

MÉSZÁROS JÓZSEFNÉ,

NUMERICAL METHODS

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A Műszaki Földtudományi Alapszak tananyagainak kifejlesztése a
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V. MATHEMATICAL NOTIONS

DEFINITION 1

The set $L = \{x, y, z, \dots\}$ is called **linear vector space** if the addition and the multiplication by real number are defined on the set L and these operations have the following properties:

$$x + y = y + x$$

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$

$$\exists 0 \in L, \text{ that } 0 + x = x \quad (0 \text{ is called zero element})$$

$$\exists -x \in L, \text{ that } x + (-x) = 0 \quad (-x \text{ is called opposite element})$$

and

$$\alpha(\beta x) = (\alpha\beta)x$$

$$1 \cdot x = x$$

$$(\alpha + \beta)x = \alpha x + \beta x$$

$$\alpha(x + y) = \alpha x + \alpha y.$$

The elements of such a set L are called vectors.

Examples

a) Let

$$L = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n), (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n), (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n), \dots\},$$

where a_i, b_i, c_i, \dots are real numbers, that is, L is the set of such "objects" which have n "coordinates". If the addition and multiplication by number are defined by the traditional rules, that is,

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

$$\alpha(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (\alpha a_1, \alpha a_2, \dots, \alpha a_n),$$

then the mentioned properties can be proved easily. This linear space is usually denoted by \mathfrak{R}^n .

b) Let the interval $[a, b]$ be given and denote L the set of the continuous functions on $[a, b]$. If the addition

$f(x) + g(x)$ and the multiplication by number $\alpha f(x)$ are defined by the traditional rules, then the required properties can be proved easily. This linear space is usually denoted by $\mathbb{C}[a, b]$.

DEFINITION 2

The elements $x, y, \dots, w \in L$ (where L is a vector space and the number of the given vectors is finite) form a **linearly independent system** if

$$\alpha x + \beta y + \dots + \lambda w = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha = \beta = \dots = \lambda = 0.$$

Examples

a) In the vector space \mathfrak{R}^4 the vectors $a = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ and $b = (0, 0, 1, 0)$ form a linearly independent system, since the zero element $(0, 0, 0, 0)$ can only be obtained in the form $0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot b$.

b) In the vector space $\mathbb{C}[a, b]$ the functions x, x^2, x^3 form a linearly independent system, since the zero element (the identically zero function) can only be obtained in the form $0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3$.

DEFINITION 3

The linearly independent system formed by the vectors $x, y, \dots, w \in L$ is a **basis** of L , if arbitrary element of L can be obtained as a **linear combination of the elements** x, y, \dots, w , that is, in the form

$$\alpha x + \beta y + \dots + \lambda w.$$

Examples

a) In the linear space \mathfrak{R}^3 the vectors $(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)$ form a well-known basis. Another possible basis is given e.g. by vectors $(2, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)$.

b) Denote P the set of the polynomials of degree at most 2. The traditional addition and multiplication by number do not lead out from the set, P is a vector space.

The elements (functions, vectors) $1, x, x^2$ form a basis of P , because they form a linearly independent system and at most quadratic arbitrary polynomial can be obtained in the form

$$\alpha \cdot 1 + \beta \cdot x + \gamma x^2.$$

Another basis is given e.g. by elements $1, x - 1, x^2$.

DEFINITION 4

If we can order real numbers α, β, \dots to all elements x, y, \dots of the linear space L

$$\|x\|, \|y\|, \dots$$

respectively in such a way that

$$\|x\| \geq 0 \quad , \quad \|x\| = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$$

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$$\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|x\| \quad ,$$

then the vector space \mathcal{L} is called **normed space** and the real number $\|x\|$ is called the **norm of the vector** x .

Examples

a) Define the quantities

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_1 = |a_1| + |a_2| + \dots + |a_n|$$

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_2 = (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2)^{1/2}$$

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i|$$

for each element $a = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ of the linear space \mathfrak{R}^n . These quantities define three different norms which are called norm number 1, norm number 2 (or Euclidean norm) and norm number infinity.

b) Denote M_n the set of the real (square) matrices of order n . M_n form a linear space with the traditional addition and multiplication by number. The quantities

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_1 = \max_j \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}|$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda^*},$$

where λ^* is the largest eigenvalue of the matrix $A^T A$ and

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_\infty = \max_i \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$$

define three different norms. The norms belonging to the same notation (the same name) in a) and b) are called compatible, because such pairs have also the properties

$$\|\mathbf{Ax}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{x}\|,$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\| = \sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|=1} \|\mathbf{Ax}\|$$

for any $x \in \mathfrak{R}^n$, $A \in M_n$ beside the properties appearing in the definition. By the latter property we could

have defined the above-mentioned norms of the matrix A as the smallest upper bound of the suitable vector norm $\|Ax\|$ under the condition $\|x\|=1$. In our lecture notes we supposed compatible norms when using $\|Ax\|$ every time.

c) In the vector space $C[a, b]$ we can define norms e.g. by equalities

$$\|f(x)\|_2 = \left(\int_a^b f^2(x) dx \right)^{1/2},$$

$$\|f(x)\|_\infty = \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|.$$

Here we mention that the distance of the elements x, y of a normed space (just like in the traditional case) can be measured by the quantity

$$\|x + (-y)\| = \|x - y\|.$$

DEFINITION 5

If we can order a real number c to arbitrary two elements x, y of the linear space L in such a way that

$$(x, y) = (y, x)$$

$$(x + y, z) = (x, z) + (y, z)$$

$$(\alpha x, y) = \alpha(x, y)$$

$$(x, x) \geq 0, \quad (x, x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0,$$

then the vector space L is called **Euclidean space** and the real number (x, y) is called the scalar product of the elements (vectors) x and y .

Examples

a) Let $a = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ and $b = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ be two arbitrary elements of \mathfrak{R}^n . Then the quantity

$$ab = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \dots + a_nb_n$$

defines the traditional scalar product on \mathfrak{R}^n .

b) If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are two arbitrary elements of $C[a, b]$, then the quantity

$$(f, g) = \langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$$

defines a scalar product.

DEFINITION 6

The matrix A of order n is called **positive definite matrix** if

$$x^T Ax > 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad x \neq 0.$$

DEFINITION 7

The matrix A of order n is called a **negative definite matrix** if

$$x^T Ax < 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad x \neq 0.$$

DEFINITION 8

The matrix A of order n is called a **positive semidefinite matrix** if

$$x^T Ax \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

DEFINITION 9

The matrix A of order n is called a **negative semidefinite matrix** if

$$x^T Ax \leq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

DEFINITION 10

Denote z the limit of the convergent sequence of real numbers x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots . If there exist numbers C_1, C_2 such that for arbitrary k

$$C_1 |x_k - z|^p \leq |x_{k+1} - z| \leq C_2 |x_k - z|^p, \quad ,$$

where $p \geq 1$, then we say: the sequence $\{x_k\}$ converges to z in order p . If only the left (right) side inequality is fulfilled then we say: **the order of convergence** is at most (at least) p .

Examples

a) For $p = 2$ (quadratic convergence), which often appears in numerical methods, we illustrate the rapidity of convergence on a simple example. Suppose that $C_2 = 1$ and the distance of x_k and z is 0.1. Then (by using the right side inequality):

$$|x_{k+1} - z| \leq 10^{-2}, \quad |x_{k+2} - z| \leq 10^{-4}, \quad |x_{k+3} - z| \leq 10^{-8}, \quad \dots \quad \text{which}$$

means a surprising rapidity compared to the traditional sequences.

b) If we use the vector sequence x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots ($x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$) instead of the number sequence x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots ($x_i \in \mathbb{R}$) and we use a norm instead of absolute value, then the previous definition can be repeat with the inequality

$$C_1 \|x_k - z\|^p \leq \|x_{k+1} - z\| \leq C_2 \|x_k - z\|^p.$$

DEFINITION 11

Let $f(x), h(x): [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x), h(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in [a, b]$. Then the equality

$$f(x) = \sigma(h(x))$$

(where σ can be said as **capital ordo**) means there exists positive constant C such that

$$|f(x)| \leq C|h(x)|, \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

Examples

a) Let z be the limit of the sequence x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots ($x_i \in \mathbb{R}$). Then the equality

$$|x_k - z| = \sigma(q^k), \quad \text{where } 0 < q < 1,$$

means that the error of $x_k \leq Cq^k$, where C is independent on k . In other words, it means that "the error is proportional to q^k ".

b) Let x_k be the previous sequence. Then the equality (supposed it is true)

$$|x_k - z| = \sigma(h^s)$$

(where $s \geq 1$ is a constant and $h = h(k) \rightarrow 0$ if $k \rightarrow \infty$) means that "the error is proportional to h^s ".

c) Sometimes we use the sign σ for truncation of a polynomial. E.g. the equality

$$p(x) = 2x^4 + \sigma(x^3), \quad \text{where } x \geq 0,$$

means that

$$|p(x) - 2x^4| \leq C(x^3),$$

where $C > 0$ is independent on x . Such an application of the sign σ can be found e.g. in elimination methods.

