than unity.

As a corollary to this result a sufficient condition for convergence is that ||T|| < 1. To prove this we have that $Tv_r = \lambda_r v_r$. Hence

$$\begin{split} & \left\| T\boldsymbol{\nu}_r \right\| = \left\| \boldsymbol{\lambda}_r \boldsymbol{\nu}_r \right\| = \left| \boldsymbol{\lambda}_r \right| \left\| \boldsymbol{\nu}_r \right\| \\ & \left\| \boldsymbol{\lambda}_r \boldsymbol{\nu}_r \right\| \leq \left\| T \right\| \left\| \boldsymbol{\nu}_r \right\| \end{split}$$

But for any matrix norm that is compatible with a vector norm $\|v_r\|$, $\|Tv_r\| \le \|T\| \|v_r\|$.

Therefore
$$\|\lambda_r \nu_r\| \le \|T\| \|\nu_r\|$$
 so $|\lambda_r| \le \|T\|$, $r = 1,...,n$.

It follows from this that a sufficient condition for convergence is that ||T|| < 1. It is not a necessary condition because the norm of T can exceed one even when $\rho(T) < 1$.

SYSTEM OF NON-LINEAR EQUATIONS

Introduction

Solutions $x = x_0$ to equations of the form f(x) = 0 are often required where it is impossible or infeasible to find an analytical expression for the vector x. If the scalar function f depends on f independent variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$, then the solution f(x) will describe a surface in f(x) dimensional space. Alternatively we may consider the vector function f(x) = 0, the solutions of which typically converges to particular values of f(x). For this course we restrict our attention to f(x) independent variables f(x) = 0, where f(x) = 0 where f(x) =



Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you should be able to:

- > Explain functional fixed-point iteration,
- Explain the Gauss-Seidel and Newton's methods.
- Describe the method of undetermined coefficients or polynomial interpolation,
- ➤ Explain the Newton's divided difference method and the Lagrange interpolation method.

content

SESSION 1-3: Fixed Points for Functions of Several Variables

- 1-3.1 Functional or Fixed Point Iteration
- 1-3.2 Newton's Method

SESSION 2-1: Interpolation

- 2-3.1 Introduction
- 2-3.2 Basis Functions
- 2-3.3 Polynomial Interpolation
- 2-3.4 Lagrange Interpolation
- 2-3.5 Newton Interpolation

SESSION 1-3: Fixed Points for Functions of Several Variables

The general of a system of nonlinear equations is

$$f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0$$

$$f_2(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0$$

where each function f_i maps n-dimensional space, R^n , into the real line R. The above system can be defined alternatively by defining the function $F(\mathbf{x}) = 0$, where $F: R^n \to R^n$, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ and $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = (f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n), f_2(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n), ..., f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n))$.

1-3.1 Functional or Fixed Point Iteration

Suppose a nonlinear system of the form F(x) = 0 has been transformed into an equivalent fixed point problem G(x) = x. The functional or fixed point iteration process applied to G is as follows:

- 1. Select $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)}).$

The following theorem provides conditions for the iterative process to converge.

Theorem

Let $D = \{(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) : a_i \le x_i \le b_i, \text{ for each } i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$, for some collection of constants $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ and $(b_1, b_2, ..., b_n)$. Suppose G is a continuous function with continuous first partial derivatives from $D \subset R^n$ into R^n with the property that $G(\mathbf{x}) \in D$ whenever $\mathbf{x} \in D$. If a constant K < 1 exists with $\left| \frac{\partial g_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} \right| \le \frac{K}{n}$ whenever $\mathbf{x} \in D$ for each j = 1, 2, ..., n and each

component function g_i , then the sequence $\left\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\right\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ defined by $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = G(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$ for each i=1, 2, 3,... converges to the unique fixed point $\mathbf{p} \in D$, for any $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ in D, and $\left\|\mathbf{x}^{(j)} - \mathbf{p}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{K^j}{1-K} \left\|\mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)}\right\|_{\infty}$.

Example 1

$$3x_{1} - \cos(x_{2}x_{3}) - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

$$x_{1}^{2} - 81(x_{2} + 0.1)^{2} + \sin x_{3} + 1.06 = 0$$

$$e^{-x_{1}x_{2}} + 20x_{3} + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0$$

$$f_{1}(x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{n}) = 3x_{1} - \cos(x_{2}x_{3}) - \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f_{2}(x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{n}) = x_{1}^{2} - 81(x_{2} + 0.1)^{2} + \sin x_{3} + 1.06$$

$$f_{3}(x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{n}) = e^{-x_{1}x_{2}} + 20x_{3} + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3}$$

$$F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = (f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n), f_2(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n), ..., f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n))$$

$$= (3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2}, x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06, e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3})$$

Example 2

$$3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

$$x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06 = 0$$

$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0$$

If the *i*th equation is solved for x_i , the system can be changed into the fixed point problem

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{3}\cos(x_2x_3) + \frac{1}{6},$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{9}\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06} - 0.1,$$

$$x_3 = -\frac{1}{20}e^{-x_1x_2} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}.$$

Let $G: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by $G(x) = (g_1(x), g_2(x), g_3(x))$ where

$$g_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{3}\cos(x_2x_3) + \frac{1}{6},$$

$$g_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{9}\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06} - 0.1,$$

$$g_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) = -\frac{1}{20}e^{-x_1x_2} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left| g_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) \right| &\leq \frac{1}{3} \left| \cos(x_2 x_3) \right| + \frac{1}{6} \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ \left| g_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{9} \sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06} - 0.1 \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{9} \sqrt{1 + \sin 1 + 1.06} - 0.1 < 0.90, \\ \left| g_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) \right| &= \frac{1}{20} e^{-x_1 x_2} + \frac{10\pi - 3}{60} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{20} e + \frac{10\pi - 3}{60} < 0.61 \end{aligned}$$

so $-1 \le g_i(x_1, x_2, x_3) \le 1$, for each i = 1, 2, 3. Thus, $G(x) \in D$ whenever $x \in D$.

Finding bounds on the partial derivatives on D gives the following:

$$\left|\frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_1}\right| = 0, \quad \left|\frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_2}\right| \le \frac{1}{3} \left|x_3\right| \left|\sin(x_2 x_3)\right| \le \frac{1}{3} \sin 1 = 0.281, \quad \left|\frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_3}\right| \le \frac{1}{3} \left|x_2\right| \left|\sin(x_2 x_3)\right| \le \frac{1}{3} \sin 1 = 0.281,$$

$$\left| \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_1} \right| = \frac{|x_1|}{9\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06}} < \frac{1}{9\sqrt{0.218}} < 0.238, \quad \left| \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_2} \right| \le 0,$$

$$\left| \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_3} \right| \le \frac{|\cos x_3|}{18\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06}} < \frac{1}{18\sqrt{0.218}} < 0.119,$$

$$\left| \frac{\partial g_3}{\partial x_1} \right| = \frac{|x_2|}{20} e^{-x_1 x_2} \le \frac{1}{20} e = 0.14, \quad \left| \frac{\partial g_3}{\partial x_2} \right| = \frac{|x_1|}{20} e^{-x_1 x_2}$$

Since the partial derivatives are bounded on D, the above Theorem implies that these functions are continuous on D. Consequently, G is continuous on D. Moreover, for every $x \in D$

$$\left| \frac{\partial g_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} \right| \le 0.281$$
 for each $i = 1, 2, 3$ and $j = 1, 2, 3$, and the condition in the second part of

Theorem 9.7 holds for K = 0.843. It can be shown that $\partial g_i(x)/\partial x_j$ for each i = 1, 2, 3 and j = 1, 2, 3 is continuous on D. Consequently, G has a unique fixed point on D and the nonlinear system has a solution in D.

Example 3

$$3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

$$x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06 = 0$$

$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0$$

Solution

If the i^{th} equation is solved for x_i , the system can be changed into the fixed point problem as

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{3}\cos(x_2x_3) + \frac{1}{6},$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{9}\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06} - 0.1,$$

$$x_3 = -\frac{1}{20}e^{-x_1x_2} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}.$$

and write the iterative process as

$$\begin{aligned} x_1^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{3} \cos \left(x_2^{(k-1)} x_3^{(k-1)} \right) + \frac{1}{6}, \\ x_2^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{9} \sqrt{\left(x_1^{(k-1)} \right)^2 + \sin x_3^{(k-1)} + 1.06} - 0.1, \\ x_3^{(k)} &= -\frac{1}{20} e^{-x_1^{(k-1)} x_2^{(k-1)}} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\left\| \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} \right\|_{\mathcal{D}} < 10^{-5}$$

\overline{k}	$\mathcal{X}_{1}^{(k)}$	$\mathcal{X}_{1}^{(k)}$	$\mathcal{X}_{1}^{(k)}$	$\left\ \mathbf{X}^{(k)} - \mathbf{X}^{(k-1)}\right\ _{\infty}$
0	0.10000000	0.10000000	-0.10000000	
1	0.49998333	0.00944115	-0.52310127	0.423
2	0.49999593	0.00002557	-0.52336331	9.4×10^{-3}
3	0.50000000	0.00001234	-0.52359814	2.3×10^{-4}
4	0.50000000	0.00000003	-0.52359847	1.2×10^{-5}
5	0.50000000	0.00000002	-0.52359877	3.1×10^{-7}

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| x^{(5)} - p \right\|_{\infty} \le \frac{(0.843)^5}{1 - 0.843} 0.423 < 1.15 \\ & x^{(3)} = \left(0.500000000, 1.234 \times 10^{-5}, -0.52359814 \right) \\ & \left\| x^{(5)} - p \right\|_{\infty} \le \frac{(0.843)^5}{1 - 0.843} (1.20 \times 10^{-5}) < 5.5 \times 10^{-5} \\ & p = \left(0.5, 0, -\frac{\pi}{6} \right) \approx \left(0.5, 0, -0.5235987757 \right) \\ & \left\| x^{(5)} - p \right\|_{\infty} \le 2 \times 10^{-8} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{split} x_1^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{3} \cos \left(x_2^{(k-1)} x_3^{(k-1)} \right) + \frac{1}{6} \,, \\ x_2^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{9} \sqrt{\left(x_1^{(k)} \right)^2 + \sin x_3^{(k-1)} + 1.06} - 0.1, \\ x_3^{(k)} &= -\frac{1}{20} e^{-x_1^{(k)} x_2^{(k)}} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60} \,. \end{split}$$

\overline{k}	$x_1^{(k)}$	$\mathcal{X}_{l}^{(k)}$	$\mathcal{X}_1^{(k)}$	$\left\ \mathbf{X}^{(k)} - \mathbf{X}^{(k-1)}\right\ _{\infty}$
0	0.10000000	0.10000000	-0.10000000	
1	0.49998333	0.02222979	-0.52304613	0.423
2	0.49997747	0.00002815	-0.52359807	2.2×10^{-2}
3	0.50000000	0.00000004	-0.52359877	2.8×10^{-5}
4	0.50000000	0.00000000	-0.52359877	3.8×10^{-8}

1-3.2 Newton's Method

In order to construct an algorithm that led to an appropriate fixed-point method

$$A(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{12}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & a_{1n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ a_{21}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{22}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & a_{2n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{n2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & a_{nn}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

where each of the entries $a_{ij}(x)$ is a function from $R^n \to R$. The procedure requires that A(x) be found so that $G(x) = x - A(x)^{-1}F(x)$ gives quadratic convergence to the solution F(x) = 0, provided that A(x) is non-singular at the fixed point.

Theorem

Suppose p is a solution of G(x) = x for some function $G = (g_1, g_2, ..., g_n)$, mapping R^n into R^n . If a number $\delta > 0$ exists with the property that

- i) $\partial g_i/\partial x_j$ is continuous on $N_{\delta} = \{x : ||x-p|| < \delta\}$ for each i = 1, 2, ..., n and j = 1, 2, ..., n,
- ii) $\partial^2 g_i(\mathbf{x})/\partial x_j \partial x_k$ is continuous, and $\|\partial^2 g_i(\mathbf{x})/\partial x_j \partial x_k\| \le M$ for some constant M whenever $\mathbf{x} \in N_\delta$ for each i = 1, 2, ..., n, j = 1, 2, ..., n and k = 1, 2, ..., n,
- iii) $\partial g_i(\mathbf{p})/\partial x_j = 0$ for each i = 1, 2, ..., n and j = 1, 2, ..., n, then the sequence generated by $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = G\left(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}\right)$ converges quadratically to \mathbf{p} for any choice of $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in N_\delta$ and $\left\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \mathbf{p}\right\|_\infty \leq \frac{n^2 M}{2} \left\|\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} \mathbf{p}\right\|_\infty^2$ for each $k \geq 1$

Since $G(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} - A(\mathbf{x})^{-1} F(\mathbf{x}), \ g_i(\mathbf{x}) = x_i - \sum_{j=1}^n b_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) f_j(\mathbf{x});$

So
$$\frac{\partial g_{i}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{k}} = \begin{cases} 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(b_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial b_{ij}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{x}) f_{j}(\mathbf{x}) \right), & \text{if } i = k, \\ -\sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(b_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial b_{ij}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{x}) f_{j}(\mathbf{x}) \right), & \text{if } i \neq k. \end{cases}$$

$$0 = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{ij}(\mathbf{p}) \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{p})$$

so
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{ij}(\mathbf{p}) \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{p}) = 1$$

$$0 = -\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{ij}(\mathbf{p}) \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{p})$$

So
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ij}(\mathbf{p}) \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}(\mathbf{p}) = 0$$

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A(p)^{-1}J(p) = I$$

so
$$J(p) = A(p)$$

 $G(x) = x - J(x)^{-1} F(x)$
 $x^{(k)} = G(x^{(k-1)}) = x^{(k-1)} - J(x^{(k-1)})^{-1} F(x^{(k-1)})$

Example 1

Solve the nonlinear system

$$3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

$$x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06 = 0$$

$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0$$

Solution

The Jacobian matrix for the system is given by

$$J(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & x_3 \sin x_2 x_3 & x_2 \sin x_2 x_3 \\ 2x_1 & -162(x_2 + 0.1) & \cos x_3 \\ -x_2 e^{-x_1 x_2} & -x_1 e^{-x_1 x_2} & 20 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1^{(k)} \\ x_2^{(k)} \\ x_3^{(k)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^{(k-1)} \\ x_2^{(k-1)} \\ x_3^{(k-1)} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} h_1^{(k-1)} \\ h_2^{(k-1)} \\ h_3^{(k-1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$\begin{pmatrix} h_1^{(k-1)} \\ h_2^{(k-1)} \\ h_3^{(k-1)} \end{pmatrix} = - \left[J\left(x_1^{(k-1)}, x_2^{(k-1)}, x_3^{(k-1)}\right) \right]^{-1} F\left(x_1^{(k-1)}, x_2^{(k-1)}, x_3^{(k-1)}\right).$$

Thus, at the k^{th} step, the linear system

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & x_3^{(k-1)} \sin x_2^{(k-1)} x_3^{(k-1)} & x_2 \sin x_2^{(k-1)} x_3^{(k-1)} \\ 2x_1^{(k-1)} & -162(x_2^{(k-1)} + 0.1) & \cos x_3^{(k-1)} \\ -x_2^{(k-1)} e^{-x_1^{(k-1)} x_2^{(k-1)}} & -x_1^{(k-1)} e^{-x_1^{(k-1)} x_2^{(k-1)}} & 20 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_1^{(k-1)} \\ h_2^{(k-1)} \\ h_3^{(k-1)} \end{pmatrix}$$
 which is equal to
$$\begin{pmatrix} 3x_1^{(k-1)} - \cos(x_2^{(k-1)} x_3^{(k-1)}) - \frac{1}{2} \\ \left(x_1^{(k-1)}\right)^2 - 81(x_2^{(k-1)} + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3^{(k-1)} + 1.06 \\ e^{-x_1^{(k-1)} x_2^{(k-1)}} + 20x_3^{(k-1)} + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

must be solved. The results obtained using the above iterative procedure is as shown below

k	$X_1^{(k)}$	$\mathcal{X}_{1}^{(k)}$	$\mathcal{X}_{1}^{(k)}$	$\left\ \mathbf{X}^{(k)} - \mathbf{X}^{(k-1)}\right\ _{\infty}$
0	0.10000000	0.10000000	-0.10000000	
1	0.50003702	0.01946686	-0.52152047	0.422
2	0.50004593	0.00158859	-0.52355711	1.79×10^{-2}
3	0.50000034	0.00001244	-0.52359845	1.58×10^{-3}
4	0.50000000	0.00000000	-0.52359877	1.24×10^{-5}
5	0.50000000	0.00000000	-0.52359877	0

$$p = (0.5, 0, -\frac{\pi}{6}) \approx (0.5, 0, -0.5235987757)$$

Examples

1. The nonlinear system
$$\underline{F}(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} x^2 - 10x + y^2 + 8 \\ xy^2 + x - 10y + 8 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
 can be transformed into the fixed point problem $G(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x^2 + y^2 + 8}{10} \\ \frac{xy^2 + x + 8}{10} \end{bmatrix}$

- (a) Starting with the initial estimates $x_0 = y_0 = 0$, apply functional iteration to G to approximate the solution to an accuracy of 10^{-5} .
- (b) Does Gauss-Seidel Method accelerate convergence?

Solution

(a)

<u>i</u>	Х	у	g1(x,y)	g2(x,y)	Tol
0	0	0	0.8	0.8	
1	0.8	0.8	0.928	0.9312	0.8
2	0.928	0.9312	0.972832	0.97327	0.1312
3	0.972832	0.97327	0.989366	0.989435	0.044832
4	0.989366	0.989435	0.995783	0.995794	0.016534
5	0.995783	0.995794	0.998319	0.998321	0.006417
6	0.998319	0.998321	0.999328	0.999329	0.002536
7	0.999328	0.999329	0.999732	0.999732	0.00101
8	0.999732	0.999732	0.999893	0.999893	0.000403
9	0.999893	0.999893	0.999957	0.999957	0.000161
10	0.999957	0.999957	0.999983	0.999983	6.44E-05
11	0.999983	0.999983	0.999993	0.999993	2.58E-05
12	0.999993	0.999993	0.999997	0.999997	1.03E-05
13	0.999997	0.999997	0.999999	0.999999	4.12E-06
14	0.999999	0.999999	1	1	1.65E-06

(b)

i	X	У	g1(x,y)	g2(x,y)	Tol
0	0	0	0.8	0.88	
1	0.8	0.88	0.94144	0.967049	0.88
2	0.94144	0.967049	0.982149	0.990064	0.14144
3	0.982149	0.990064	0.994484	0.99693	0.040709
4	0.994484	0.99693	0.998287	0.999045	0.012335
5	0.998287	0.999045	0.999467	0.999703	0.003803
6	0.999467	0.999703	0.999834	0.999907	0.00118
7	0.999834	0.999907	0.999948	0.999971	0.000367
8	0.999948	0.999971	0.999984	0.999991	0.000114
9	0.999984	0.999991	0.999995	0.999997	3.56E-05
10	0.999995	0.999997	0.999998	0.999999	1.11E-05
11	0.999998	0.999999	1	1	3.46E-06

(c) From (a) and (b) it is seen that Gauss-Seidel Method accelerate convergence.

2. Convert the nonlinear system

$$3x - \cos(yz) - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$
$$x^{2} - 81\left(y + \frac{1}{10}\right)^{2} + \sin z + 1.06 = 0$$
$$e^{-xy} + 20z + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0$$

to a fixed point problem and use both functional iteration and the Gauss-Seidel variant of functional iteration to approximate the root to within 10^{-5} in the l_{∞} norm, starting the initial estimate $x_0 = y_0 = 0.1$ and $z_0 = -0.1$. [Note the exact root is $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0, -\frac{\pi}{6}\right)^T$]

Solution

$$x = \frac{\cos(yz) + \frac{1}{2}}{3}$$
, $y = \sqrt{\frac{x^2 + \sin z + 1.06}{81} - \frac{1}{10}}$, $z = \frac{-e^{-xy} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{3}}{20}$

For k = 1, 2, ..., the functional iteration and the Gauss-Seidel variant of functional iteration are given as

$$x^{(k)} = \frac{\cos(y^{(k-1)}z^{(k-1)}) + \frac{1}{2}}{3}$$

$$y^{(k)} = \sqrt{\frac{(x^{(k-1)})^2 + \sin z^{(k-1)} + 1.06}{81}} - \frac{1}{10} \quad \text{and} \quad y^{(k)} = \sqrt{\frac{(x^{(k)})^2 + \sin z^{(k-1)} + 1.06}{81}} - \frac{1}{10}$$

$$z^{(k)} = \frac{-e^{-x^{(k-1)}y^{(k-1)}} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{3}}{20}$$

$$z^{(k)} = \frac{-e^{-x^{(k)}y^{(k)}} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{3}}{20}$$

respectively for the above fixed point problem.

Using the functional iteration we have the following table:

i	Х	у	Z	g1(x,y,z)	g2(x,y,z)	g3(x,y,z)	Tol
0	0.1	0.1	-0.1	0.499983	0.009441	-0.5231013	
1	0.499983	0.009441	-0.523101	0.499996	2.56E-05	-0.5233633	0.399983
2	0.499996	2.56E-05	-0.523363	0.5	1.23E-05	-0.5235981	0.009154
3	0.5	1.23E-05	-0.523598	0.5	3.42E-08	-0.5235985	4.07E-06
4	0.5	3.42E-08	-0.523598	0.5	1.65E-08	-0.5235988	1.2E-05
5	0.5	1.65E-08	-0.523599	0.5	4.57E-11	-0.5235988	6.95E-12
6	0.5	4.57E-11	-0.523599	0.5	2.2E-11	-0.5235988	1.6E-08
7	0.5	2.2E-11	-0.523599	0.5	6.1E-14	-0.5235988	0
8	0.5	6.1E-14	-0.523599	0.5	2.94E-14	-0.5235988	2.14E-11
9	0.5	2.94E-14	-0.523599	0.5	0	-0.5235988	0
10	0.5	0	-0.523599	0.5	0	-0.5235988	2.87E-14

Using the Gauss-Seidel variant of functional iteration we have the following table:

i	X	У	Z	g1(x,y,z)	g2(x,y,z)	g3(x,y,z)	Tol
0	0.1	0.1	-0.1	0.499983	0.02223	-0.5230461	
1	0.499983	0.02223	-0.523046	0.499977	2.82E-05	-0.5235981	0.399983
2	0.499977	2.82E-05	-0.523598	0.5	3.76E-08	-0.5235988	0.02165
3	0.5	3.76E-08	-0.523599	0.5	5.03E-11	-0.5235988	2.74E-05
4	0.5	5.03E-11	-0.523599	0.5	6.72E-14	-0.5235988	3.66E-08
5	0.5	6.72E-14	-0.523599	0.5	0	-0.5235988	4.9E-11
6	0.5	0	-0.523599	0.5	0	-0.5235988	6.55E-14

- 3. Starting with the initial guess $x_0 = y_0 = 1.0$, use fixed point (functional iteration to approximate the solution to the system $2x^2 + y^2 = 4.32$, $x^2 y^2 = 0$ by performing 5 iterations.
- 4. Consider the nonlinear system

$$2x + xy - 1 = 0$$

$$2y - xy + 1 = 0$$

which has a unique root $x = (1,-1)^T$. Starting with the initial estimate $x_0 = y_0 = 0$, compare the methods of functional iteration, Gauss-Seidel Newton when approximating the root of this system (perform 5 iterations in each case).

5. Use Newton's Method to approximate the solution of the nonlinear system

$$x^{2} - 2x - y + \frac{1}{2} = 0$$
$$x^{2} + 4y^{2} - 4 = 0$$

starting with the initial estimate $(x_0, y_0) = (2, \frac{1}{4})$ and computing 3 iterations.

Solution

Using the Newton's iterative method $x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - J^{-1}(x^{(k-1)})F(x^{(k-1)})$, for k = 1,... with $x^{(0)} = (x_0, y_0) = (2, \frac{1}{4})$, we have

$$x^{(1)} = x^{(0)} - J^{-1}(x^{(0)})F(x^{(0)}) = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\0.25 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 2\\4\\2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0.25\\0.25 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2\\0.25 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{8} \begin{pmatrix} 2\\-4\\2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.25\\0.25 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\0.25 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{8} \begin{pmatrix} 0.75\\-0.50 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.90625\\0.3125 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x^{(2)} = x^{(1)} - J^{-1}(x^{(1)})F(x^{(1)}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1.90625 \\ 0.3125 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1.8125 & -1 \\ 3.8125 & 2.5 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0.00879 \\ -1.70312 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1.90625 \\ 0.3125 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{8.34375} \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 & 1 \\ -3.8125 & 1.8125 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.00879 \\ -1.70312 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.10773 \\ 0.68232 \end{pmatrix}$$

- 6. Use Newton's Method to approximate the two solutions of the nonlinear system $ye^x = 2$, $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ by computing 2 iterations for each of the given initial estimates
 - (a) $(x_0, y_0) = (-0.6, +3.7)$
 - (b) $(x_0, y_0) = (+1.9, +0.4)$
- 7. Use Newton's Method to approximate the solution of the nonlinear system

$$x^{2} + y^{2} + 0.6y - 0.16 = 0$$

 $x^{2} - y^{2} + x - 1.6y = 0$

by computing 3 iterations with the initial estimate of $(x_0, y_0) = (0.6, 0.25)$.

Using the more accurate initial estimate of $(x_0, y_0) = (0.3, 0.1)$, repeat the process using the modified Newton's method whereby the Jacobian is evaluated and held constant for subsequent iterations. Compare the two results.

8. Use the modified Newton's method (i.e., by evaluating the Jacobian and keeping at a constant value throughout) to find the root of the system $e^x + y = 0$, $\cosh(y) - x = \frac{7}{2}$ starting with the initial estimate x = -2.4, y = -0.1 computing two iterations.

PART II

2 Interpolation

2.1 Problem Statement and Applications

Consider the following table:

x_0	f_0	
x_1	f_1	
x_2	f_2	
:	:	
x_k	f_k	
:	:	
x_n	f_n	

In the above table, $f_k, k = 0, \dots, n$ are assumed to be the values of a certain function f(x), evaluated at $x_k, k = 0, \dots, n$ in an interval containing these points. Note that only the functional values are known, not the function f(x) itself. The problem is to find f_u corresponding to a nontabulated intermediate value x = u.

Such a problem is called an **Interpolation Problem**. The numbers x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are called the **nodes**.

Interpolation Problem

Given (n+1) points: $(x_0, f_0), (x_1, f_1), \dots (x_n, f_n)$, find f_u corresponding to x_u , where $x_0 < x_u < x_n$; assuming that f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n are the values of a certain function f(x) at $x = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$, respectively.

The Interpolation problem is also a classical problem and dates back to the time of **Newton** and **Kepler**, who needed to solve such a problem in analyzing data on the positions of stars and planets. It is also of interest in numerous other practical applications. Here is an example.

2.2 Existence and Uniqueness

It is well-known that a continuous function f(x) on [a, b] can be approximated as close as possible by means of a polynomial. Specifically, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a polynomial P(x) such that $|f(x) - P(x)| < \epsilon$ for all x in [a, b]. This is a classical result, known as Weierstrass Approximation Theorem.

Knowing that $f_k, k = 0, \dots, n$ are the values of a certain function at x_k , the most obvious thing then to do is to construct a polynomial $P_n(x)$ of degree at most n that passes through the (n + 1) points: $(x_0, f_0), (x_1, f_1), \dots, (x_n, f_n)$.

Indeed, if the nodes $x_0, x_1, ..., x_n$ are assumed to be distinct, then such a polynomial always does exist and is unique, as can be seen from the following.

Let $P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$ be a polynomial of degree at most n. If $P_n(x)$ interpolates at x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n , we must have, by definition

$$P_{n}(x_{0}) = f_{0} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{0} + a_{2}x_{0}^{2} + \dots + a_{n}x_{0}^{n}$$

$$P_{n}(x_{1}) = f_{1} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{1} + a_{2}x_{1}^{2} + \dots + a_{n}x_{1}^{n}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$P_{n}(x_{n}) = f_{n} = a_{0} + a_{1}x_{n} + a_{2}x_{n}^{2} + \dots + a_{n}x_{2}^{n}$$

$$(2.1)$$

These equations can be written in matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 \cdots x_0^n \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \cdots x_1^n \\ \vdots & & & \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 \cdots x_n^n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_0 \\ f_1 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Because x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are distinct, it can be shown [**Exercise**] that the matrix of the above system is nonsingular. Thus, the linear system for the unknowns a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n has a unique solution, in view of the following well-known result, available in any linear algebra text book.

The $n \times n$ algebraic linear system Ax = b has a unique solution for every b if and only if A is nonsingular.

This means that $P_n(x)$ exists and is unique.

Theorem 2.1 (Existence and Uniqueness Theorem for Polynomial Interpolation)

Given (n+1) distinct points x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n and the associated

values f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n of a function f(x) at these points (that is,

 $f(x_i) = f_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, n)$, there is a unique polynomial

 $P_n(x)$ of degree at most n such that $P_n(x_i) = f_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

The polynomial $P_n(x)$ in Theorem 3.1 is called the **interpolating polynomial**.

2.3 The Lagrange Interpolation

Once we know that the interpolating polynomial exists and is unique, the problem then becomes how to construct an interpolating polynomial; that is, how to construct a polynomial $P_n(x)$ of degree at most n, such that

$$P_n(x_i) = f_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

It is natural to obtain the polynomial by solving the linear system (3.1) in the previous section. Unfortunately, the matrix of this linear system, known as the **Vandermonde Matrix**, is usually **highly ill-conditioned**, and the **solution of such an ill-conditioned system**, **even by the use of a stable method**, **may not be accurate.** There are, however, several other ways to construct such a polynomial, that do not require solution of a Vandermonde system. We describe one such in the following:

Suppose n = 1, that is, suppose that we have only two points (x_0, f_0) , (x_1, f_1) , then it is easy to see that the linear polynomial

$$P_1(x) = \frac{x - x_1}{(x_0 - x_1)} f_0 + \frac{(x - x_0)}{(x_1 - x_0)} f_1$$

is an interpolating polynomial, because

$$P_1(x_0) = f_0, P_1(x_1) = f_1.$$

For convenience, we shall write the polynomial $P_1(x)$ in the form

$$P_1(x) = L_0(x)f_0 + L_1(x)f_1$$

where,
$$L_1(x) = \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$
, and $L_1(x) = \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}$.

Note that both the polynomials $L_0(x)$ and $L_1(x)$ are polynomials of degree 1.

The concept can be generalized easily for polynomials of higher degrees.

To generate polynomials of higher degrees, let's define the set of polynomials $\{L_k(x)\}$ recursively, as follows:

$$L_k(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_{k-1})(x - x_{k+1}) \cdots (x - x_n)}{(x_k - x_0)(x_k - x_1) \cdots (x_k - x_{k-1})(x_k - x_{k+1}) \cdots (x_k - x_n)}, \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n.$$
 (2.2)

We will now show that the polynomial $P_n(x)$ defined by

$$P_n(x) = L_0(x)f_0 + L_1(x)f_1 + \dots + L_n(x)f_n$$
(2.3)

is an interpolating polynomial.

To see this, note that

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x-x_1)\cdots(x-x_n)}{(x_0-x_1)\cdots(x_0-x_n)}$$

$$L_1(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)\cdots(x-x_n)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)\cdots(x_1-x_n)}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$L_n(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)\cdots(x-x_{n-1})}{(x_n-x_0)(x_n-x_1)(x_n-x_2)\cdots(x_n-x_{n-1})}$$

Also, note that

$$L_0(x_0) = 1, \ L_0(x_1) = L_0(x_2) = \dots = L_0(x_n) = 0$$

$$L_1(x_1) = 1$$
, $L_1(x_0) = L_1(x_2) = \cdots = L_n(x_n) = 0$

In general

$$L_k(x_k) = 1$$
 and $L_k(x_i) = 0$, $i \neq k$.

Thus

$$P_n(x_0) = L_0(x_0)f_0 + L_1(x_0)f_1 + \dots + L_n(x_0)f_n = f_0$$

$$P_n(x_1) = L_0(x_1)f_0 + L_1(x_1)f_1 + \dots + L_n(x_1)f_n = 0 + f_1 + \dots + 0 = f_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$P_n(x_n) = L_0(x_n)f_0 + L_1(x_n)f_1 + \dots + L_n(x_n)f_n = 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 + f_n = f_n$$

That is, the polynomial $P_n(x)$ has the property that $P_n(x_k) = f_k, \ k = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

The polynomial $P_n(x)$ defined by (3.3) is known as the **Lagrange Interpolating Polynomial**.

Example 2.1 Interpolate f(x) from the following table:

$$\begin{array}{c|cc}
0 & 7 \\
\hline
1 & 13 \\
2 & 21 \\
\hline
4 & 43
\end{array}$$

and find and approximation to f(3).

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x-1)(x-2)(x-4)}{(-1)(-2)(-4)}$$

$$L_1(x) = \frac{(x-0)(x-2)(x-4)}{1 \cdot (-1)(-3)}$$

$$L_2(x) = \frac{(x-0)(x-1)(x-4)}{2 \cdot 1 \cdot (-2)}$$

$$L_3(x) = \frac{(x-0)(x-1)(x-2)}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2}$$

$$P_3(x) = 7L_0(x) + 13L_1(x) + 21L_2(x) + 43L_3(x)$$

Thus,
$$P_3(3) = 7L_0(3) + 13L_1(3) + 21L_2(3) + 43L_3(3) = 31$$
.

Now,
$$L_0(3) = \frac{1}{4}$$
, $L_1(3) = -1$, $L_2(3) = \frac{3}{2}$, $L_3(3) = \frac{1}{4}$.

So,
$$P_3(3) = 7L_0(3) + 13L_1(3) + 21L_2(3) + 43L_3(3) = 31$$
.

Verify: Note that f(x) in this case is $f(x) = x^2 + 5x + 7$, and the exact value of f(x) at x = 3 is 31.

Example 2.2 Given

i	x_i	$f(x_i)$
0	2	$\frac{1}{2}$
1	2.5	$\frac{1}{2.5}$
2	4	$\frac{1}{4}$

We want to find f(3).

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} = \frac{(x - 2.5)(x - 4)}{(-0.5)(-2)} = (x - 2.5)(x - 4)$$

$$L_1(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} = \frac{(x - 2)(x - 4)}{(0.5)(-1.5)} = -\frac{1}{0.75}(x - 2)(x - 4)$$

$$L_2(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_0)}{(x_2 - x_1)(x_2 - x_0)} = \frac{1}{3}(x - 2.5)(x - 2)$$

$$P_2(x) = f(x_0)L_0(x) + f(x_1)L_1(x) + f(x_2)L_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}L_0(x) + \frac{1}{2.5}L_1(x) + \frac{1}{4}L_2(x)$$

$$P_2(3) = \frac{1}{2}L_0(3) + \frac{1}{2.5}L_1(3) + \frac{1}{4}L_2(3) = \frac{1}{2}(-0.5) + \frac{1}{2.5}\left(\frac{1}{0.75}\right) + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{.5}{3}\right) = 0.3250$$

$$F(x) = f(x_0)L_0(x) + f(x_0)L_0(x) + \frac{1}{2.5}L_1(3) + \frac{1}{4}L_2(3) = \frac{1}{2}(-0.5) + \frac{1}{2.5}\left(\frac{1}{0.75}\right) + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{.5}{3}\right) = 0.3250$$

Verify: (The value of f(x) at x = 3 is $\frac{1}{3} = 0.3333$).

2.4 Error in Interpolation

If f(x) is approximated by an interpolating polynomial $P_n(x)$, we would like to obtain an expression for the error of interpolation at a give intermediate point, say, \bar{x} .

That is, we would like to calculate $E(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})$.

Note that, since $P_n(x_i) = f(x_i)$, $E(x_i) = 0$, $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$, that is, there are no errors of interpolating at a tabulated point.

Here is a result for the expression of $E(\bar{x})$.

Theorem 2.2 (Interpolation-Error Theorem) Let $P_n(x)$ be the interpolating polynomial that interpolates at (n+1) distinct numbers in [a,b], and let f(x) be (n+1) times continuously differentiable on [a,b].

Then for every \bar{x} in [a,b], there exists a number $\xi = \xi(\bar{x})$ (depending on \bar{x}) such that

$$E_n(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x}) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi(\bar{x}))}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^n (\bar{x} - x_i).$$
 (2.4)

Proof: If \bar{x} is one of the numbers x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n : then the result follows trivially. Because, the error in this case is zero, and the result will hold for any arbitrary ξ .

Next, assume that \bar{x} is not one of the numbers x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n .

Define a function g(t) in variable t in [a, b]:

$$g(t) = f(t) - P_n(t) - [f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})] * \left[\frac{(t - x_0)(t - x_1) \cdots (t - x_n)}{(\bar{x} - x_0)(\bar{x} - x_1) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)} \right].$$
 (2.5)

Then, noting that $f(x_k) = P_n(x)$, for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$, we have

$$g(x_k) = f(x_k) - P_n(x_k) - [f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})] \left[\frac{(x_k - x_0) \cdots (x_k - x_n)}{(\bar{x} - x_0) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)} \right]$$

$$= P_n(x_k) - P_n(x_k) - [f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})] \times 0$$

$$= 0$$
(2.6)

(Note that the numerator of the fraction appearing above contains the term $(x_k - x_k) = 0$).

Furthermore,

$$g(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x}) - [f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})] * \left[\frac{(\bar{x} - x_0) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)}{(\bar{x} - x_0) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)} \right]$$

$$= f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x}) - f(\bar{x}) + P_n(\bar{x})$$

$$= 0$$
(2.7)

Thus, g(t) becomes identically zero at (n+2) distinct points: x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n , and \bar{x} . Furthermore, g(t) is (n+1) times continuously differentiable, since f(x) is so.

Therefore, by **generalized Rolle's theorem**, [], there exists a number $\xi(\bar{x})$ in (a, b) such that $g^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$.

Let's compute $g^{(n+1)}(t)$ now. ¿From (2.5) we have

$$g^{(n+1)}(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t) - P_n^{(n+1)}(t) - [f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})] \frac{d^{n+1}}{d^{n+1}} \left[\frac{(t-x_0)(t-x_1)\cdots(t-x_n)}{((\bar{x}-x_0)(\bar{x}-x_1)\cdots(\bar{x}x_n))} \right]$$

Then

$$\frac{d^{n+1}}{dt^{n+1}} \quad \left[\frac{(t-x_0)(t-x_1)\cdots(t-x_n)}{(\bar{x}-x_0)(\bar{x}-x_1)\cdots(\bar{x}x_n)} \right] \\
= \frac{1}{(\bar{x}-x_0)(\bar{x}-x_1)\cdots(\bar{x}-x_n)} \cdot \frac{d^{n+1}}{dt^{n+1}} [(t-x_0)(t-x_1)\cdots(t-x_n)] \\
= \frac{1}{(\bar{x}-x_0)(\bar{x}-x_1)\cdots(\bar{x}-x_n)} (n+1)!$$

(note that the expression within [] is a polynomial of degree n+1).

Also, $P_n^{(n+1)}(t) = 0$, because P_n is a polynomial of degree at most n. Thus, $P_n^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$.

So,

$$g^{(n+1)}(\xi) = f^{(n+1)}(\xi) - \frac{(f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x}))}{(\bar{x} - x_0) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)} (n+1)!$$
 (2.8)

Since
$$g^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$$
, from (2.8), we have $E_n(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x}) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}(\bar{x} - x_0) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)$.

Remark: To obtain the error of interpolation using the above theorem, we need to know the (n + 1)th derivative of the f(x) or its absolute maximum value on the interval [a, b]. Since in practice this value is hardly known, this error formula is of limited use only.

Example 2.3 Let's compute the maximum absolute error for Example 3.2.

Here n=2.

$$E_2(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}) - P_2(\bar{x})$$

$$= \frac{f^{(3)}(\xi)}{3!} (\bar{x} - x_0)(\bar{x} - x_1)(\bar{x} - x_2)$$

To know the maximum value of $E_2(\bar{x})$, we need to know $f^{(3)}(x)$.

Let's compute this now:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$
, $f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$, $f''(x)\frac{2}{x^3}$, $f^{(3)}(x) = -\frac{6}{x^4}$.

So,
$$|f^{(3)}(\xi)| < \frac{6}{2^4} = \frac{6}{16}$$
 for $0 < x \le 2$.

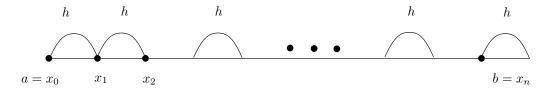
Since $\bar{x} = 3$, $x_0 = 2$, $x_1 = 2.5$, $x_2 = 4$, we have

$$|E_2(\bar{x})| \le |\frac{6}{16} \times \frac{1}{6} (3-2)(3-2.5)(3-4)| = 0.0625.$$

Note that in four-digit arithmetic, the difference between the value obtained by interpolation and the exact value is 0.3333 - 0.3250 = 0.0083.

2.5 Simplification of the Error Bound for Equidistant Nodes

The error formula in Theorem 3.2 can be simplified in case the tabulated points (nodes) are equally spaced; because, in this case it is possible to obtain a nice bound for the expression: $(\bar{x} - x_0)(\bar{x} - x_1) \cdots (\bar{x} - x_n)$. Suppose the nodes are equally spaced with spacing h; that is $x_{i+1} - x_i = h$.



Then it can be shown [Exercise] that

$$|(\bar{x}-x_0)(\bar{x}-x_1)\cdots(\bar{x}-x_n)| \le \frac{h^{n+1}}{4}n!$$

If we also assume that $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leq M$, then we have

$$|E_n(\bar{x})| = |f(\bar{x}) - P_n(\bar{x})| \le \frac{M}{(n+1)!} \frac{h^{n+1}}{4} n! = \frac{Mh^{n+1}}{4(n+1)}.$$
 (2.9)

Example 2.4 Suppose a table of values for $f(x) = \cos x$ has to be prepared in $[0, 2\pi]$ with equal spacing nodes of spacing h, using linear interpolation, with an error of interpolation of at most 5×10^{-8} . How small should h be?

Here n=1.

$$f(x) = \cos x, \ f'(x) = -\sin x, \ f^2(x) = f''(x) = -\cos x$$

$$\max |f^{(2)}(x)| = 1$$
, for $0 \le x \le 2\pi$

Thus M=1.

So, by (3.9) above we have

$$|E_1(\bar{x})| = |f(\bar{x}) - P_1(\bar{x})| \le \frac{h^2}{8}.$$

Since the maximum error has to be 5×10^{-7} , we must have:

$$\frac{h^2}{8} \le 5 \times 10^{-7} = \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-6}$$
. That is, $h \le 6.3246 \times 10^{-4}$.

Example 2.5 Suppose a table is to be prepared for the function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ on [1,2]. Determine the spaceing h in a table such that the interpolation with a polynomial of degree 2 will give accuracy $\epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-8}$.

We first compute the maximum absolute error.

Since
$$f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{3}{8}x \frac{-5}{2}$$
,

$$M = \left| f^{(3)}(x) \right| \le \frac{3}{8}$$
 for $1 \le x \le 2$.

Thus, taking n=2 in (2.9) the maximum (absolute) error is $\frac{3}{8} \times \frac{h^3}{4x^3} = \frac{1}{32}h^3$.

Thus, to have an accuracy of $\epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-8}$, we must have $\frac{1}{32}h^3 < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ or $h^3 < 160 \times 10^{-8}$.

This means that a spacing h of about $h = \sqrt[3]{160 \times 10^{-8}} = 0.0117$ will be needed in the Table to guarantee the accuracy of 5×10^{-8} .

2.6 Divided Differences and the Newton-Interpolation Formula

A major difficulty with the Lagrange Interpolation is that one is not sure about the degree of interpolating polynomial needed to achieve a certain accuracy. Thus, if the accuracy is not good enough with polynomial of a certain degree, one needs to increase the degree of polynomial, and **computations need to be started** all over again.

Furthermore, computing various Lagrangian polynomials is an expensive procedure. It is, indeed, desirable to have a formula which makes use of $P_{k-1}(x)$ in computing $P_k(x)$.

The following form of interpolation, known as **Newton's interpolation** allows us to do so.

The idea is to obtain the interpolating polynomial $P_n(x)$ in the following form:

$$P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots + a_n(x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots + (x - x_{n-1})$$
(2.10)

The constants a_0 through a_n can be determined as follows:

For
$$x = x_0$$
, $P_n(x_0) = a_0 = f_0$

For
$$x = x_1$$
, $P_n(x_1) = a_0 + a_1(x_1 - x_0) = f_1$,

which gives

$$a_1 = \frac{f_1 - a_0}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{f_1 - f_0}{x_1 - x_0}.$$

The other numbers $a_i, i = 2, ..., n$ can similarly be obtained.

It is convenient to introduce the following notation, because we will show how the numbers $a_0, ..., a_n$ can be obtained using these notations.

$$f(x_i) = f[x_i]$$
 and $f[x_i, x_{i+1}] = \frac{f[x_{i+1}] - f[x_i]}{x_{i+1} - x_i}$

Similarly,

$$f[x_i, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{i+k-1}, x_{i+k}] = \frac{f[x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}, x_{i+k}] - f[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}]}{x_{i+k} - x_i}$$

With these notations, we then have

$$a_0 = f_0 = f(x_0) = f[x_0]$$

$$a_1 = \frac{f_1 - f_0}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{f[x_1] - f[x_0]}{x_1 - x_0} = f[x_0, x_1].$$

Continuing this, it can be shown that [Exercise]

$$a_k = f[x_0, x_1, \cdots, x_k].$$
 (2.11)

The number $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k]$ is called the k-th divided difference.

Substituting these expressions of a_k in (2.11), the interpolating polynomial $P_n(x)$ now can be written in terms of the divided differences:

$$P_n(x) = f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + f[x_0, x_1, x_2](x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots + (2.12)$$

Notes:

(i) Each divided difference can be obtained from two previous ones of lower orders.

For example, $f[x_0, x_1, x_2]$ can be computed from $f[x_0, x_1]$, and $f[x_1, x_2]$, and so on. Indeed, they can be arranged in form of a table as shown below:

Table of Divided Differences (n=4)

3	c	f(x)	1^{st} Divide Difference	2^{nd} Divided Difference	3^{rd} Divided Difference
\overline{x}	0	f_0			
x	1	f_1	$f[x_0, x_1]$	$f[x_0, x_1, x_2]$	
x	2	f_2	$f[x_0, x_1]$ $f[x_1, x_2]$ $f[x_2, x_3]$		$f[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$
x	3	f_3	$f[x_2, x_3]$	$f[x_2, x_3, x_4]$	$f[x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$
x	4	f_4	$f[x_3, x_4]$		

- (ii) Note that in computing $P_n(x)$ we need only the diagonal entries of the above table; that is, we need only $f[x_0], f[x_0, x_1], \dots, f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$.
- (iii) Since the divided differences are generated recursively, the interpolating polynomials of successively higher degrees can also be generated recursively. Thus the work done previously can be used gainfully.

For example,

$$P_1(x) = f[x_0] + f[x_1, x_0](x - x_0)$$

$$P_2(x) = f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + f[x_0, x_1, x_2](x - x_0)(x - x_1)$$

$$= P_1(x) + f[x_0, x_1, x_2](x - x_0)(x - x_1).$$

Similarly,
$$P_3(x) = P_2(x) + f[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3](x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_2)$$

$$P_4(x) = P_3(x) + f[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4](x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x - x_3)$$

and so on.

Thus, in computing $P_2(x)$, $P_1(x)$ has been gainfully used; in computing $P_3(x)$, $P_2(x)$ has been gainfully used, etc.

Example 2.6 Interpolate at x = 2.5 using the following Table, with polynomials of degree 3 and 4.

n	x	f	1st diff.	2nd diff.	3rd diff.	4th diff	5th diff
0	1.0	0	0.35218	-0.1023	.0265533	006408	.001412
1	1.5	0.17609	0.24988	-0.0491933	.0105333	002172	
2	2.0	0.30103	0.17609	-0.0281267	.0051033		
3	3.0	0.47712	0.1339	-0.01792			
4	3.5	0.54407	0.11598				
5	4.0	0.60206					

From (2.12), with n = 3, we have

$$P_3(2.5) = 0 + (2.5 - 1.0)(.35218) + (2.5 - 1.0)(2.5 - 1.5)(-.1023) + (2.5 - 1.0)(2.5 - 1.5)(2.5 - 2.0)(.0265533)$$
$$= .52827 - .15345 + .019915$$
$$= \boxed{0.394735}$$

Similarly, with n = 4, we have

$$P_4(2.5) = P_3(2.5) + (2.5 - 1.0)(2.5 - 1.5)(2.5 - 2.0)(2.5 - 3.0)(-.006408)$$

= .394735 + .002403 = $\boxed{0.397138}$.

Note that $P_4(2.5) - P_3(2.5) = \boxed{0.002403}$

Verification. The above is a table for $\log(x)$.

The exact value of log(2.5) (correct up to 5 decimal places) is 0.39794.

(Note that in computing $P_4(2.5)$, $P_3(2.5)$ computed previously has been gainfully used).

Algorithm 2.1 Algorithm for Generating Divided Differences

Inputs:

The definite numbers x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n and the values f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n .

Outputs:

The Divided Differenced $D_{00}, D_{11}, \cdots D_{nn}$.

Step 1: (Initialization). Set

$$d_{i,0} = 0 = f_i, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

For
$$i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$
 do

$$i = 1, 2, \dots i$$
 do

$$D_{ij} - \frac{D_{i,j-1} - D_{i-1,j-1}}{x_i - x_{i-j}}$$

End

A Relationship Between nth Divided Difference and the n^{th} Derivative

The following theorem shows how the nth derivative of a function f(x) is related to the nth divided difference. The proof is omitted. It can be found in any advanced numerical analysis text book (e.g., Atkins on (1978), p. 144).

Theorem 2.3 Suppose f is n times continuously differentiable and x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are (n+1) distinct numbers in [a,b]. Then there exists a number ξ in (a,b) such that $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!}$

The Newton Interpolation with Equally Spaced Nodes

Suppose again that x_0, \dots, x_n are equally spaced with spacing h;

that is
$$x_{i+1} - x_i = h$$
, $i = 0, 1, 2, ..., n - 1$. Let $x - x_0 = sh$.

Then $x - x_0 = sh$

$$x - x_1 = x - x_0 + x_0 - x_1 = (x - x_0) - (x_1 - x_0) = sh - h = (s - 1)h$$

In general, $x - x_i = (s - i)h$.

So,

$$P_{n}(x) = P_{n}(x_{0} + sh) = f[x_{0}] + f[x_{0}, x_{1}](x - x_{0}) + \dots + f[x_{0}, x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}](x - x_{0}) \cdots (x - x_{n-1})$$

$$= f[x_{0}] + sh f[x_{0}, x_{1}] + s(s - 1)h^{2}f[x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}] + \dots + s(s - 1) \cdots (s - h + 1)h^{n}f[x_{0}, \dots, x_{h}]$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} s(s - 1) \cdots (s - k + 1)h^{k}f[x_{0}, \dots, x_{k}].$$

$$(2.13)$$

Invoke now the notation:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} s \\ k \end{array}\right) = \frac{(s)(s-1)\cdots(s-k+1)}{k!}$$

We can then write

$$P_n(x) = P_n(x_0 + sh) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{s}{k} h^k k! f[x_0, \dots, x_n]$$
 (2.14)

The Newton Forward-Difference Formula

Let's introduce the notations:

$$\Delta f_i = f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i).$$

Then,
$$\Delta f_0 = f(x_1) - f(x_0)$$

So,

$$f[x_0, x_1] = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{\Delta f_0}{h}.$$
(2.15)

Also, note that

$$\Delta^{2} f_{0} = \Delta(\Delta f_{0}) = \Delta(f(x_{1}) - f(x_{0}))
= \Delta f(x_{1}) - \Delta f(x_{0})
= f(x_{2}) - f(x_{1}) - f(x_{1}) + f(x_{0})
= f(x_{2}) - 2f(x_{1}) + f(x_{0})$$
(2.16)

So,

$$f[x_0, x_1, x_2] = \frac{f[x_1, x_2] - f[x_0, x_1]}{(x_2 - x_0)}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} - \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}}{(x_2 - x_0)}$$

$$= \frac{f(x_2) - 2f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{h \times 2h} = \frac{\Delta^2 f_0}{2h^2}$$
(2.17)

In general, we have

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] = \frac{1}{k! h^k} \Delta^k f_0.$$
(2.18)

Proof is by induction on k.

For k = 0, the result is trivially true. We have also proved the result for k = 1, and k = 2.

Assume now that the result is true k = m. Then we need to show that the result is also true for k = m + 1.

Now,
$$f[x_0, \dots, x_{m+1}] = f[x_1, \dots, x_{m+1}] - \frac{f[x_0, \dots, x_m]}{x_{m+1} - x_0}$$

= $\frac{\left(\frac{\Delta^m f_1}{m!h^m} - \frac{\Delta^m f_0}{m!h^m}\right)}{(m+1)h} = \frac{\Delta^m (f_1 - f_0)}{m!(m+1)h^{m+1}} = \frac{\Delta^{m+1} f_0}{(m+1)!h^{m+1}}$

The numbers $\Delta^k f_i$ are called k^{th} order forward differences of f at x = i.

We now show how the interpolating polynomial $P_n(x)$ given by (2.14) can be written using forward differences.

$$P_{n}(x) = P_{n}(x_{0} + sh) = f[x_{0}] + shf[x_{0}, x_{1}] + s(s - 1)h^{2}f[x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}] + \dots + s(s - 1)\dots(s - n + 1)h^{n}f[x_{0}, x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}] = \sum_{k=0}^{n} s(s - 1)\dots(s - k + 1)h^{k}f[x_{0}, x_{1}, \dots, x_{k}] = \sum_{k=0}^{n} {s \choose k} k!h^{k}f[x_{0}, x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}] = \sum_{k=0}^{n} {s \choose k} \Delta^{k}f_{0} \text{ using (2.18)}.$$

Newton's Forward-Difference Interpolation Formula

Let $x_0, x_1, ..., x_n$ be (n+1) equidistant points with distance h; that is $x_{i+1} - x_i = h$. Then Newton's interpolating polynomial $P_n(x)$ of degree at most n, using forward-differences $\Delta^k f_0$, k = 0, 1, 2, ..., n is given by

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{s}{k} \Delta^k f_0,$$

where
$$s = \frac{x - x_0}{h}$$
.

Illustration: The Forward Difference Table with n=4

x	f(x)	Δf	$\Delta^2 f$	$\Delta^3 f$	$\Delta^4 f$
x_0	f_0				
x_1	f_1	Δf_0			
x_2	f_2	Δf_1	$\Delta^2 f_0$		
x_3	f_3	Δf_2	$\Delta^2 f_1$	$\Delta^3 f_0$	
x_4	f_4	Δf_3	$\Delta^2 f_2$	$\Delta^3 f_1$	$\Delta^3 f_0$

Example 2.7 Let $f(x) = e^x$.

x	f	Δf	$\Delta^2 f$	$\Delta^3 f$	
0	1				
1	2.7183	1.7183			
2	7.3891	4.6709	2.8817	5.2147	
3	20.0855	12.6964	8.0964	13.7199	8.5052
4	54.5982	34.5127	21.8163		

 $Let \ x = 1.5$

Then
$$s = \frac{x - x_0}{h} = \frac{1.5 - 0}{1} = 1.5$$

$$P_4(1.5) = 1.7183 \times 1 + (1.5)(1.7183) + (1.5)\frac{(1.5-1)(1.5-2)}{2} \times 2.8817 + (1.5)\frac{(1.5-1)(1.5-2)(1.5-3)}{6} \times 5.0734 = 4.0852.$$

The correct answer up to 4 decimal digits is 4.4817.

Interpolation using Newton-Backward Differences

While interpolating at some value of x near the end of the difference table, it is logical to reorder the nodes

so that the end-differences can be used in computation. The backward differences allow us to do so.

The backward differences are defined by

$$\nabla f_n = f_n - f_{n-1}, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots,$$
 and
$$\nabla^k f_n = \nabla(\nabla^{k-1} f_n), k = 2, 3, \dots$$

Thus,
$$\nabla^2 f_n = \nabla(\nabla f_n) = \nabla(f_n - f_{n-1})$$

= $f_n - f_{n-1} - (f_{n-1} - f_{n-2})$
= $f_n - 2f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$,

and so on.

The following a relationship between the backward-differences and the divided differences can be obtained.

$$f[x_{n-k}, \cdots, x_{n-1}, x_n] = \frac{1}{k!h^k} \nabla^k f_n.$$

Using these backward-differences, we can write the Newton interpolation formula as:

$$P_n(x) = f_n + s\nabla f_n + \frac{s(s+1)}{2!}\nabla^2 f_n + \dots + \frac{s(s+1)\dots(s+h-1)}{n!}\nabla^n f_n.$$

Again, using the notation
$$\binom{-s}{k} = \frac{(-s)(-s-1)\cdots(-s-k+1)}{k!}$$

we can rewrite the above formula as:

Newton's Backward-Difference Interpolations Formula

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{-s}{k} \nabla^k f_n.$$

NUMERICAL INTEGRATION

Introduction

There are two main reasons for the need to do numerical integration: analytical integration may be impossible or infeasible, or you may wish to integrate tabulated data rather than known functions. In this section we outline the main approaches to numerical integration to evaluate integrals of the form $\int_{x_0}^{x_1} f(x)dx$, which is preferable depending in part of the results required, and in part of the function or data to be integrated.



Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you should be able to:

- describe the Trapezoidal rule of Integration and explain how to use it to solve problems
- ➤ describe what the Simpson's 1/3rd Rule of Integration is and explain how to use it to solve problems
- > state the Gaussian quadrature rules of Integration and explain how to use them to solve problems.

Unit content

Session 1-1 Trapezoidal Rule

- 1-4.1 Single Segment Trapezoidal Rule
- 1-4.2 Multiple-segment/Composite Trapezoidal Rule
- 1-4.3 Error in Multiple-segment Trapezoidal Rule

Session 2-1 Simpson's 1/3rd Rule

- 2-4.1 Single Segment Simpson's 1/3rd rule
- 2-4.2 Multiple Segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule
- 2-4.3 Error in Multiple Segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule

Session 3-4 Gaussian Quadrature Rule

- 3-4.1 Higher point Gaussian Quadrature Formulas
- 3-4.2 Arguments and weighing factors for n-point Gaussian Quadrature Rules

Session 1-1 Trapezoidal Rule

1-4.1 Single Segment Trapezoidal Rule

Here, we will discuss the trapezoidal rule of approximating integrals of the form

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \tag{1}$$

where f(x) is called the integrand, a = lower limit of integration and <math>b = upper limit of integration.

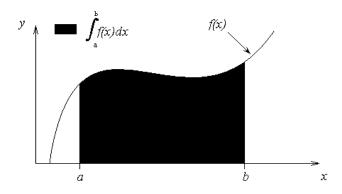


Figure 1: Integration of a function

In using the basic trapezoidal rule to approximate the value of the integral (1), one replaces the integrand f(x) by a first order polynomial, i,e,.

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \int_{a}^{b} f_{1}(x)dx \tag{2}$$

where $f_1(x) = a_0 + a_1 x$.

Hence

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \int_{a}^{b} f_{1}(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} (a_{0} + a_{1}x)dx = a_{0}(b - a) + a_{1}\left(\frac{b^{2} - a^{2}}{2}\right).$$
 (3)

Now if one chooses, (a, f(a)) and (b, f(b)) as the two points to approximate f(x) by a straight line from (a, f(a)) to (b, f(b)), then

$$f(a) = f_1(a) = a_0 + a_1 a \tag{4}$$

$$f(b) = f_1(b) = a_0 + a_1 b \tag{5}$$

Solving the above two equations for a_0 and a_1 , we have

$$a_1 = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}, \qquad a_0 = \frac{f(a)b - f(b)a}{b - a}$$
 (6)

Hence from Equation (3),

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

$$= (b - a)\left[\frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2}\right]$$
(7)

The trapezoidal rule for evaluating the integral (1) is given as

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

The above is called the single segment form of the trapezoidal rule.

The Trapezoidal rule can also be derived from geometry. In Figure 2 the area under the curve $f_1(x)$ between a and b is a trapezium. The integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \text{Area of trapezoid} = \frac{1}{2}(\text{Sum of parallel sides}) \times (\text{height})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(f(b) + f(a))(b - a) = (b - a)\left[\frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2}\right]$$
(8)

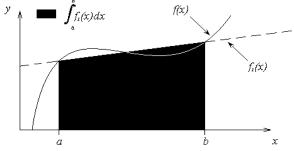


Figure 2: Geometric Representation of Trapezoidal Rule

Example 1:

Evaluate the integral
$$I = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

- a) Using the single segment Trapezoidal rule.
- b) Find the true error, E_t for part (a).
- c) Find the absolute relative true error for part (a).

Solution

a)
$$I \approx (b-a) \left[\frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2} \right]$$
, where $a = 8$, $b = 30$

$$f(t) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t$$

$$f(8) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(8)} \right] - 9.8(8) = 177.27$$

$$f(30) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(30)} \right] - 9.8(30) = 901.67$$

$$I = (30-8) \left[\frac{177.27 + 901.67}{2} \right] = 11868$$

- b) The exact value of the above integral is $x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 2100t} \right] 9.8t \right) dt = 11061$ so the true error is E_t = True Value – Approximate Value = 11061 - 11868 = -807
- c) The absolute relative true error, $|\epsilon_t|$, would then be

$$|\varepsilon_t| = \left| \frac{\text{True Error}}{\text{True Value}} \right| \times 100 = \left| \frac{11061 - 11868}{11061} \right| \times 100 = 7.2959\%$$

1-4.2 Multiple-segment/Composite Trapezoidal Rule

Dividing the interval [a,b] into n equal segments as shown in Figure 3, we have

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{a+h} f(x)dx + \int_{a+h}^{a+2h} f(x)dx + \dots + \int_{a+(n-2)h}^{a+(n-1)h} f(x)dx + \int_{a+(n-1)h}^{b} f(x)dx$$
(9)

where h = (b-a)/n.

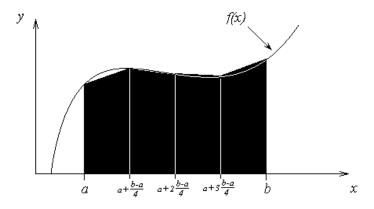


Figure 3: Multiple (n=4) Segment Trapezoidal Rule

Applying the single segment trapezoidal rule on Equation (9), we have

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{2} \left[f(a) + 2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(a+ih) \right\} + f(b) \right]$$

$$= \frac{b-a}{2n} \left[f(a) + 2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(a+ih) \right\} + f(b) \right]$$
(10)

which is called the multiple segment or composite trapezoidal rule.

In Example 1, the true error using a single segment trapezoidal rule was large. We can divide the interval [8, 30] into [8, 19] and [19, 30] intervals and apply Trapezoidal rule over each segment.

$$f(t) = 2000 \ln \left(\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right) - 9.8t$$

$$\int_{8}^{30} f(t)dt = \int_{8}^{19} f(t)dt + \int_{19}^{30} f(t)dt = (19 - 8) \left[\frac{f(8) + f(19)}{2} \right] + (30 - 19) \left[\frac{f(19) + f(30)}{2} \right]$$

$$f(8) = 177.27$$

$$f(19) = 2000 \ln \left(\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(19)} \right) - 9.8(19) = 484.75$$

$$f(30) = 901.67$$

Hence

$$\int_{8}^{30} f(t)dt = (19 - 8) \left[\frac{177.27 + 484.75}{2} \right] + (30 - 19) \left[\frac{484.75 + 901.67}{2} \right] = 11266$$

The true error, $E_t = 11061 - 11266 = -205$

The true error now is reduced from 807 to 205.

Example 2:

Evaluate the integral
$$I = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

- a) Use two-segment Trapezoidal rule.
- b) Find the true error, E_t for part (a).
- c) Find the absolute relative true error for part (a).

Solution

a) The solution using 2-segment Trapezoidal rule is

$$I = \frac{b-a}{2n} \left[f(a) + 2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(a+ih) \right\} + f(b) \right]$$

where
$$n = 2$$
, $a = 8$, $b = 30$, $h = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{30-8}{2} = 11$

$$I = \frac{30 - 8}{2(2)} \left[f(8) + 2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{2-1} f(a+ih) \right\} + f(30) \right] = \frac{22}{4} \left[f(8) + 2f(19) + f(30) \right]$$
$$= \frac{22}{4} \left[177.27 + 2(484.75) + 901.67 \right] = 11266$$

b) The exact value of the above integral is

$$I = \int_{0}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt = 11061$$

so the true error is E_t = True Value – Approximate Value = 11061 – 11266 = –205

c) The absolute relative true error, $|\varepsilon_t|$, would then be

$$\left| \varepsilon_{t} \right| = \left| \frac{\text{True Error}}{\text{True Value}} \right| \times 100 = \left| \frac{11061 - 11266}{11061} \right| \times 100 = 1.8534\%$$

Table 1: Values obtained using multiple-segment Trapezoidal rule for

$$I = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

n	Value	$\mathbf{E_{t}}$	$ \epsilon_t $ %	$ \epsilon_a $ %
1	11868	-807	7.296	
2	11266	-205	1.853	5.343
3	11153	-91.4	0.8265	1.019
4	11113	-51.5	0.4655	0.3594
5	11094	-33.0	0.2981	0.1669
6	11084	-22.9	0.2070	0.09082
7	11078	-16.8	0.1521	0.05482
8	11074	-12.9	0.1165	0.03560

Example 3:

Use Multiple-segment Trapezoidal Rule to find the area under the curve $f(x) = \frac{300x}{1 + e^x}$ from x = 0 to x = 10.

Solution

Using two segments, we get

$$h = \frac{10 - 0}{2} = 5, \quad f(0) = \frac{300(0)}{1 + e^{0}} = 0, \quad f(5) = \frac{300(5)}{1 + e^{5}} = 10.039, \quad f(10) = \frac{300(10)}{1 + e^{10}} = 0.136$$

$$I = \frac{b - a}{2n} \left[f(a) + 2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(a + ih) \right\} + f(b) \right] = \frac{10 - 0}{2(2)} \left[f(0) + 2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{2-1} f(0 + 5) \right\} + f(10) \right]$$

$$= \frac{10}{4} \left[f(0) + 2f(5) + f(10) \right] = \frac{10}{4} \left[0 + 2(10.039) + 0.136 \right] = 50.535$$

So what is the true value of this integral $\int_{0}^{10} \frac{300x}{1 + e^{x}} dx = 246.59?$

Making the absolute relative true error

$$\left| \varepsilon_{t} \right| = \left| \frac{246.59 - 50.535}{246.59} \right| \times 100\% = 79.506\%$$

Why is the true value so far away from the approximate values? Just take a look at Figure 5. As you can see, the area under the "trapezoids" (covers a small the area under the curve. As we add more segments, the approximated value quickly approaches the true value.

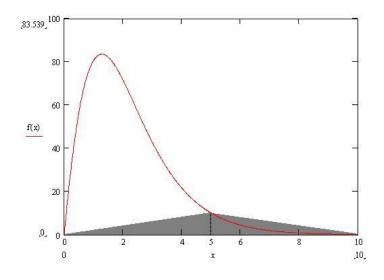


Figure 5: 2-Segment Trapezoidal Rule Approximation

Table 2: Values obtained using Multiple-segment Trapezoidal Rule for $\int_{0}^{10} \frac{300x}{1+e^{x}} dx$

n	Approximate Value	E_{t}	$\left \in _{t} \right $
1	0.681	245.91	99.724%
2	50.535	196.05	79.505%
4	170.61	75.978	30.812%
8	227.04	19.546	7.927%
16	241.70	4.887	1.982%
32	245.37	1.222	0.495%
64	246.28	0.305	0.124%

1-4.3 Error in Multiple-segment Trapezoidal Rule

The true error for a single segment Trapezoidal rule is given by $E_t = \frac{(b-a)^3}{12} f''(\zeta), \ a < \zeta < b$

where ζ is some point in [a,b].

What is the error, then in the multiple-segment Trapezoidal rule? It will be simply the sum of the errors from each segment, where the error in each segment is that of the single segment Trapezoidal rule. The error in each segment is

$$E_1 = \frac{\left[(a+h) - a \right]^3}{12} f''(\zeta_1) = \frac{h^3}{12} f''(\zeta_1), \quad a < \zeta_1 < a + h$$

$$E_2 = \frac{\left[(a+2h) - (a+h) \right]^3}{12} f''(\zeta_2) = \frac{h^3}{12} f''(\zeta_2), \quad a+h < \zeta_2 < a+2h$$

$$E_{i} = \frac{\left[(a+ih) - (a+(i-1)h) \right]^{3}}{12} f''(\zeta_{i}) = \frac{h^{3}}{12} f''(\zeta_{i}), \quad a+(i-1)h < \zeta_{i} < a+ih$$

$$E_{n-1} = \frac{\left[\left\{a + (n-1)h\right\} - \left\{a + (n-2)h\right\}\right]^{3}}{12} f''(\zeta_{n-1}) = \frac{h^{3}}{12} f''(\zeta_{n-1}), \quad a + (n-2)h < \zeta_{n-1} < a + (n-1)h$$

$$E_{n} = \frac{\left[b - \left\{a + (n-1)h\right\}\right]^{3}}{12} f''(\zeta_{n}) = \frac{h^{3}}{12} f''(\zeta_{n}), \quad a + (n-1)h < \zeta_{n} < b$$

Hence the total error in multiple-segment Trapezoidal rule is

$$E_{t} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_{i} = \frac{h^{3}}{12} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f''(\zeta_{i}) = \frac{(b-a)^{3}}{12n^{3}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f''(\zeta_{i}) = \frac{(b-a)^{3}}{12n^{2}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} f''(\zeta_{i})}{n}$$

The term $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f''(\zeta_i)$ is an approximate average value of the second derivative f''(x), a < x < b.

Hence
$$E_t = \frac{(b-a)^3}{12n^2} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n f''(\zeta_i)}{n}$$

Below is the table for the integral $\int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$ as a function of the number of segments. You can visualize that as the number of segments are doubled, the true error gets approximately quartered

Table 4: Values obtained using Multiple-segment Trapezoidal Rule for

$$x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

n	Value	E_{t}	$\left \mathcal{E}_{t}\right $ %	$ \mathcal{E}_a $ %
2	11266	-205	1.854	5.343
4	11113	-51.5	0.4655	0.3594
8	11074	-12.9	0.1165	0.03560
16	11065	-3.22	0.02913	0.00401

For example, for 2-segment Trapezoidal rule, the true error is 205, and a quarter of that error is 51.25. That is close to the true error of 51.5 for the 4-segment Trapezoidal rule.

Session 2-1 Simpson's 1/3rd Rule:

2-4.1 Single Segment Simpson's 1/3rd rule

Trapezoidal rule was based on approximating the integrand by a first order polynomial, and then integrating the polynomial in the interval of integration. Simpson's 1/3rd rule is an extension of Trapezoidal rule where the integrand is non-approximated by a second order polynomial.

Hence
$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \int_{a}^{b} f_{2}(x)dx$$
, where

 $f_2(x)$ is a second order polynomial $f_2(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2$.

Choose $(a, f(a)), \left(\frac{a+b}{2}, f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)\right)$, and (b, f(b)) as the three points of the function to evaluate a_0 , a_1 and a_2 .

$$f(a) = f_2(a) = a_0 + a_1 a + a_2 a^2$$

$$f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) = f_2\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) = a_0 + a_1\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + a_2\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2$$

$$f(b) = f_2(b) = a_0 + a_1b + a_2b^2$$

Solving the above three equations for unknowns, a_0 , a_1 and a_2 give

$$a_0 = \frac{a^2 f(b) + abf(b) - 4abf\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + abf(a) + b^2 f(a)}{a^2 - 2ab + b^2}$$

$$a_{1} = -\frac{af(a) - 4af\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + 3af(b) + 3bf(a) - 4bf\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + bf(b)}{a^{2} - 2ab + b^{2}}$$

$$a_{2} = \frac{2\left(f(a) - 2f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b)\right)}{a^{2} - 2ab + b^{2}}$$

Then

$$I \approx \int_{a}^{b} f_{2}(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} \left(a_{0} + a_{1}x + a_{2}x^{2}\right)dx = \left[a_{0}x + a_{1}\frac{x^{2}}{2} + a_{2}\frac{x^{3}}{3}\right]_{a}^{b}$$
$$= a_{0}(b - a) + a_{1}\frac{b^{2} - a^{2}}{2} + a_{2}\frac{b^{3} - a^{3}}{3}$$

Substituting values of a_0 , a_1 and a_2 give

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

Since for Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule, the interval [a,b] is broken into 2 segments, the segment width is $h = \frac{b-a}{2}$.

Hence the Simpson's
$$1/3^{\text{rd}}$$
 rule is given by
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \cong \frac{h}{3} \left[f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right]$$

Since the above form has 1/3 in its formula, it is called **Simpson's 1/3rd Rule**.

Example 1:

Evaluate the integral
$$x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

- a) Using Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule to find the approximate value of x.
- b) Find the true error, E_t
- c) Find the absolute relative true error, $|\mathcal{E}_t|$.

Solution:

a)
$$x \approx \frac{b-a}{6} \left[f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right]$$
$$a = 8$$
$$b = 30$$
$$\frac{a+b}{2} = 19$$

$$f(t) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t$$

$$f(8) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(8)} \right] - 9.8(8) = 177.27 m/s$$

$$f(30) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(30)} \right] - 9.8(30) = 901.67 m/s$$

$$f(19) = 2000 \ln \left(\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(19)} \right) - 9.8(19) = 484.75 m/s$$

$$x = \left(\frac{b-a}{6}\right) \left[f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b)\right] = \left(\frac{30-8}{6}\right) \left[f(8) + 4f(19) + f(30)\right]$$
$$= \left(\frac{22}{6}\right) \left[177.2667 + 4(484.7455) + 901.6740\right] = 11065.72$$

b) The exact value of the above integral is

$$x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt = 11061.34$$

So the true error is

$$E_t = True \ Value - Approximate \ Value = 11061.34 - 11065.72 = -4.38$$

c) Absolute Relative true error.

$$\left| \varepsilon_{t} \right| = \left| \frac{\text{True Error}}{\text{True Value}} \right| \times 100 = \left| \frac{11061.34 - 11065.72}{11061.34} \right| \times 100\% = 0.0396\%$$

2-4.2 Multiple Segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule

Just like in multiple-segment Trapezoidal Rule, one can subdivide the interval [a,b] into n segments and apply Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule repeatedly over every two segments. Note that n needs to be even. Divide interval [a,b] into n equal segments, hence the segment width

$$h = \frac{b-a}{n}$$
.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{x_{0}}^{x_{n}} f(x)dx$$

where $x_0 = a$, $x_n = b$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{x_{0}}^{x_{2}} f(x)dx + \int_{x_{2}}^{x_{4}} f(x)dx + \dots + \int_{x_{n-4}}^{x_{n-2}} f(x)dx + \int_{x_{n-2}}^{x_{n}} f(x)dx$$

Apply Simpson's 1/3rd Rule over each interval,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx (x_{2} - x_{0}) \left[\frac{f(x_{0}) + 4f(x_{1}) + f(x_{2})}{6} \right] + (x_{4} - x_{2}) \left[\frac{f(x_{2}) + 4f(x_{3}) + f(x_{4})}{6} \right] + \cdots + (x_{n-2} - x_{n-4}) \left[\frac{f(x_{n-4}) + 4f(x_{n-3}) + f(x_{n-2})}{6} \right] + (x_{n} - x_{n-2}) \left[\frac{f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_{n})}{6} \right]$$

Since $x_i - x_{i-2} = 2h$, i = 2, 4, ..., n

then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx 2h \left[\frac{f(x_{0}) + 4f(x_{1}) + f(x_{2})}{6} \right] + 2h \left[\frac{f(x_{2}) + 4f(x_{3}) + f(x_{4})}{6} \right] + \cdots
+ 2h \left[\frac{f(x_{n-4}) + 4f(x_{n-3}) + f(x_{n-2})}{6} \right] + 2h \left[\frac{f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_{n})}{6} \right]
= \frac{h}{3} \left[f(x_{0}) + 4 \left\{ f(x_{1}) + f(x_{3}) + \dots + f(x_{n-1}) \right\} + 2 \left\{ f(x_{2}) + f(x_{4}) + \dots + f(x_{n-2}) \right\} + f(x_{n}) \right]
= \frac{h}{3} \left[f(x_{0}) + 4 \sum_{\substack{i=1 \ i=odd}}^{n-1} f(x_{i}) + 2 \sum_{\substack{i=2 \ i=even}}^{n-2} f(x_{i}) + f(x_{n}) \right]$$

Hence the multiple segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule is given by

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \cong \frac{b-a}{3n} \left[f(x_0) + 4 \sum_{\substack{i=1\\i=odd}}^{n-1} f(x_i) + 2 \sum_{\substack{i=2\\i=even}}^{n-2} f(x_i) + f(x_n) \right]$$

Example 2:

Approximate the value of the integral $x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$

- a) Using the four segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule.
- b) Find the true error, E_t for part (a).
- c) Find the absolute relative true error for part (a).

Solution:

a) The n segment Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule is given by

$$x \approx \frac{b - a}{3n} \left[f(t_0) + 4 \sum_{\substack{i=1 \ i = odd}}^{n-1} f(t_i) + 2 \sum_{\substack{i=2 \ i = even}}^{n-2} f(t_i) + f(t_n) \right]$$

In this case n = 4, a = 8, b = 30, $h = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{30-8}{4} = 5.5$

$$f(t) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t$$

So

$$f(t_0) = f(8)$$

$$f(8) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(8)} \right] - 9.8(8) = 177.27$$

$$f(t_1) = f(8+5.5) = f(13.5)$$

$$f(13.5) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(13.5)} \right] - 9.8(13.5) = 320.25 m/s$$

$$f(t_2) = f(13.5 + 5.5) = f(19)$$

$$f(19) = 2000 \ln \left(\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(19)} \right) - 9.8(19) = 484.75 m/s$$

$$f(t_3) = f(19+5.5) = f(24.5)$$

$$f(24.5) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(24.5)} \right] - 9.8(24.5) = 676.05 m/s$$

$$f(t_4) = f(t_n) = f(30)$$

$$f(30) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(30)} \right] - 9.8(30) = 901.67 m/s$$

$$x = \frac{b-a}{3n} \left[f(t_0) + 4 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(t_i) + 2 \sum_{i=2}^{n-2} f(t_i) + f(t_n) \right]$$

$$= \frac{30-8}{3(4)} \left[f(8) + 4 \sum_{i=1 \text{ i} = odd}^{3} f(t_i) + 2 \sum_{i=2 \text{ i} = even}^{2} f(t_i) + f(30) \right]$$

$$= \frac{11}{6} \left[177.27 + 4(320.25) + 4(676.05) + 2(484.75) + 901.67 \right] = 11061.64$$

In this case, the true error is $E_t = 11061.34 - 11061.64 = -0.30$ and the absolute relative true error $|\varepsilon_t| = \left| \frac{11061.34 - 11061.64}{11061.34} \right| \times 100\% = 0.0027\%$

Table 1: Values of Simpson's 1/3rd Rule for Example 2 with multiple segments

n	Approximate Value	$E_{\scriptscriptstyle t}$	$\left \in_{t} \right $
2	11065.72	4.38	0.0396%
4	11061.64	0.30	0.0027%
6	11061.40	0.06	0.0005%
8	11061.35	0.01	0.0001%
10	11061.34	0.00	0.0000%

2-4.3 Error in Multiple Segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule

The true error in a single application of Simpson's 1/3rd Rule is given¹

$$E_t = -\frac{(b-a)^5}{2880} f^{(4)}(\zeta), \ a < \zeta < b$$

In Multiple Segment Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule, the error is the sum of the errors in each application of Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule. The error in n segment Simpson's $1/3^{rd}$ Rule is given by

$$\begin{split} E_1 &= -\frac{(x_2 - x_0)^5}{2880} \, f^{(4)}(\zeta_1) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \, f^{(4)}(\zeta_1), \quad x_0 < \zeta_1 < x_2 \\ E_2 &= -\frac{(x_4 - x_2)^5}{2880} \, f^{(4)}(\zeta_2) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \, f^{(4)}(\zeta_2), \quad x_2 < \zeta_2 < x_4 \\ & \vdots \\ E_i &= -\frac{(x_{2i} - x_{2(i-1)})^5}{2880} \, f^{(4)}(\zeta_i) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \, f^{(4)}(\zeta_i), \quad x_{2(i-1)} < \zeta_i < x_{2i} \\ & \vdots \\ E_{\frac{n}{2} - 1} &= -\frac{(x_{n-2} - x_{n-4})^5}{2880} \, f^{(4)}\left(\zeta_{n/2 - 1}\right) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \, f^{(4)}\left(\zeta_{n/2 - 1}\right), \quad x_{n-4} < \zeta_{n/2 - 1} < x_{n-2} \\ E_{\frac{n}{2} - 1} &= -\frac{(x_n - x_{n-2})^5}{2880} \, f^4\left(\zeta_{n/2}\right) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \, f^{(4)}\left(\zeta_{\frac{n}{2}}\right), \quad x_{n-2} < \zeta_{n/2} < x_n \end{split}$$

Hence, the total error in Multiple Segment Simpson's 1/3rd Rule is

$$E_{t} = \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} E_{i} = -\frac{h^{5}}{90} \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} f^{(4)}(\zeta_{i}) = -\frac{(b-a)^{5}}{90n^{5}} \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} f^{(4)}(\zeta_{i}) = -\frac{(b-a)^{5}}{90n^{4}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} f^{(4)}(\zeta_{i})}{n}$$

¹ The $f^{(4)}$ in the true error expression stands for the fourth derivative of f.

The term $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\zeta_i)$ is an approximate average value of $f^{(4)}(x)$, a < x < b.

Hence
$$E_t = -\frac{(b-a)^5}{90n^4} \overline{f}^{(4)}$$
, where $\overline{f}^{(4)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\zeta_i)$.

Session3-4 Gaussian Quadrature Rule

The general *n*-point Gaussian quadrature formula for the integral $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$ is defined as $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i}f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i}f(x) dx$ where c_{i} is i=1, and i=1 are the solution of the system.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} f(x_{i}), \text{ where } c_{i}, x_{i}, i = 1,...,n \text{ are the solution of the system}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f_{m}(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} f_{m}(x_{i}), \ f_{m}(x) = x^{m}, \ m = 0, 1, \dots, 2n - 1.$$

The 2-point Gaussian quadrature rule can be derived by assuming that the expression gives exact values for integrals of individual integrals of $\int_a^b 1 dx$, $\int_a^b x dx$, $\int_a^b x^2 dx$, and $\int_a^b x^3 dx$. These will give four equations as follows

$$\int_{a}^{b} 1 dx = b - a = c_{1} + c_{2}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} x dx = \frac{b^{2} - a^{2}}{2} = c_{1}x_{1} + c_{2}x_{2}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} x^{2} dx = \frac{b^{3} - a^{3}}{3} = c_{1}x_{1}^{2} + c_{2}x_{2}^{2}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} x^{3} dx = \frac{b^{4} - a^{4}}{4} = c_{1}x_{1}^{3} + c_{2}x_{2}^{3}$$
(14)

These four simultaneous nonlinear Equations (14) can be solved with a single acceptable solution $c_1 = \frac{b-a}{2}$, $c_2 = \frac{b-a}{2}$

$$x_1 = \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + \frac{b+a}{2}, \quad x_2 = \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + \frac{b+a}{2}$$
 (15)

Hence

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \frac{b-a}{2} f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + \frac{b+a}{2}\right) + \frac{b-a}{2} f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + \frac{b+a}{2}\right)$$
(16)

Since two points are chosen, it is called the two-point Gaussian Quadrature Rule. Higher point versions can also be developed.

3-4.1 Higher point Gaussian Quadrature Formulas

For example

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \cong c_{1}f(x_{1}) + c_{2}f(x_{2}) + c_{3}f(x_{3})$$
(17)

is called the three-point Gauss Quadrature Rule. The coefficients c_1 , c_2 and c_3 , and the function arguments x_1 , x_2 and x_3 are calculated by assuming the formula gives exact expressions for integrating a fifth order polynomial $\int_a^b \left(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4 + a_5x^5\right) dx$. General n-point rules would approximate the integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx c_{1}f(x_{1}) + c_{2}f(x_{2}) + \dots + c_{n}f(x_{n})$$
(18)

3-4.2 Arguments and weighing factors for n-point Gaussian Quadrature Rules

The general *n*-point Gaussian quadrature formula for the integral $\int_{-1}^{1} g(x)dx$ is defined as $\int_{-1}^{1} g(x)dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i g(x_i)$, where c_i , x_i , i = 1, ..., n are the solution of the system

$$\int_{-1}^{1} g_m(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i g_m(x_i), \ g_m(x) = x^m, \ m = 0, 1, \dots, 2n - 1.$$

The coefficients and arguments are given for the n-point Gaussian Quadrature Rule for n = 2, ..., 6 in the table below

Table 1: Weighting factors $\,c\,$ and function arguments $\,x\,$ used in Gauss Quadrature formulas

	T	
Points	Weighting	Function
	Factors	Arguments
2	$c_1 = 1.000000000$	$x_1 = -0.577350269$
	$c_2 = 1.0000000000$	$x_2 = 0.577350269$
3	$c_1 = 0.555555556$	$x_1 = -0.774596669$
	$c_2 = 0.888888889$	$x_2 = 0.0000000000$
	$c_3 = 0.555555556$	$x_3 = 0.774596669$
4	$c_1 = 0.347854845$	$x_1 = -0.861136312$
	$c_2 = 0.652145155$	$x_2 = -0.339981044$
	$c_3 = 0.652145155$	$x_3 = 0.339981044$
	$c_4 = 0.347854845$	$x_4 = 0.861136312$
5	$c_1 = 0.236926885$	$x_1 = -0.906179846$
	$c_2 = 0.478628670$	$x_2 = -0.538469310$
	$c_3 = 0.568888889$	$x_3 = 0.0000000000$
	$c_4 = 0.478628670$	$x_4 = 0.538469310$
	$c_5 = 0.236926885$	$x_5 = 0.906179846$
6	$c_1 = 0.171324492$	$x_1 = -0.932469514$
	$c_2 = 0.360761573$	$x_2 = -0.661209386$
	$c_3 = 0.467913935$	$x_3 = -0.238619186$
	$c_4 = 0.467913935$	$x_4 = 0.238619186$
	$c_5 = 0.360761573$	$x_5 = 0.661209386$
	$c_6 = 0.171324492$	$x_6 = 0.932469514$

So if the table is given for $\int_{-1}^{1} g(x)dx$ integrals, how does one solve $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$?

Note:
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \frac{b-a}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}t + \frac{a+b}{2}\right) dt$$

The answer lies in that any integral with limits of [a, b] can be converted into an integral with limits [-1, 1]. Let

$$x = mt + c \tag{20}$$

If x = a, then t = -1.

If x = b, then t = 1.

such that

$$a = m(-1) + c$$
, $b = m(1) + c$ (21)

Solving these two simultaneous linear Equations (21) gives

$$m = \frac{b-a}{2}, \quad c = \frac{b+a}{2}$$
 (22)

Hence
$$x = \frac{b-a}{2}t + \frac{b+a}{2}$$
, $dx = \frac{b-a}{2}dt$.

Substituting our values of x and dx into the integral gives us

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}t + \frac{b+a}{2}\right) \frac{b-a}{2} dt$$
 (23)

Example 1

For an integral $\int_{-1}^{1} f(x)dx$, show that the two-point Gauss Quadrature rule approximates to $\int_{-1}^{1} f(x)dx \cong c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2)$, where $c_1 = 1$, $c_2 = 1$, $x_1 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ and $x_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Solution

Assuming the formula

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x)dx = c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2)$$
(E1.1)

gives exact values for integrals $\int_{-1}^{1} 1 dx$, $\int_{-1}^{1} x dx$, $\int_{-1}^{1} x^2 dx$, and $\int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx$. Then

$$\int_{-1}^{1} 1 dx = 2 = c_1 + c_2 \tag{E1.2}$$

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x dx = 0 = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2$$
 (E1.3)

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = c_1 x_1^2 + c_2 x_2^2$$
 (E1.4)

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx = 0 = c_1 x_1^3 + c_2 x_2^3$$
 (E1.5)

Multiplying Equation (E1.3) by x_1^2 and subtracting from Equation (E1.5) gives

$$c_2 x_2 \left(x_1^2 - x_2^2\right) = 0.$$
 (E1.6)

The solution to the above equation is $c_2 = 0$, or/and $x_2 = 0$, or/and $x_1 = x_2$, or/and $x_1 = -x_2$.

- I. $c_2 = 0$ is not acceptable as Equations (E1.2-E1.5) reduce to $c_1 = 2$; $c_1x_1 = 0$; $c_1x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$; and $c_1x_1^3 = 0$. But since $c_1 = 2$, then $x_1 = 0$ from $c_1x_1 = 0$, but $x_1 = 0$ conflicts with $c_1x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$.
- II. $x_2 = 0$ is not acceptable as Equations (E1.2-E1.5) reduce to $c_1 + c_2 = 2$; $c_1 x_1 = 0$; $c_1 x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$; $c_1 x_1^3 = 0$. Since $c_1 x_1 = 0$, then c_1 or x_1 has to be zero but this violates $c_1 x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3} \neq 0$.

III. $x_1 = x_2$ is not acceptable as Equations (E1.2-E1.5) reduce to $c_1 + c_2 = 2$; $c_1x_1 + c_2x_1 = 0$; $c_1x_1^2 + c_2x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$; $c_1x_1^3 + c_2x_1^3 = 0$. If $x_1 \neq 0$, then $c_1x_1 + c_2x_1 = 0$ gives $c_1 + c_2 = 0$ and that violates $c_1 + c_2 = 2$. If $x_1 = 0$, then violates $c_1x_1^2 + c_2x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3} \neq 0$

That leaves the solution of $x_1 = -x_2$ as the only possible acceptable solution and in fact, it does not have violations (see it for yourself)

$$x_1 = -x_2$$
 (E1.7)

Substituting (E1.7) in Equation (E1.3) gives

$$c_1 = c_2 \tag{E1.8}$$

From Equations (E1.2) and (E1.8),

$$c_1 = c_2 = 1$$
 (E1.9)

Equations (E1.4) and (E1.9) gives

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = \frac{2}{3}$$
 (E1.10)

Since Equation (E1.7) requires that the two results be of opposite sign, we get

$$x_1 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

Hence

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x)dx = c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2) = f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$$
 (E1.11)

Example 2

For an integral, $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$, derive the one-point Gaussian Quadrature Rule.

Solution

The one-point Gaussian quadrature rule is

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx c_{1}f(x_{1})$$
 (E2.1)

Assuming the formula gives exact values for integrals $\int_{-1}^{1} 1 dx$, and $\int_{-1}^{1} x dx$

$$\int_{a}^{b} 1 dx = b - a = c_{1}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} x dx = \frac{b^{2} - a^{2}}{2} = c_{1}x_{1}$$
(E2.2)

Since $c_1 = b - a$, the other equation becomes

$$(b-a)x_1 = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{b+a}{2}$$
(E2.3)

Therefore, one-point Gauss Quadrature Rule can be expressed as

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx (b-a)f\left(\frac{b+a}{2}\right)$$
 (E2.4)

Example 3

What would be the formula for $\int_a^b f(x)dx = c_1 f(a) + c_2 f(b)$, if you want the above formula to give you exact values of $\int_a^b (a_0 x + b_0 x^2) dx$, that is a linear combination of x and x^2 .

Solution

If the formula is exact for linear combination of x and x^2 , then

$$\int_{a}^{b} x dx = \frac{b^{2} - a^{2}}{2} = c_{1}a + c_{2}b$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} x^{2} dx = \frac{b^{3} - a^{3}}{3} = c_{1}a^{2} + c_{2}b^{2}$$
(E3.1)

Solving the two Equations (E3.1) simultaneously gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ a^2 & b^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} \\ \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c_1 = -\frac{1}{6} \frac{-ab - b^2 + 2a^2}{a}, \quad c_2 = -\frac{1}{6} \frac{a^2 + ab - 2b^2}{b}$$
 (E3.2)

So

$$\int_{0}^{b} f(x)dx = -\frac{1}{6} \frac{-ab - b^{2} + 2a^{2}}{a} f(a) - \frac{1}{6} \frac{a^{2} + ab - 2b^{2}}{b} f(b)$$
 (E3.3)

To see if the formula works;

Evaluate $\int_{2}^{5} (2x^2 - 3x) dx$ using the above formula.

$$\int_{2}^{5} (2x^{2} - 3x) dx \approx c_{1} f(a) + c_{2} f(b)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{6} \frac{-(2)(5) - 5^{2} + 2(2)^{2}}{2} \left[2(2)^{2} - 3(2) \right] - \frac{1}{6} \frac{2^{2} + 2(5) - 2(5)^{2}}{5} [2(5)^{2} - 3(5)] = 46.5$$

The exact value of $\int_{2}^{5} (2x^2 - 3x) dx$ is given by $\int_{2}^{5} (2x^2 - 3x) dx = \left[\frac{2x^3}{3} - \frac{3x^2}{2} \right]_{2}^{5} = 46.5$

Now evaluate $\int_{2}^{5} 3dx$ using the above formula

$$\int_{2}^{5} 3dx \approx c_{1}f(a) + c_{2}f(b) = -\frac{1}{6} \frac{-2(5) - 5^{2} + 2(2)^{2}}{2} (3) - \frac{1}{6} \frac{2^{2} + 2(5) - 2(5)^{2}}{5} (3) = 10.35$$

The exact value of
$$\int_{2}^{5} 3dx$$
 is given by $\int_{2}^{5} 3dx = [3x]_{2}^{5} = 9$

Because the formula will only give exact values for linear combinations of x and x^2 , it does not work exactly even for a simple integral of $\int_{2}^{5} 3dx$.

Do you see now why we choose $a_0 + a_1 x$ as the integrand for which the formula $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx c_1 f(a) + c_2 f(b)$ gives us exact values?

Example 4

Use the two-point Gaussian Quadrature Rule to approximate the value of the integral

$$x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

Also, find the absolute relative true error.

Solution

First, change the limits of integration from [8, 30] to [-1, 1] using Equation 23 gives

$$\int_{8}^{30} f(t)dt = \frac{30 - 8}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(\frac{30 - 8}{2}x + \frac{30 + 8}{2}\right) dx = 11 \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(11x + 19\right) dx$$

Next, get weighting factors and function argument values from Table 1 for the two point rule,

$$c_1 = 1.000000000$$
.

$$x_1 = -0.577350269$$

$$c_2 = 1.000000000$$

$$x_2 = 0.577350269$$

Now we can use the Gaussian Quadrature formula

$$11\int_{-1}^{1} f(11x+19) dx \approx 11 \Big[c_1 f(11x_1+19) + c_2 f(11x_2+19) \Big]$$

$$= 11 \Big[f(11(-0.5773503) + 19) + f(11(0.5773503) + 19) \Big]$$

$$= 11 \Big[f(12.64915) + f(25.35085) \Big] = 11 \Big[(296.8317) + (708.4811) \Big] = 11058.44$$

since

$$f(12.64915) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(12.64915)} \right] - 9.8(12.64915) = 296.8317$$

$$f(25.35085) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(25.35085)} \right] - 9.8(25.35085) = 708.4811$$

The absolute relative true error, $|\epsilon_t|$, is (Exact value = 11061.34m)

$$\left| \varepsilon_{t} \right| = \left| \frac{11061.34 - 11058.44}{11061.34} \right| \times 100\% = 0.0262\%$$

Example 5

Use the three-point Gauss Quadrature Rule to approximate the value of the integral

$$x = \int_{8}^{30} \left(2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100t} \right] - 9.8t \right) dt$$

Also, find the absolute relative true error.

Solution

First, change the limits of integration from [8, 30] to [-1, 1] using Equation (23) gives

$$\int_{8}^{30} f(t)dt = \frac{30 - 8}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(\frac{30 - 8}{2}x + \frac{30 + 8}{2}\right) dx = 11 \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(11x + 19\right) dx$$

The weighting factors and function argument values are

$$c_1 = 0.55555556$$

$$x_1 = -0.774596669$$

$$c_2 = 0.888888889$$

$$x_2 = 0.000000000$$

$$c_3 = 0.55555556$$

$$x_3 = 0.774596669$$

and the formula is

$$\begin{split} &11\int_{-1}^{1} f\left(11x+19\right) dx \approx 11\Big[c_{1}f\left(11x_{1}+19\right)+c_{2}f\left(11x_{2}+19\right)+c_{3}f\left(11x_{3}+19\right)\Big] \\ &=11\Big[0.5555556f\left(11(-.7745967)+19\right)+0.8888889f\left(11(0.0000000)+19\right)\Big] \\ &=11\Big[0.55556f\left(11(0.7745967)+19\right) \\ &=11\Big[0.55556f\left(10.47944\right)+0.88889f\left(19.00000\right) \right. \\ &+0.55556f\left(27.52056\right)\Big] \\ &=11\Big[0.55556\times239.3327+0.88889\times484.7455+0.55556\times795.1069\Big]=11061.31 \quad m \end{split}$$

since

$$f(10.47944) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(10.47944)} \right] - 9.8(10.47944) = 239.3327$$

$$f(19.00000) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(19.00000)} \right] - 9.8(19.00000) = 484.7455$$

$$f(27.52056) = 2000 \ln \left[\frac{140000}{140000 - 2100(27.52056)} \right] - 9.8(27.52056) = 795.1069$$

The absolute relative true error, $|\epsilon_t|$, is (Exact value = 11061.34m)

$$\left| \varepsilon_{t} \right| = \left| \frac{11061.34 - 11061.31}{11061.34} \right| \times 100\% = 0.0003\%$$

The following procedure provides the LU factorization with partial pivoting of a square matrix, A = $(a_{ij})_{n\times n}$, where $L=(l_{ij})_{n\times n}$ is a unit lower triangular and $U=(u_{ij})_{n\times n}$ an upper triangular.

Procedure

Starting with k=1 to n-1, scan the entries of the kth column of the matrix $A^{(k-1)}$ below the row (k-1)to identify the pivot $a_{r_k,k}$, r_k such that $|a_{r_k,k}| = \max_{k \le i \le n} |a_{ik}|$. Next form the permutation matrix, P_k , and find an elementary matrix M_k such that $A^{(k)} = M_k P_k A^{(k-1)}$ has zeros below the (k,k) entry on the kth column.

Write
$$\begin{cases} L = P \left(M_{n-1} P_{n-1} M_{n-2} P_{n-2} \cdots M_2 P_2 M_1 P_1 \right)^{-1} \\ U = M_{n-1} P_{n-1} M_{n-2} P_{n-2} \cdots M_2 P_2 M_1 P_1 A \end{cases}$$
where
$$P = \left(P_{n-1} P_{n-2} \cdots P_2 P_1 \right)^{-1} \text{ and } PA = LU.$$

Given that
$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 5 & 7 & 6 & 5 \\ 7 & 10 & 8 & 7 \\ 6 & 8 & 10 & 9 \\ 5 & 7 & 9 & 10 \end{array} \right]$$
. Using partial pivoting:

Now answer the following questions

1. Find
$$A^{(1)}$$
:

3. Find
$$A^{(3)}$$
.

5. Find
$$P$$
.

2. Find
$$A^{(2)}$$
.

3. Find
$$A^{(3)}$$
.
4. Find $(M_3P_3M_2P_2M_1P_1)^{-1}$

6. Find
$$L$$
.

- 7. What is the most appropriate direct method in terms of complexity that can best be used to factorize the system into a unit lower triangular matrix and its corresponding upper triangular matrix? Explain your answer.
- 8. To determine the surface shape of an object from images taken of a surface from three different directions, one needs to solve a set of three equations. The coefficient matrix, A of the system formed is dependent on the light source directions with respect to the camera. The unknowns, x,y,z are therefore the incident intensities that will determine the shape of the object. The right hand side values are the light intensities from the middle of the images.

Given the following arrangement,
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.2425 & 0 & -0.9701 \\ 0 & 0.2425 & -0.9701 \\ -0.2357 & -0.2357 & -0.9428 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 247 \\ 248 \\ 239 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ solve for the incident intencities using partial pivoting.}$$

Due Date: Friday 4th November, 2011