

MA 214: Numerical Analysis Notes

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DISCLAIMER

This is just a collection of formulae/algorithms compiled together.

In the case of algorithms, I explain the procedure concisely. However, do not take this as a substitute for lecture slides as I don't go into the theory at all.

Also, I've modified some things compared to the lecture slides wherever I felt it was an error. So, be warned.

1 Interpolation

1. Lagrange Polynomials

Let x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n be $n+1$ distinct points in $[a, b]$. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function whose value is known at those aforementioned points.

We want to construct a polynomial $p(x)$ of degree $\leq n$ such that $p(x_i) = f(x_i)$ for all $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$.

Towards this end, we define the polynomials $I_k(x)$ for $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ in the following manner:

$$I_k(x) := \prod_{i=0, i \neq k}^n \frac{x - x_i}{x_k - x_i}.$$

(Intuitive understanding: I_k is a degree n polynomial such that $I_k(x_j) = 0$ if $k \neq j$ and $I_k(x_k) = 1$.)

Now, define $p(x)$ as follows:

$$p(x) := \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) I_i(x)$$

2. Newton's form

Let x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n be $n+1$ distinct points in $[a, b]$. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function whose value is known at those aforementioned points.

We want to construct a polynomial $P_n(x)$ of degree $\leq n$ such that $p(x_i) = f(x_i)$ for all $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$.

We define the divided differences (recursively) as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f[x_0] &:= f(x_0) \\ f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] &:= \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_k] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{k-1}]}{x_k - x_0} \end{aligned} \quad \text{for all } 1 < k \leq n$$

With this in place, the desired polynomial $P_n(x)$ is (not so) simply:

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &:= f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) \\ &\quad + f[x_0, x_1, x_2](x - x_0)(x - x_1) \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\quad + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Remarks. Note that $x - x_n$ does not appear in the last term.

Note that given $P_n(x)$, it is simple to construct $P_{n+1}(x)$.

3. Osculatory Interpolation

This is essentially the same as the previous case.

I'll state the problem in the form I think is the simplest. (Any other form can be reduced to this.)

Suppose we are given $k + 1$ distinct points x_0, \dots, x_k in $[a, b]$ and a function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is sufficiently differentiable.

Suppose we are given the following values:

$$\begin{array}{c} f^{(0)}(x_0), f^{(1)}(x_0), \dots, f^{(m_1-1)}(x_0) \\ f^{(0)}(x_1), f^{(1)}(x_1), \dots, f^{(m_2-1)}(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ f^{(0)}(x_k), f^{(1)}(x_k), \dots, f^{(m_k-1)}(x_k) \end{array}$$

(Notation: $f^{(0)}(x) = f(x)$ and $f^{(n)}(x)$ is the n^{th} derivative.)

Thus, we are given $m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_k =: n + 1$ data. As usual, we now want to compute a polynomial $P_n(x)$ that agrees with f at all the data. (That is, all the given derivatives must also be same.) As it goes without saying, $P_n(x)$ must have degree $\leq n$.

To do this, we list the above points as follows:

$$\underbrace{x_0, x_0, \dots, x_0}_{m_1}, \underbrace{x_1, x_1, \dots, x_1}_{m_2}, \dots, \underbrace{x_k, x_k, \dots, x_k}_{m_k}.$$

Now, we just apply the above (Newton's) formula with the following modification in the definition of the divided difference:

$$f[\underbrace{x_i, x_i, \dots, x_i}_{p+1 \text{ times}}] := \frac{f^{(p)}(x_i)}{p!}.$$

4. Richardson Extrapolation

Suppose that for sufficiently small $h \neq 0$, we have the formula:

$$M = N_1(h) + k_1 h + k_2 h^2 + k_3 h^3 + \dots,$$

for some constants k_1, k_2, k_3, \dots .

Define the following:

$$N_j(h) := N_{j-1}(h/2) + \frac{N_{j-1}(h/2) - N_{j-1}(h)}{2^{j-1} - 1} \quad \text{for } j \geq 2.$$

Choose some h *sufficiently small* (whatever that means). Then, $N_j(h)$ keeps becoming a better approximation of M as j increases.

We create a table of h and $N_j(h)$ as follows:

h	$N_1(h)$	$N_2(h)$	$N_3(h)$	$N_4(h)$
h	$N_1(h)$			
$h/2$	$N_1(h/2)$	$N_2(h)$		
$h/4$	$N_1(h/4)$	$N_2(h/2)$	$N_3(h)$	
$h/8$	$N_1(h/8)$	$N_2(h/4)$	$N_3(h/2)$	$N_4(h)$

$N_4(h)$ will be a good approximation, then.

(Look at slide 15 of Lecture 7 for an example.)

Special case

Sometimes, we may have the following scenario:

$$M = N_1(h) + k_2 h^2 + k_4 h^4 + \dots.$$

In this case, we define:

$$N_j(h) := N_{j-1}(h/2) + \frac{N_{j-1}(h/2) - N_{j-1}(h)}{4^{j-1} - 1} \quad \text{for } j \geq 2.$$

Then, we do the remaining stuff as before.

2 Numerical Integration

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

1. Rectangle Rule

$$I \approx (b-a)f(a)$$

$$E^R = f'(\eta) \frac{(b-a)^2}{2}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a, b]$$

2. Midpoint Rule

$$I \approx (b-a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$$

$$E^M = \frac{f''(\eta)}{24}(b-a)^3, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a, b]$$

3. Trapezoidal Rule

$$I \approx \frac{1}{2}(b-a)[f(a) + f(b)]$$

$$E^T = -f''(\eta) \frac{(b-a)^3}{12}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a, b]$$

4. Corrected Trapezoidal

$$I \approx \frac{1}{2}(b-a)[f(a) + f(b)] + \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}(f'(a) - f'(b))$$

$$E^{CT} = f^{(4)}(\eta) \frac{(b-a)^5}{720}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a, b]$$

5. Composite Trapezoidal

$$I \approx \frac{h}{2} \left[f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(x_i) + f(x_N) \right]$$

$$E_C^T = -f''(\xi) \frac{h^2(b-a)}{12}, \text{ for some } \xi \in [a, b]$$

Here, $Nh = b - a$ and $x_i = a + ih$.

6. Simpson's Rule

$$I \approx \frac{b-a}{6} \left\{ f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right\}$$

$$E^S = -\frac{1}{90}f^{(4)}(\eta) \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)^5, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a, b]$$

7. Composite Simpson's

$$I \approx \frac{h}{6} \left[f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(x_i) + 4 \sum_{i=1}^N f\left(x_{i-1} + \frac{h}{2}\right) + f(x_N) \right]$$

$$E_C^S = -f^{(4)}(\xi) \frac{(h/2)^4(b-a)}{180}, \text{ for some } \xi \in [a, b]$$

Here, $Nh = b - a$ and $x_i = a + ih$.

8. Gaussian Quadrature

Let $Q_{n+1}(x)$ denote the $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$ Legendre polynomial.

Let r_0, \dots, r_{n+1} be its roots. (These will be distinct, symmetric about the origin and will lie in the interval $[-1, 1]$.)

For each $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$, we define c_i as follows:

$$c_i := \int_{-1}^1 \left(\prod_{k=0, k \neq i}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_i - x_k} \right) dx.$$

Then, we have

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n f(r_i) c_i.$$

Moreover, if f is a polynomial of degree $\leq 2n+1$, then the above is “approximation” is exact.

Standard values:

$n = 0$: $Q_1(x) = x$ and $x_0 = 0$. $c_0 = 2$.

$n = 1$: $Q_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$ and $x_0 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$, $x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$. $c_0 = c_1 = 1$.

$n = 2$: $Q_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x$ and $x_0 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}$, $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}$. $c_0 = c_2 = 5/9$, $c_1 = 8/9$.

9. Improper integrals using Taylor series method

Suppose we have $f(x) = \frac{g(x)}{(x-a)^p}$ for some $0 < p < 1$ and are asked to calculate $I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

For the sake of simplicity, I assume $a = 0$ and $b = 1$.

Let $P_4(x)$ denote the fourth Taylor polynomial of g around a . (In this case 0.)

Now, compute $I_1 = \int_0^1 \frac{P_4(x)}{x^p} dx$. This can be integrated exactly. (Why?)

Now, we approximate $I - I_1$.

Define

$$G(x) := \begin{cases} \frac{g(x) - P_4(x)}{x^p} & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then, approximate $I_2 = \int_0^1 G(x) dx$ using the composite Simpson's rule.

Then, $I = I_1 + I_2$.

For the case of $a = 0$, $b = 1$ and $N = 2$ for the composite Simpson's part, we get that $I_2 \approx \frac{1}{12}[2G(0.5) + 4G(0.25) + 4G(0.75) + G(1)]$.

That is, finally:

$$I \approx \int_0^1 \frac{P_4(x)}{x^p} dx + \frac{1}{12}[2G(0.5) + 4G(0.25) + 4G(0.75) + G(1)].$$

10. Adaptive Quadrature

Let $I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ be the integral that we want to approximate.

Suppose that ϵ is the accuracy to which we want I . That is, we want a number P such that $|P - I| < \epsilon$.

Here is what you do:

Subdivide $[a, b]$ into N intervals: $[x_0, x_1]$, $[x_1, x_2]$, \dots , $[x_{n-1}, x_n]$. (Naturally, $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$.)

Now, for each subinterval, compute the following values:

$$S_i = \frac{h}{6} \left(f(x_i) + 4f\left(x_i + \frac{h}{2}\right) + f(x_{i+1}) \right), \text{ and}$$

$$\overline{S}_i = \frac{h}{12} \left(f(x_i) + 4f\left(x_i + \frac{h}{2}\right) + 2f\left(x_i + \frac{h}{2}\right) + 4f\left(x_i + \frac{3h}{4}\right) + f(x_{i+1}) \right).$$

Now, calculate $E_i = \frac{1}{15}|\overline{S}_i - S_i|$.

Now, if $E_i \leq \frac{x_i - x_{i-1}}{b-a} \epsilon$, then move on to the next interval.

Otherwise, subdivide again to better approximate $\int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x)dx$.

Finally, sum up all the $\overline{S_i}$ s and that's the answer. That is,

$$I \approx P = \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{S_i}.$$

11. Romberg Integration

Essentially the baby of composite Trapezoidal rule and Romberg integration.

Suppose we want to calculate $\int_a^b f(x)dx$.

Let N be a power of 2.

$$T_N := \frac{h}{2} \left[f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(a + ih) + f(x_N) \right], \text{ where } Nh = b - a.$$

Note that T_N can be computed using $T_{N/2}$ (assuming $N \neq 2^0$) as:

$$T_N = \frac{T_{N/2}}{2} + h \sum_{i=1}^{N/2} f(a + (2i-1)h).$$

Now for $m \geq 1$, we define:

$$T_N^m = T_N^{m-1} + \frac{T_N^{m-1} - T_{N/2}^{m-1}}{4^m - 1}.$$

(Where T_N^0 is just T_N .)

(Also, for some reason, T'_N has been used instead of T_N^1 .)

Note that $\frac{N}{2^m}$ must be an integer for T_N^m to be defined. We create a table as follows:

N	T_N	T'_N	T_N^2	T_N^3
1	T_1			
2	T_2	T_2^1		
4	T_4	T_4^1	T_4^2	
8	T_8	T_8^1	T_8^2	T_8^3

T_8^3 will be a good approximation, then.

(Look at slide 25 of Lecture 7 for an example.)

Remark. It can be shown that $I = T_N + c_2 h^2 + c_4 h^4 + \dots$. This is why we used the special case formula of 1. 4.

3 Numerical Differentiation

1.

$$f'(a) \approx \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

$$E(f) = -\frac{1}{2} h f''(\eta) \quad \text{for some } \eta \in [a, a+h].$$

2. Central Difference Formula

$$f'(a) \approx \frac{f(a+h) - f(a-h)}{2h}$$

$$E(f) = -\frac{1}{6} h^3 f^{(3)}(\eta) \quad \text{for some } \eta \in [a-h, a+h].$$

Note that this is an $O(h^2)$ approximation. Thus, we can use the special case of §1. 4. for better accuracy.

3.

$$f'(a) \approx \frac{-3f(a) + 4f(a+h) - f(a+2h)}{2h}$$

$$E(f) = \frac{1}{3} h^3 f^{(3)}(\eta) \quad \text{for some } \eta \in [a, a+2h].$$

Formula 2 is always the better one whenever applicable. At end points, formula 3 is better than formula 1.

4. Central difference for second derivative

$$f''(x_0) = \frac{f(x_0 + h) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 - h)}{h^2} - \frac{h^2}{12}f^{(4)}(\xi),$$

for some $\xi \in (x_0 - h, x_0 + h)$.

5. Solving boundary-value problems in ODE

Suppose that we want to solve the following (linear) ODE:

$$y''(x) + f(x)y'(x) + g(x)y = q(x)$$

in the interval $[a, b]$ such that we know $y(a) = \alpha$, and $y(b) = \beta$.

Set $h := \frac{b-a}{N}$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x_0 = a + ih$ for $h \in \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$.

Using central difference approximation, we set up $N - 1$ linear equations as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{y_{i-1} - 2y_0 + y_i}{h^2} + f(x_i)\frac{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}}{2h} + g(x_i)(y_i) &= q(x_i) \\ i &= 1, 2, \dots, N - 1 \end{aligned}$$

The above equations can be rearranged as:

$$\left(1 - \frac{hf_i}{2}\right)y_{i-1} + (-2 + h^2g_i)y_i + \left(1 + \frac{hf_i}{2}\right)y_{i+1} = h^2q_i,$$

for $i = 1, \dots, N - 1$; where $f_i = f(x_i)$ and so on.

4 Solution of non-linear equations

Let f be a continuous function on $[a_0, b_0]$ such that $f(a_0)f(b_0) < 0$ in all these cases. We want to find a root of f in $[a_0, b_0]$. (Existence is implied.)

1. Bisection Method

Set $n = 0$ to start with.

Loop over the following:

Set $m = \frac{a_n + b_n}{2}$.

If $f(a_n)f(m) < 0$, then set $a_{n+1} = a_n$ and $b_{n+1} = m$.

Else, set $a_{n+1} = m$ and $b_{n+1} = b_n$.

Increase n by one.

We still have a root in $[a_n, b_n]$.

2. Regula-falsi or false-position method

Set $n = 0$ to start with.

Loop over the following:

Set $w = \frac{f(b_n)a_n - f(a_n)b_n}{f(b_n) - f(a_n)}$.

If $f(a_n)f(w) < 0$, then set $a_{n+1} = a_n$ and $b_{n+1} = w$.

Else, set $a_{n+1} = w$ and $b_{n+1} = b_n$.

Increase n by one.

We still have a root in $[a_n, b_n]$.

3. Modified regula-falsi

Set $n = 0$ and $w_0 = a_0$ to start with.

Loop over the following:

Set $F = f(a_n)$ and $G = f(b_n)$.

Set $w_{n+1} = \frac{Ga_n - Fb_n}{G - F}$.

If $f(a_n)f(w_{n+1}) \leq 0$, then set $a_{n+1} = a_n$ and $b_{n+1} = w_{n+1}$ and $G = f(w_{n+1})$.
 Furthermore, if we also have $f(w_n)f(w_{n+1}) > 0$, set $F = \frac{F}{2}$.
 Else, set $a_{n+1} = w_{n+1}$ and $b_{n+1} = b_n$ and $F = f(w_{n+1})$.
 Furthermore, if we also have $f(w_n)f(w_{n+1}) > 0$, set $G = \frac{G}{2}$.
 Increase n by one.
 We still have a root in $[a_n, b_n]$.

4. Secant method

Set $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = b$ and until satisfied, keep computing x_n given by

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{f(x_n)x_{n-1} - f(x_{n-1})x_n}{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

Remark. This process will be forced to stop if we arrive at $f(x_n) = f(x_{n-1})$ at some point.

5 Iterative methods

1. Newton's Method

You are given a function f which is continuously differentiable and you want to find its root. You are also given some x_0 .

Compute the following sequence recursively until satisfied:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \quad \text{for } n \geq 0.$$

2. Fixed point iteration

Let I be a closed interval in \mathbb{R} . Let $f : I \rightarrow I$ be a differentiable function such that there exists some $K \in [0, 1)$ such that $|f'(x)| \leq K$ for all $x \in I$.

Then, there is a unique $\xi \in I$ such that $f(\xi) = \xi$. To find this fixed point, choose any $x_0 \in I$ and define the sequence

$$x_n := f(x_{n-1}) \quad n \geq 1.$$

Then, $x_n \rightarrow \xi$.

3. Aitken's Δ^2 Process

Definition. Given a sequence (x_n) , let $\Delta x_n := x_{n+1} - x_n$.

Then, $\Delta^2 x_n = x_{n+2} - 2x_{n+1} + x_n$.

Given a sequence x_0, x_1, \dots converging to ξ , calculate $\widehat{x_1}, \widehat{x_2}, \dots$ by

$$\widehat{x_n} := x_{n+1} - \frac{(\Delta x_n)^2}{\Delta^2 x_{n-1}}.$$

Then, $\widehat{x_n} \rightarrow \xi$.

If the sequence x_0, x_1, \dots converges linearly to ξ , that is, if

$$\xi - x_{n+1} = K(\xi - x_n) + \theta(\xi - x_n), \quad \text{for some } K \neq 0$$

then $\widehat{x_n} = \xi + O(\xi - x_n)$, that is, $\frac{\widehat{x_n} - \xi}{x_n - \xi} \rightarrow 0$.

4. Steffensen iteration

Let $g(x)$ be the function whose fixed point is desired. Let y_0 be some given point.

Set $n = 0$ to start with.

Loop over the following:

Set $x_0 = y_n$.

Set $x_1 = g(x_0)$, $x_2 = g(x_1)$.

Set Δx_1 and $\Delta^2 x_0$.

Set $y_{n+1} = x_2 - \frac{(\Delta x_1)^2}{\Delta^2 x_0}$.

Increase n by 1.

Note that we get a sequence y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots . However, we only ever have x_0, x_1 and x_2 .

Definition 1. Let x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots be a sequence that converges to ξ and set $e_n = \xi - x_n$. If there exists a number P and a constant $C \neq 0$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|^P} = C,$$

then P is called the **order of convergence** and C is called **asymptotic error constant**.

Examples.

1. **Fixed point iteration**

ξ fixed point of $g : I \rightarrow I$ and $g'(\xi) \neq 0$.

$P = 1$ and $C = |g'(\xi)|$.

2. **Newton's method**

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|} = \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{f''(\xi)}{f'(\xi)} \right|.$$

(If ξ is a double root, then $P = 1$.)

3. **Secant method**

$$|e_{n+1}| = C|e_n||e_{n-1}|$$

$$P = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} = 1.618\dots$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|^P} = \left| \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(\xi)}{f'(\xi)} \right|^{1/P}, \text{ provided } f'(\xi) \neq 0.$$

Theorem 1. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be in $C^2[a, b]$ and let the following conditions be satisfied:

1. $f(a)f(b) < 0$,
2. $f'(x) \neq 0$, for all $x \in [a, b]$,
3. $f''(x)$ doesn't change sign in $[a, b]$ (might be zero at some points),
- 4.

$$\frac{|f(a)|}{|f'(a)|} \leq b - a \text{ and } \frac{|f(b)|}{|f'(b)|} \leq b - a.$$

Then, the Newton's method converges to the unique solution ξ of $f(x) = 0$ in $[a, b]$ for any choice $x_0 \in [a, b]$.

6 Solving systems of linear equations

1. **LU Factorisation**

We want solve $Ax = b$ where A is some known $n \times n$ matrix, b a known $n \times 1$ matrix and x is unknown.

Assumption: $Ax = b$ can be solved without any row interchange.

We define (finite) sequences of matrices $A^{(n)} = [a_{ij}^{(n)}]$ and $b^{(n)}$.

Define $A^{(1)} := A$. Let $m_{ji} := \frac{a_{ji}^{(1)}}{a_{ii}^{(i)}}$.

Define $M^{(1)}$ as

$$M^{(1)} := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -m_{21} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -m_{31} & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -m_{n-1,1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -m_{n1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, we can write $M^{(1)}A^{(1)}x = M^{(1)}b$.

Let $A^{(2)} := M^{(1)}A^{(1)}$ and $b^{(2)} = M^{(1)}b^{(1)}$.

Note that $A^{(2)}$ will be a matrix identical to the first one with respect to the last $n - 1$ columns. However,

it's first column will just have the top element non-zero and everything below will be zero.

We can similarly construct the later matrices that perform the row operations. In general, we have:

$$M^{(k)} := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & -m_{k+1,k} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & -m_{n,k} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

along with

$$A^{(k+1)} = M^{(k)} A^{(k)} = M^{(k)} \cdots M^{(1)} A, \text{ and}$$

$$b^{(k+1)} = M^{(k)} b^{(k)} = M^{(k)} \cdots M^{(1)} b.$$

Finally, set $U = A^{(n)}$ and $L = [M^{(1)}]^{-1} \cdots [M^{(n-1)}]^{-1}$.

Then, we have

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ m_{21} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ m_{31} & m_{32} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ m_{n-1,1} & m_{n-1,2} & m_{n-1,3} & \cdots & 0 \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & m_{n3} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, we have $A = LU$. Now, set $y = Ux$. We solve $Ly = b$ for y . This is easy because L is lower triangular. Then, we solve $Ux = y$ for x .

Check slide 27 of Lecture 11 for example.