Consider the 2nd-order ODE given by

Write

$$-y''(x_i) \approx \frac{-y(x_{i\cdot 1}) - 2y(x_i) - y(x_{i+1})}{h^2}$$

$$y'(x_i) \approx \frac{y(x_{i+1}) - y(x_{i-1})}{2h}$$

$$y'(x_i) \approx \frac{y(x_{i+1}) - y(x_i)}{2h}$$

$$y'(x_i) \approx \frac{y(x_{i+1}) - y(x_i)}{2h}$$

M

we had

$$\frac{-9'' + \sigma 9' = f}{\frac{4^{2} - 9^{2} - 9^{2} - 9^{2}}{h^{2}} + \sigma \left(\frac{9^{2} - 9^{2} - 9^{2} - 9^{2}}{2^{2} h}\right) \cdot f_{i}}{\frac{5^{2} - 9^{2} - 9^{2}}{h^{2}} + \sigma \left(\frac{9^{2} - 9^{2} - 9^{2}}{2^{2} h}\right) \cdot f_{i}}{h^{2}}$$

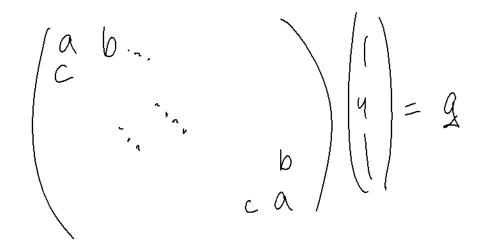
This is the difference approximation to the solution

$$-\left(1+\frac{5h}{2}\right)y_{i+1}+2y_{i}-\left(1-\frac{5h}{2}\right)y_{i-1}=h_{i}^{3}$$

$$w_{i}+h_{i}=f(y_{i})$$

Just by rearranging. Now we have a system of linear equations

This gives us a tridiagonal matrix



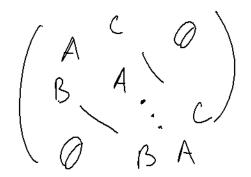
(constant diagonal is
$$Ty = g$$
 called Toeplitz)

We had $-y'' + \sigma y' = \frac{1}{2}$; note that when $\delta = 0$, the tridiagonal matrix is symmetric

What can be said about

$$|y(x_i)-y_i|$$
?
How good is our a?

In the future we will talk about matrices of the form



Block Toeplitz Matrix

With all matrices p x p

Data Fitting

Suppose we have a data set

$$\{x_{i},y_{i}\}_{i=1}^{n}$$

And we want to approximate the data by a polynomial

Do the following:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - p_\ell(x_i))^2 = min$$

A classic least-squares problem

Construct a matrix X like the following;

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{1} & x_{1}^{2} & -x_{1}^{2} \\ 1 & x_{2} & x_{2}^{2} & -x_{2}^{2} \\ 1 & x_{n} & x_{n}^{2} & -x_{n}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

It has dimensions $n \times (l+1)$

Also have a vector

$$\widetilde{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

In matrix terms, we are looking at

$$(\tilde{y}-Xa)^{T}(y-Xa)=:Y(a)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Psi(a) &= (q - X \bar{a})^{T} (\bar{y} - X a) \\
&= y^{T} y - y^{T} X a - a^{T} X^{T} y \\
&+ a^{T} X^{T} X a
\end{aligned}$$

We must have $y^TXa = a^TX^Ty$

So the above is equivalent to

look at the gradient

$$dY_{a} = -2X^{T}y + 2X^{T}Xa$$

$$set \quad grad \quad \ell = 0, \quad we get$$

$$X^{T}Xa = X^{T}y$$

Called the "normal equations"

Consider a new vector x^r given by

$$x^{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{pmatrix}$$
 not sure

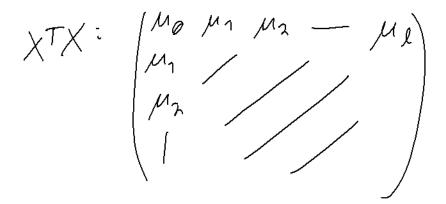
Now, note that

$$(X^{T}X)_{i,1,j,1} = (x^{i+1})^{T}x^{j+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k}^{i+j} = M_{i+j}$$

In other words, the (i+1,j+1) element of X^TX only depends on those i+1, j+1 elements

this gives



this is called a "Hankel" matrix

It remains to show that $\ell(\hat{a})$ is the minimum, but we won't do it now

In general, the above method described is actually awful for data fitting --e.g. do we really want to fit a single polynomial over the whole interval? That's why ore might use splines

If the x_i 's vary greatly, we might want to write

Maybe write this instead as

$$p_{\ell}(x) = \log q_{\theta}(x) + \dots + \log q_{\ell}(x)$$
 $q_{k}(x)$ polynomial of degree k

i.e. choose a different basis of polynomials (orthogonal)

We'll have matrices of the form

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} g_{0}(x_{1}) & g_{1}(x_{1}) & - & g_{2}(x_{1}) \\ & & & & & & & \\ g_{0}(x_{n}) & g_{1}(x_{n}) & - & g_{2}(x_{n}) \end{pmatrix}$$

Now, instead of forming

$$X^TXq:X^Ty$$

we'll have

What's true about Q^TQ ? we have



by orthogonality

Another aspect of this problem (a dynamic situation) say

$$X_{l+1} = (\hat{x}^0, \hat{x}^1, ..., \hat{x}^l)$$

$$X_{l+1} : (X_{l} : \hat{x}^{l+1})$$

$$X_{l+1} : (X_{l} : \hat{x}^{l+1})$$

$$X_{l+1} : (X_{l} : \hat{x}^{l+1})$$

Now we have to recompute all the $-\frac{\kappa^{-1}}{6}$ --but if we choose orthogonal Q, then:

therefore, when we solve for the new system of equations,



So we don't have to change the old coefficients

Often, we have constraints, like

$$C^T \widetilde{a} = \widetilde{o}$$

or even constraining length:

$$a^{T}a = a^{2}$$

Anyway, we wanted to minimize

$$\varrho(a) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\gamma_i - p_k(x_i))^2$$

or maybe

or

Start with a vector $\widetilde{\mathcal{F}}_{/}$ then find a function satisfying

$$\begin{cases}
\hat{x} > 0 \\
\hat{f}(\hat{x}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{x} = 0
\end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases}
\hat{x} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{x} = 0
\end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases}
\hat{x} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{x} = 0
\end{cases}$$

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\end{cases}$$

Such a function is called a norm

Some examples:

$$nu \rightarrow \gamma(\hat{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|$$

Is this a norm? Yes

The pth norm,
$$\|\hat{\chi}\|_{p}$$
 is given by
$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}|\chi_{i}|^{p}\right)^{1/p}$$

$$\|\widehat{\mathbf{x}}\|_{p} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|^{p}\right)^{1/p} \leq \left(n \max_{i} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|^{p}\right)^{1/p}$$

$$\longrightarrow \max_{i} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|$$

On the other hand,

$$\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\|_{p} \ge \left(\max_{i} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|^{p}\right)^{1/p} = \max_{i} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|$$

So
$$\|\mathbf{\hat{z}}\|_{\mathbf{A}} = \max_{\mathbf{z}} |\mathbf{z}_{i}|$$

In this class we do 1,2, ∞ ; the ∞ norm is sometimes called the Chebyshev norm

One can also do a weighted norm, in which entries are weighted componentwise:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i |x_i|^p\right)^{n}$$

The "energy norm"

Etc...

Differences and Norms

Note that

$$\|\widehat{\mathbf{x}}\| = \|(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{y}\| \le \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

$$50 \quad \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| \ge \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

and

SO

Equivalence of Norms

Say we have two norms

Suppose

$$\|\hat{x}\|_{d} \leq \|\hat{x}\|_{\beta} \leq c_{\alpha}\|\hat{x}\|_{\alpha}$$

for all $\widehat{\chi}$

For example, the 2-norm and ∞-norm

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2\right)^{1/2} \le n^{1/2} \max_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2 = n^{1/2} \|\tilde{y}_i\|_{A}$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

We talk about absolute and relative error:

Also pointwise

$$x_i - y_i - z_i$$
 then take $\|z\|_{\gamma}$

$$\frac{x_i - y_i}{x_i} = z_i, \text{ then take } \|z\|_1$$

Next time: matrix norms