

Solution Methods for $\underline{A}\underline{x}=\underline{b}$

$\underline{A}\underline{x}=\underline{b}$ might arise from linear system of equations, regression, etc.

(1) LU-Decomposition: $\underline{A} = \underline{L}\underline{U}$ \underline{L} = lower triangular
 \underline{U} = upper triangular

To get $\underline{A} = \underline{L}\underline{U}$, used Gaussian elimination

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{A}\underline{x} &= \underline{b} \\ \underline{L}\underline{U}\underline{x} &= \underline{b} \\ \underline{U}\underline{x} &= \underline{L}^{-1}\underline{b} \\ \underline{x} &= \underline{U}^{-1}\underline{L}^{-1}\underline{b}\end{aligned}$$

Get LU Decomp
Forward Substitution
Backward Sub,

(2) QR Decomp: $\underline{A} = \underline{Q}\underline{R}$ $\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{I}$
 \underline{R} = upper triangular

To get QR: Classical Gram-Schmidt more stable & expensive
Modified Gram-Schmidt
Householder

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{A}\underline{x} &= \underline{b} \\ \underline{Q}\underline{R}\underline{x} &= \underline{b} \\ \underline{R}\underline{x} &= \underline{Q}^T \underline{b} \\ \underline{x} &= \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{Q}^T \underline{b}\end{aligned}$$

Get QR Decomp.
Orthogonalize
Forward Sub

③ Singular Value Decomp.

$$\underline{A} = \underline{U} \underline{\Sigma} \underline{V}^T$$

$$\underline{U}^T \underline{U} = \underline{U} \underline{U}^T = \underline{I}$$

$$\underline{V}^T \underline{V} = \underline{V} \underline{V}^T = \underline{I}$$

$\underline{\Sigma}$ = Diagonal matrix

Methods: Golub - Kahan,
Lawson - Hanson - Chan

$$\underline{A} \underline{x} = \underline{b}$$

$$\underline{U} \underline{\Sigma} \underline{V}^T \underline{x} = \underline{b}$$

$$\underline{\Sigma} \underline{V}^T \underline{x} = \underline{U}^T \underline{b}$$

$$\underline{V}^T \underline{x} = \underline{\Sigma}^{-1} \underline{U}^T \underline{b}$$

$$\underline{x} = \underline{V} \underline{\Sigma}^{-1} \underline{U}^T \underline{b}$$

Cost SVD

Due to $\underline{U}^T \underline{U} = \underline{I}$

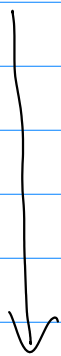
Since $\underline{\Sigma}^{-1}$ is cheap

Since $\underline{V} \underline{V}^T = \underline{I}$

Methods

Increasing
Stability ↓

Increasing
Cost



LU - Crout/Gaussian

QR - Classical Cr-S

QR - Modified Cr-S

QR - Householder

SVD - G-K / LHC

Note: Some automatically solve the
normal equations

$$\underline{A}^T \underline{A} \underline{x} = \underline{A}^T \underline{b}$$

Scalar Differential Equation Basics

A differential equation is simply one which involves one or more derivatives.

Independent variables are the "input"

Dependent variables are the "output"

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = t^2 \quad \rightarrow \quad y(t) \text{ is the unknown fn}$$

↑ ↑
Independent variable
Dependent variable

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \quad \rightarrow \quad u(x,t) \text{ is the unknown fn}$$

↑ ↑
Independent variable
Dependent Var,

Focus on scalar equations: the dependent variable (when evaluated), results in a scalar,

Classification:

- Ordinary Differential Eq (ODE): If there
(i) one independent variable
- Partial Differential Eq (PDE): If there
are two or more independent
variables

- Order: The highest Derivative in the ODE or PDE
- Homogeneous Equation: If the terms which do not include the dependent variable are zero.
If not homogeneous, then called non-homogeneous.

- Linear / non-linear: Any differential equation where multiple solutions obey the superposition principle are linear.
Otherwise non-linear,

If $y_1(t)$ & $y_2(t)$ are both solutions, then if $C_1 y_1(t) + C_2 y_2(t)$ is also a solution \rightarrow linear,

Notation Note: for simplicity we write

$$\frac{du}{dt} = u_t \quad , \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = u_{tt} \quad , \quad \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x \partial t^2} = u_{xtt} \quad , \dots$$

For ODEs, write $\frac{du}{dt} = u_t = \dot{u}$, $\frac{d^2 u}{dt^2} = u_{tt} = \ddot{u}$

ex.)

Type	Eq	Dep Var	Ind Var	Order	Homogeneous	Linear
ODE	$y''' + y'' + x = 0$	y	x	3		
ODE	$x''' + x'' + x = 0$	x	y	3	✓	
PDE	$u_{xx} + u_{xy} = u_{tt}$	u	x, y, t	2	✓	✓
PDE	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 5$	u	x, y	2		✓

Another check on homogeneous:

If you set the dependent variable to zero, does the equation equal zero?

Operations

Let $\phi(x, y, z)$ be a scalar field,

$\underline{u}(x, y, z) = (u(x, y, z), v(x, y, z), w(x, y, z))$ be a vector field,

(1) Gradient : $\nabla =$ Derivative w.r.t, x , y , and z - directions

$$\nabla \phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_x \\ \phi_y \\ \phi_z \end{bmatrix} \quad \nabla \underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x & v_x & w_x \\ u_y & v_y & w_y \\ u_z & v_z & w_z \end{bmatrix}$$

Gradient increases the dimension of the object.

(2) Divergence : $\nabla \cdot ()$ Not applicable to scalar fields

$\nabla \cdot \phi$ Does not exist

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_x & \partial_y & \partial_z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ w \end{bmatrix} = u_x + v_y + w_z$$

③ Laplacian: $\nabla \cdot \nabla = \nabla^2 (= \Delta)$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \nabla \phi &= (\partial_x, \partial_y, \partial_z) \cdot (\phi_x, \phi_y, \phi_z) \\ &= \phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} + \phi_{zz}\end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla \underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz} \\ v_{xx} + v_{yy} + v_{zz} \\ w_{xx} + w_{yy} + w_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

④ Curl: $\nabla \times ()$ Only vectors & above

$$\nabla \times \underline{u} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \hat{e}_i & \hat{e}_j & \hat{e}_k \\ \partial_x & \partial_y & \partial_z \\ u & v & w \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_j u_k$$

$\epsilon_{ijk} = \text{Levi-Civita Operation}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} w_y - v_z \\ u_z - w_x \\ v_x - u_y \end{bmatrix}$$

In 2D: $\nabla \times \underline{u} = (v_x - u_y) \underline{e}_z$

These are used to build
(primarily) PDEs,

Operation Output

<u>Operation</u>	<u>Scalar input</u>	<u>Vector Input</u>
Gradient	Vector	Tensor
Divergence	Not defined	Scalar
Laplacian	Scalar	Vector
Curl	Not defined	Vector

ex.) let $\underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} xy \\ \sin x \end{bmatrix}$, $\phi = zx^2 + 2y + e^{-z}$

$$\nabla \phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_x \\ \phi_y \\ \phi_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2xz \\ 2 \\ -e^{-z} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{u} = (xy)_x + (\sin x)_y = y$$

$$\nabla \times \underline{u} = ((\sin x)_x - (xy)_y) \underline{e}_z = (\cos x - x) \underline{e}_z$$

$$\nabla^2 \phi = (zx^2)_{xx} + (2y)_{yy} + (e^{-z})_{zz} = 2z + e^{-z}$$

$$\nabla^2 \underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} (xy)_{xx} + (xy)_{yy} \\ (\sin x)_{xx} + (\sin x)_{yy} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\sin x \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution of Linear ODEs,

In general, the complete solution to a linear ODE can be written as the sum of a solution to the homogeneous part of the ODE plus the solution to the non-homogeneous part,

Let $g(x(t)) = f(t)$ be the linear ODE

ex.) if $\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} - 3 = \sin(t)$

$$g(x(t)) = \ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} - 3 \quad f(t) = \sin(t)$$

Let $x_h(t)$ solve the homogeneous part of $g(x(t)) = f(t)$:

$$\Rightarrow g(x_h(t)) = 0$$

Let $x_p(t)$ solve the non-homogeneous part:

$$\Rightarrow g(x_p(t)) = f(t)$$

Then the complete solution is
 $x(t) = x_h(t) + x_p(t)$

$x_p(t)$ called the particular solution.

Why? Recall that linear also means
 $f(a+b) = f(a) + f(b)$

$$g(x(t)) = g(x_h + x_p) = g(x_h) + g(x_p) \\ = 0 + f(t)$$

Now, in general there will be multiple homogeneous solutions,

A linear ODE of order n will have n homogeneous solutions,

Let $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)$ be the many homogeneous solutions,

$$\text{Then } x_h(t) = C_1 x_1(t) + C_2 x_2(t) + \dots + C_n x_n(t)$$

To find C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n we need n additional conditions,

If the conditions on the dependent variables all occur at the same time \rightarrow Initial Conditions of the ODE is an initial value problem (IVP)

If the conditions spatially \rightarrow boundary conditions, the ODE is a boundary value problem (BVP)

$$\text{ex.) } x y_{xx} + y^2 = 0 \quad \text{w/ } y=1 \text{ at } x=0 \\ y_x=0 \text{ at } x=0$$

An IVP

$$\text{ex.) } x_{tt} + x = 0 \quad \text{w/ } x=1 \text{ at } t=0 \\ x=1 \text{ at } t=1$$

A BVP

To simplify things, look at 2nd-order ODEs.

$$a x_{tt} + b x_t + c x = a \ddot{x} + b \dot{x} + c x = f(t) \quad \text{w/} \\ 2 \text{ associated conditions.}$$

① Find $x_h(t)$: Solution to $a \ddot{x}_h + b \dot{x}_h + c x_h = 0$

Equations of the form $a \ddot{x}_h + b \dot{x}_h + c x_h = 0$

Have solutions of the form

$$x_h = A e^{\alpha t}$$

$$\text{Try } x_h(t) = C e^{\alpha t} \rightarrow \dot{x}_h = \alpha C e^{\alpha t} = \alpha x_h$$

$$\ddot{x}_h = \alpha^2 C e^{\alpha t} = \alpha^2 x_h$$

$$a\ddot{x}_h + b\dot{x}_h + cx_h = 0$$

$$a\alpha^2 x_h + b\alpha x_h + cx_h = 0$$

$$(a\alpha^2 + b\alpha + c)x_h = 0$$

We want the non-trivial solution, $x_h \neq 0$

$$\Rightarrow a\alpha^2 + b\alpha + c = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \quad \text{form the } \alpha \text{ values that make } e^{\alpha t} \text{ a homogeneous sol.}$$

Three Cases:

① $b^2 - 4ac > 0 \rightarrow 2 \text{ real \& distinct roots } \alpha_1, \alpha_2,$

$$\Rightarrow x_h(t) = C_1 e^{\alpha_1 t} + C_2 e^{\alpha_2 t}$$

② $b^2 - 4ac = 0 \Rightarrow \text{One repeated root of } \alpha_1 = \frac{-b}{2a}$

Clearly, $e^{\alpha_1 t}$ is one solution, but

what about the other?

$$\text{Try } x_2 = t x_1 = t e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$\text{Check. } \ddot{x}_2 = e^{\alpha_1 t} + t \alpha_1 e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$\ddot{x}_2 = \alpha_1 e^{\alpha_1 t} + \alpha_1 e^{\alpha_1 t} + t \alpha_1^2 e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \ddot{x}_2 + b \dot{x}_2 + c x_2$$

$$= 2 \alpha_1 a e^{\alpha_1 t} + a \alpha_1^2 t e^{\alpha_1 t} + b e^{\alpha_1 t} + b \alpha_1 t e^{\alpha_1 t} + c t e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$= (2 \alpha_1 a + b) e^{\alpha_1 t} + (a \alpha_1^2 + b \alpha_1 + c) t e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$= \left(2 \left(-\frac{b}{2a} \right) a + b \right) e^{\alpha_1 t} + (0) t e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$= (0) e^{\alpha_1 t} + (0) t e^{\alpha_1 t} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_n(t) = C_1 e^{\alpha_1 t} + C_2 t e^{\alpha_1 t}$$

$$= e^{\alpha_1 t} (C_1 + C_2 t)$$

Note!! This only works, because $b^2 - 4ac = 0$

(3) $b^2 - 4ac < 0$: Two imaginary roots:

$$\alpha_1 = p + i q \quad \alpha_2 = p - i q$$

$$\Rightarrow x_h(t) = \hat{C}_1 e^{(p+iq)t} + \hat{C}_2 e^{(p-iq)t}$$

Use the Euler Formula: $e^{i\phi} = \cos\phi + i\sin\phi$

$$\Rightarrow x_h(t) = \hat{C}_1 e^{pt} e^{iqt} + \hat{C}_2 e^{pt} e^{-iqt}$$

$$= e^{pt} [\hat{C}_1 (\cos qt + i \sin qt) + \hat{C}_2 (\cos qt - i \sin qt)]$$

$$= e^{pt} [(\hat{C}_1 + \hat{C}_2) \cos qt + i(\hat{C}_1 - \hat{C}_2) \sin qt]$$

$$= e^{pt} (C_1 \cos(qt) + C_2 \sin(qt)) = x_h(t)$$