

Let p^* be an approximation to a number p (not necessarily its floating point approximation). Then:

- **Absolute error:** $|p - p^*|$
- **Relative error:** $\frac{|p - p^*|}{|p|}$ (provided $p \neq 0$)

Significant Digits. The number p^* is said to approximate p to t *significant digits* (or figures) if t is the largest nonnegative integer such that

$$\frac{|p - p^*|}{|p|} \leq 5 \times 10^{-t}.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(h) &= 1 - \frac{h^2}{2!} + \frac{h^4}{4!} - \frac{h^6}{6!} + \dots \\ \sin(h) &= h - \frac{h^3}{3!} + \frac{h^5}{5!} - \frac{h^7}{7!} + \dots \\ \tan(h) &= h + \frac{h^3}{3} + \frac{2h^5}{15} + \frac{17h^7}{315} + \dots \\ \sinh(x) &= \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \\ \cosh(x) &= \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \\ e^h &= 1 + h + \frac{h^2}{2!} + \frac{h^3}{3!} + \frac{h^4}{4!} + \dots \\ \ln(1+x) &= x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots\end{aligned}$$

Suppose $\{\beta_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ is a sequence known to converge to 0 and $\{\alpha_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ a sequence that converges to a value $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

If there exists a constant $K > 0$ such that

$$|\alpha_n - \alpha| \leq K|\beta_n| \quad \text{for large } n,$$

then we say that $\{\alpha_n\}$ converges to α with **rate of convergence** $\mathcal{O}(\beta_n)$. This is denoted as:

$$\alpha_n = \alpha + \mathcal{O}(\beta_n).$$

Order of Convergence. Let $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ be a sequence with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ and $p_n \neq p$ for all n . If there exist positive constants λ and α such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|p_{n+1} - p|}{|p_n - p|^\alpha} = \lambda,$$

then we say that $\{p_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ *converges to p with order α and constant λ* .

- In general, the larger α , the more rapid the convergence.
- The constant λ affects this speed, but generally it is not as important as the order α .

The following statements are equivalent for a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$:

- $\det(A) \neq 0$
- The system $Ax = 0$ has a unique solution $x = 0$ (i.e., the column vector with all zero entries)
- The system $Ax = b$ has a unique solution for any n -dimensional column vector b
- The matrix A is *nonsingular*, that is, A^{-1} exists

If GE can be performed on the system $Ax = b$ *without row interchanges*, then the matrix A can be factored as:

$$A = LU, \quad \Rightarrow \quad L(Ux) = b$$

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. A is said to be **strictly diagonally dominant** if

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n |a_{ij}| \quad \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, n,$$

A *strictly diagonally dominant matrix* A is *nonsingular*. Moreover, in this case, GE can be performed on any linear system $Ax = b$ without row or column *interchanges*, and the computations will be robust to *round-off errors*.

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is **positive definite**, then:

- A is *symmetric*, i.e. $A = A^\top$.
- $\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} > 0$ for all nonzero $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- A is *nonsingular*.
- $a_{ii} > 0$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- $\max_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} |a_{ij}| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_{ii}|$.
- $(a_{ij})^2 < a_{ii}a_{jj}$ for each $i \neq j$.

Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality. For each $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$|\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y}| = \left| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right| \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right)^{1/2} = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \|\mathbf{y}\|_2.$$

Matrix Norms and Distances. A *matrix norm* on $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a function $\|\cdot\| : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$:

- $\|\mathbf{A}\| \geq 0$,
- $\|\mathbf{A}\| = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$,
- $\|\alpha \mathbf{A}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{A}\|$,
- $\|\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| + \|\mathbf{B}\|$ (triangle inequality),
- $\|\mathbf{AB}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{B}\|$ (submultiplicative property).

Spectral radius $\rho(A)$ of a matrix A is defined by

$$\rho(A) = \max |\lambda|,$$

where λ is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} .

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Then,

$$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho(A^\top A)}.$$

Furthermore, for any natural norm $\|\cdot\|$, we have

$$\rho(A) \leq \|A\|.$$

Condition Number (ℓ_2 norm). Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be nonsingular. The condition number of A (w.r.t. ℓ_2) is

$$\kappa(A) = \|A\|_2 \|A^{-1}\|_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_{\max}(A^\top A)}{\lambda_{\min}(A^\top A)}},$$

where $\lambda_{\max}(A^\top A)$ and $\lambda_{\min}(A^\top A)$ are the largest and smallest eigenvalues (in absolute value) of $A^\top A$.

- Well-conditioned if $\kappa(A) \approx 1$.
- Ill-conditioned if $\kappa(A) \gg 1$.

$$A = D - L - U \quad \text{for iterative}$$

1. **Jacobi:**

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

2. **Gauss-Seidel:**

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

3. **Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR):**

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

For any $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^\infty$ defined by the iteration

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = T\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{c}$$

converges to the unique solution of

$$\mathbf{x} = T\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}$$

if and only if $\rho(T) < 1$.

Newton's Method.

Given a function $f(x) \in C^2[a, b]$, Newton's method generates a sequence:

$$p_n = p_{n-1} - \frac{f(p_{n-1})}{f'(p_{n-1})}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Convergence: Quadratic if $f(p) = 0$, $f'(p) \neq 0$, and p_0 is close to the root.

Secant Method (derivative-free):

$$p_n = p_{n-1} - f(p_{n-1}) \cdot \frac{p_{n-1} - p_{n-2}}{f(p_{n-1}) - f(p_{n-2})}$$

Convergence: Superlinear, with order approximately $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618$

Modified Newton Method (for root of multiplicity m).

If $f(x)$ has a root of multiplicity m at p , standard Newton converges only linearly.

To restore quadratic convergence:

$$p_n = p_{n-1} - \frac{mf(p_{n-1})}{f'(p_{n-1})}, \quad (\text{if multiplicity } m \text{ is known})$$

Alternative: Apply Newton to $\mu(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$. This leads to:

$$p_n = p_{n-1} - \frac{f(p_{n-1})f'(p_{n-1})}{(f'(p_{n-1}))^2 - f(p_{n-1})f''(p_{n-1})}$$

Note: Requires second derivative $f''(x)$; restores quadratic convergence.

Lagrange Interpolation Formula.

Given $n+1$ distinct data points $(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$, the unique polynomial $P(x) \in \mathbb{P}_n$ that interpolates the data is:

$$P(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) L_j(x)$$

where the Lagrange basis polynomials $L_j(x)$ are defined by:

$$L_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n \\ k \neq j}} \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k}$$

Numerical Differentiation (Equally Spaced Nodes, $n=2$). If $x_1 = x_0 + h$ and $x_2 = x_0 + 2h$, then:

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{1}{h} \left(-\frac{3}{2}f(x_0) + 2f(x_0 + h) - \frac{1}{2}f(x_0 + 2h) \right) + \frac{h^2}{3} f^{(3)}(\xi(x_0)),$$

$$f'(x_1) = \frac{1}{h} \left(-\frac{1}{2}f(x_1 - h) + \frac{1}{2}f(x_1 + h) \right) - \frac{h^2}{6} f^{(3)}(\xi(x_1)),$$

$$f'(x_2) = \frac{1}{h} \left(\frac{1}{2}f(x_2 - 2h) - 2f(x_2 - h) + \frac{3}{2}f(x_2) \right) + \frac{h^2}{3} f^{(3)}(\xi(x_2)).$$

Divided Differences & Newton Form (compact). Let distinct nodes x_0, \dots, x_n . Define divided differences recursively

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

The Newton interpolant is

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f[x_0, \dots, x_k] \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} (x - x_j),$$

Cubic Spline Interpolation Types. Given data points $(x_0, y_0), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, a cubic spline consists of piecewise cubics $S_i(x)$ with continuous first and second derivatives.

- **Natural (Free) Spline:**

$$S''(x_0) = 0 \text{ and } S''(x_n) = 0$$

- **Clamped (Complete) Spline:**

$$S'(x_0) = f'(x_0) \text{ and } S'(x_n) = f'(x_n) \text{ (derivatives specified)}$$

- **Not-a-Knot Spline:**

$$S''' \text{ is continuous at } x_1 \text{ and } x_{n-1} \text{ (i.e., } S_0'''(x_1) = S_1'''(x_1), \\ S_{n-2}'''(x_{n-1}) = S_{n-1}'''(x_{n-1}))$$

Numerical Differentiation via Lagrange Interpolation.

Let $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \in [a, b]$ and suppose $f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$. Then the Lagrange interpolation formula gives:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(x_k) L_k(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi(x))}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$$

for some $\xi(x) \in [a, b]$, where $L_k(x)$ are the Lagrange basis polynomials. Differentiating and evaluating at $x = x_j$, we obtain:

$$f'(x_j) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(x_k) L'_k(x_j) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n \\ k \neq j}} (x_j - x_k)$$

This is an $(n+1)$ -point formula for estimating $f'(x_j)$ from values $f(x_0), \dots, f(x_n)$.

Gaussian Quadrature (5-point Rule).

Gaussian quadrature approximates

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

where x_i are the roots of the n th Legendre polynomial $P_n(x)$, and w_i are weights.

Change of Interval: To apply over interval $[a, b]$, transform:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} \int_{-1}^1 f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}t + \frac{a+b}{2}\right) dt$$

where the *nodes* x_i are the n distinct zeros of the Legendre polynomial $P_n(x)$ (orthogonal on $[-1, 1]$ with weight 1), and the *weights* are

$$w_i = \frac{2}{(1 - x_i^2) [P'_n(x_i)]^2}.$$

Legendre polynomials (Bonnet's recursion).

$$P_0(x) = 1, \quad P_1(x) = x,$$

$$(n+1)P_{n+1}(x) = (2n+1)xP_n(x) - nP_{n-1}(x) \quad (n \geq 1).$$

Useful derivative identity (for weights):

$$P'_n(x) = \frac{n}{1-x^2} (P_{n-1}(x) - xP_n(x)).$$

Degree of Precision (Exactness). A quadrature rule

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

is said to have *degree of precision* m if it integrates exactly every polynomial $p(x)$ with $\deg p \leq m$, but fails for some polynomial of degree $m+1$.

For Gaussian quadrature with n nodes, the degree of precision is $2n-1$.

Lipschitz Condition. A function $f(t, y)$ satisfies a Lipschitz condition in y if there exists $L > 0$ such that

$$|f(t, y_1) - f(t, y_2)| \leq L|y_1 - y_2| \quad \text{for all } y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}, a \leq t \leq b.$$

Then we say f is *Lipschitz in y* . Or, sufficient condition $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(t, y) \right| \leq L$

Existence and Uniqueness Theorem. Let $D = \{(t, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : a \leq t \leq b, -\infty < y < \infty\}$. Suppose $f(t, y)$ is continuous on D , and Lipschitz in y . Then the initial value problem:

$$y'(t) = f(t, y), \quad y(a) = \alpha, \quad a \leq t \leq b,$$

has a unique solution $y(t)$ on $[a, b]$.

Well-posedness: The same conditions (continuity and Lipschitz) imply the IVP is *well posed*: small changes in inputs (e.g. initial value or $f(t, y)$) lead to small changes in solution $y(t)$.

Euler's Method (for IVPs).

Consider the initial value problem (IVP):

$$y'(t) = f(t, y), \quad y(a) = \alpha, \quad a \leq t \leq b.$$

Let $h > 0$ be the *step size*, assumed constant for simplicity:

$$h = \frac{b-a}{N}, \quad t_j = a + jh, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, N.$$

We seek approximations $y_j \approx y(t_j)$ via:

$$y_{j+1} = y_j + h f(t_j, y_j), \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, N-1.$$

Remarks:

- Local truncation error: $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$
- Global truncation error: $\mathcal{O}(h)$ (first-order method)
- Variable step sizes h_j may also be used when needed.

Runge-Kutta Methods (for IVPs).

Consider the IVP

$$y'(t) = f(t, y), \quad y(a) = \alpha, \quad a \leq t \leq b$$

with step size $h = \frac{b-a}{N}$, $t_i = a + ih$.

General explicit two-stage RK method:

$$k_1 = h f(t_i, y_i), \\ k_2 = h f(t_i + \alpha h, y_i + \beta k_1), \\ y_{i+1} = y_i + a k_1 + b k_2.$$

Choose a, b, α, β to maximize local order.

Two common $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$ choices:

- **Midpoint method:** $a = 0, b = 1, \alpha = \beta = \frac{1}{2}$

$$k_1 = h f(t_i, y_i), \quad k_2 = h f\left(t_i + \frac{h}{2}, y_i + \frac{k_1}{2}\right), \quad y_{i+1} = y_i + k_2.$$

- **Modified Euler:** $a = b = \frac{1}{2}, \alpha = \beta = 1$

$$k_1 = h f(t_i, y_i), \quad k_2 = h f(t_i + h, y_i + k_1), \quad y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{k_1 + k_2}{2}.$$