Xin-She Yang



2nd Edition

# INTRODUCTION TO Computational Mathematics



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# **Preface**

Computational mathematics is essentially the foundation of modern scientific computing. Traditional ways of doing sciences consist of two major paradigms: by theory and by experiment. With the steady increase in computer power, there emerges a third paradigm of doing sciences: by computer simulation. Numerical algorithms are the very essence of any computer simulation, and computational mathematics is just the science of developing and analyzing numerical algorithms.

The science that studies numerical algorithms is numerical analysis or more broadly computational mathematics. Loosely speaking, numerical algorithms and analysis should include four categories of algorithms: numerical linear algebra, numerical optimization, numerical solutions of differential equations (ODEs and PDEs) and stochastic data modelling.

Many numerical algorithms were developed well before the computer was invented. For example, Newton's method for finding roots of nonlinear equations was developed in 1669, and Gauss quadrature for numerical integration was formulated in 1814. However, their true power and efficiency have been demonstrated again and again in modern scientific computing. Since the invention of the modern computer in the 1940s, many numerical algorithms have been developed since the 1950s. As the speed of computers increases, together with the increase in the efficiency of numerical algorithms, a diverse range of complex and challenging problems in mathematics, science and engineering can nowadays be solved numerically to very high accuracy. Numerical algorithms have become more important than ever.

The topics of computational mathematics are broad and the related literature is vast. It is often a daunting task for beginners to find the right book(s) and to learn the right algorithms that are widely used in computational mathematics. Even for lecturers and educators, it is no trivial task to decide what algorithms to teach and to provide balanced coverage of a wide range of topics, because there are so many algorithms to choose from.

The first edition of this book was published by World Scientific Publishing in 2008 and it was well received. Many universities courses used it as a main reference. Constructive feedbacks and helpful comments have also been received from the readers. This second edition has incorporated all these comments and consequently includes more algorithms and new algorithms to reflect the state-of-the-art developments such as computational intelligence and swarm intelligence.

Therefore, this new edition strives to provide extensive coverage of efficient algorithms commonly used in computational mathematics and modern scientific computing. It covers all the major topics including root-finding algorithms, numerical integration, interpolation, linear algebra, eigenvalues, numerical methods of ordinary differential equations (ODEs) and partial differential equations (PDEs), finite difference methods, finite element methods, finite volume methods, algorithm complexity, optimization, mathematical programming, stochastic models such as least squares and regression, machine learning such as neural networks and support vector machine, computational intelligence and swarm intelligence such as cuckoo search, bat algorithm, firefly algorithm as well as particle swarm optimization.

The book covers both traditional methods and new algorithms with dozens of worked examples to demonstrate how these algorithms work. Thus, this book can be used as a textbook and/or reference book, especially suitable for undergraduates and graduates in computational mathematics, engineering, computer science, computational intelligence, data science and scientific computing.

Xin-She Yang

London, 2014

# Contents

Pr	eface		V
Ι	Mat	hematical Foundations	1
1.	Math	nematical Foundations	3
	1.1	The Essence of an Algorithm	3
	1.2	Big-O Notations	5
	1.3	Differentiation and Integration	6
	1.4	Vector and Vector Calculus	10
	1.5	Matrices and Matrix Decomposition	15
	1.6	Determinant and Inverse	20
	1.7	Matrix Exponential	24
	1.8	Hermitian and Quadratic Forms	26
	1.9	Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors	28
	1.10	Definiteness of Matrices	31
2.	Algo	rithmic Complexity, Norms and Convexity	33
	2.1	Computational Complexity	33
	2.2	NP-Complete Problems	34
	2.3	Vector and Matrix Norms	35
	2.4	Distribution of Eigenvalues	37
	2.5	Spectral Radius of Matrices	44
	2.6	Hessian Matrix	47
	2.7	Convexity	48

3.	Ordin	nary Differential Equations	51		
	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4 3.5	Ordinary Differential Equations	51 52 53 56 58		
4.	Parti	al Differential Equations	59		
	4.1	Partial Differential Equations 4.1.1 First-Order Partial Differential Equation 4.1.2 Classification of Second-Order Equations Mathematical Models 4.2.1 Parabolic Equation 4.2.2 Poisson's Equation 4.2.3 Wave Equation Solution Techniques 4.3.1 Separation of Variables	59 60 61 61 61 62 64 65		
		4.3.2 Laplace Transform	67 68		
II	Nu	merical Algorithms	71		
5.	Roots	s of Nonlinear Equations	73		
	5.1 5.2 5.3 5.4 5.5	Bisection Method	73 75 76 78 81		
6.	Numerical Integration				
	6.1 6.2 6.3	Trapezium Rule	86 87 89		
7.	Comp	putational Linear Algebra	95		
	7.1 7.2	System of Linear Equations	95 97		

Contents ix

	7.3	LU Factorization	101
	7.4	Iteration Methods	103
		7.4.1 Jacobi Iteration Method	103
		7.4.2 Gauss-Seidel Iteration	107
		7.4.3 Relaxation Method	108
	7.5	Newton-Raphson Method	109
	7.6	QR Decomposition	110
	7.7	Conjugate Gradient Method	115
8.	Inter	polation	117
	8.1	Spline Interpolation	117
		8.1.1 Linear Spline Functions	117
		8.1.2 Cubic Spline Functions	118
	8.2	Lagrange Interpolating Polynomials	123
	8.3	Bézier Curve	125
III	Nı	umerical Methods of PDEs	127
9.	Finit	e Difference Methods for ODEs	129
	9.1	Integration of ODEs	129
	9.2	Euler Scheme	130
	9.3	Leap-Frog Method	131
	9.4	Runge-Kutta Method	132
	9.5	Shooting Methods	134
10.	Finit	e Difference Methods for PDEs	139
	10.1	Hyperbolic Equations	139
	10.2	Parabolic Equation	142
	10.3	Elliptical Equation	143
	10.4	Spectral Methods	146
	10.5	Pattern Formation	148
	10.6	Cellular Automata	150
11.	Finit	e Volume Method	153
	11.1	Concept of the Finite Volume	153
	11.2	Elliptic Equations	154
	11.3	Parabolic Equations	155
	11.4	Hyperbolic Equations	156

12.	Finit	e Element Method	157
12.	12.1 12.2 12.3 12.4	Finite Element Formulation  12.1.1 Weak Formulation  12.1.2 Galerkin Method  12.1.3 Shape Functions  Derivatives and Integration  12.2.1 Derivatives  12.2.2 Gauss Quadrature  Poisson's Equation  Transient Problems	157 157 158 159 163 163 164 165 169
IV	Ma	athematical Programming	171
13.	Math	nematical Optimization	173
	13.1	Optimization	173
	13.2	Optimality Criteria	175
	13.3	Unconstrained Optimization	177
		13.3.1 Univariate Functions	177
		13.3.2 Multivariate Functions	178
	13.4	Gradient-Based Methods	180
		13.4.1 Newton's Method	181
		13.4.2 Steepest Descent Method	182
14.	Math	ematical Programming	187
	14.1	Linear Programming	187
	14.2	Simplex Method	189
		14.2.1 Basic Procedure	189
		14.2.2 Augmented Form	191
		14.2.3 A Case Study	192
	14.3	Nonlinear Programming	196
	14.4	Penalty Method	196
	14.5	Lagrange Multipliers	197
	14.6	Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions	199
	14.7	Sequential Quadratic Programming	200
		14.7.1 Quadratic Programming	200
		14.7.2 Sequential Quadratic Programming	200
	14.8	No Free Lunch Theorems	202

Contents xi

$\mathbf{V}$	Sto	chasti	c Methods and Data Modelling	205		
15.	Stochastic Models					
	15.1	Rando	m Variables	. 207		
	15.2	Binom	ial and Poisson Distributions			
	15.3		an Distribution			
	15.4		Distributions			
	15.5		entral Limit Theorem			
	15.6		ll Distribution			
16.	Data	Modell	ing	221		
	16.1	Sample	e Mean and Variance	. 221		
	16.2		d of Least Squares			
		16.2.1	Maximum Likelihood			
		16.2.2	Linear Regression			
	16.3	Correla	ation Coefficient			
	16.4		zation			
	16.5		alized Linear Regression			
	16.6		ear Regression			
	16.7		nesis Testing			
		16.7.1	Confidence Interval			
		16.7.2	Student's t-Distribution			
		16.7.3	Student's t-Test			
17.	Data	Mining	, Neural Networks and Support Vector Machine	243		
	17.1	Cluster	ring Methods	. 243		
		17.1.1	Hierarchy Clustering			
		17.1.2	k-Means Clustering Method			
	17.2	Artifici	al Neural Networks	. 247		
		17.2.1	Artificial Neuron	. 247		
		17.2.2	Artificial Neural Networks	. 248		
		17.2.3	Back Propagation Algorithm	. 250		
	17.3	Suppor	t Vector Machine	251		
		17.3.1	Classifications	. 251		
		17.3.2	Statistical Learning Theory	. 252		
		17.3.3	Linear Support Vector Machine	. 253		
		17.3.4	Kernel Functions and Nonlinear SVM	256		

18.	Ranc	lom Number Generators and Monte Carlo Method	259		
	18.1 18.2 18.3 18.4 18.5 18.6 18.7 18.8 18.9	Linear Congruential Algorithms Uniform Distribution Generation of Other Distributions Metropolis Algorithms Monte Carlo Methods Monte Carlo Integration Importance of Sampling Quasi-Monte Carlo Methods Quasi-Random Numbers	259 260 262 266 267 270 273 275 276		
VI	Co	omputational Intelligence	279		
19.	Evol	utionary Computation	281		
	19.1	Introduction to Evolutionary Computation	281		
	19.2	Simulated Annealing	282		
	19.3	Genetic Algorithms	286		
		19.3.1 Basic Procedure	287		
		19.3.2 Choice of Parameters	289		
	19.4	Differential Evolution	291		
20.	Swar	m Intelligence	295		
	20.1	Introduction to Swarm Intelligence	295		
	20.2	Ant and Bee Algorithms	296		
	20.3	Particle Swarm Optimization	297		
	20.4	Accelerated PSO	299		
	20.5	Binary PSO	301		
21.	Swarm Intelligence: New Algorithms				
	21.1	Firefly Algorithm	303		
	21.2	Cuckoo Search	306		
	21.3	Bat Algorithm	310		
	21.4	Flower Algorithm	313		
	21.5	Other Algorithms	317		
Bibi	liograp	phy	319		
Inde	ex		325		

# Part I

**Mathematical Foundations** 

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# Chapter 1

# **Mathematical Foundations**

Computational mathematics concerns a wide range of topics, from basic root-finding algorithms and linear algebra to advanced numerical methods for partial differential equations and nonlinear mathematical programming. In order to introduce various algorithms, we first review some mathematical foundations briefly.

# 1.1 The Essence of an Algorithm

Let us start by asking: what is an algorithm? In essence, an algorithm is a step-by-step procedure of providing calculations or instructions. Many algorithms are iterative. The actual steps and procedures will depend on the algorithm used and the context of interest. However, in this book, we place more emphasis on iterative procedures and ways for constructing algorithms.

For example, a simple algorithm of finding the square root of any positive number k > 0, or  $x = \sqrt{k}$ , can be written as

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2}(x_n + \frac{k}{x_n}),\tag{1.1}$$

starting from a guess solution  $x_0 \neq 0$ , say,  $x_0 = 1$ . Here, n is the iteration counter or index, also called the pseudo-time or generation counter. The above iterative equation comes from the re-arrangement of  $x^2 = k$  in the following form

$$\frac{x}{2} = \frac{k}{2x},\tag{1.2}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(x + \frac{k}{x}). (1.3)$$

For example, for k = 7 with  $x_0 = 1$ , we have

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x_0 + \frac{7}{x_0}) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{7}{1}) = 4.$$
 (1.4)

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 + \frac{7}{x_1}) = 2.875, \quad x_3 \approx 2.654891304,$$
 (1.5)

$$x_4 \approx 2.645767044, \quad x_5 \approx 2.6457513111.$$
 (1.6)

We can see that  $x_5$  after just 5 iterations (or generations) is very close to the true value of  $\sqrt{7} = 2.64575131106459...$ , which shows that this iteration method is very efficient.

The reason that this iterative process works is that the series  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  converges to the true value  $\sqrt{k}$  due to the fact that

$$\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \frac{k}{x_n^2}) \to 1, \quad x_n \to \sqrt{k}, \tag{1.7}$$

as  $n \to \infty$ . However, a good choice of the initial value  $x_0$  will speed up the convergence. A wrong choice of  $x_0$  could make the iteration fail; for example, we cannot use  $x_0 = 0$  as the initial guess, and we cannot use  $x_0 < 0$  either as  $\sqrt{k} > 0$  (in this case, the iterations will approach another root  $-\sqrt{k}$ ). So a sensible choice should be an educated guess. At the initial step, if  $x_0^2 < k$ ,  $x_0$  is the lower bound and  $k/x_0$  is upper bound. If  $x_0^2 > k$ , then  $x_0$  is the upper bound and  $k/x_0$  is the lower bound. For other iterations, the new bounds will be  $x_n$  and  $k/x_n$ . In fact, the value  $x_{n+1}$  is always between these two bounds  $x_n$  and  $k/x_n$ , and the new estimate  $x_{n+1}$  is thus the mean or average of the two bounds. This guarantees that the series converges to the true value of  $\sqrt{k}$ . This method is similar to the well-known bisection method.

You may have already wondered why  $x^2 = k$  was converted to Eq. (1.1)? Why do not we write it as the following iterative formula:

$$x_n = \frac{k}{x_n},\tag{1.8}$$

starting from  $x_0 = 1$ ? With this and k = 7, we have

$$x_1 = \frac{7}{x_0} = 7$$
,  $x_2 = \frac{7}{x_1} = 1$ ,  $x_3 = 7$ ,  $x_4 = 1$ ,  $x_5 = 7$ , ..., (1.9)

which leads to an oscillating feature at two distinct stages 1 and 7. You may wonder that it may be the problem of initial value  $x_0$ . In fact, for any initial value  $x_0 \neq 0$ , this above formula will lead to the oscillations between two values:  $x_0$  and k. This clearly demonstrates that the way to design a good iterative formula is very important.

Mathematically speaking, an algorithm A is a procedure to generate a new and better solution  $x_{n+1}$  to a given problem from the current solution  $x_n$  at iteration or time t. That is,

$$x_{n+1} = A(x_n), (1.10)$$

where A is a mathematical function of  $x_n$ . In fact, A can be a set of mathematical equations in general. In some literature, especially those in numerical analysis, n is often used for the iteration index. In many textbooks, the upper index form  $x^{(n+1)}$  or  $x^{n+1}$  is commonly used. Here,  $x^{n+1}$  does not mean x to the power of n+1. Such notations will become useful and no confusion will occur when used appropriately. We will use such notations when appropriate in this book.

## 1.2 Big-O Notations

In analyzing the complexity of an algorithm, we usually estimate the order of computational efforts in terms of its problem size. This often requires the order notations, often in terms of big O and small o.

Loosely speaking, for two functions f(x) and g(x), if

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \to K,\tag{1.11}$$

where K is a finite, non-zero limit, we write

$$f = O(g). (1.12)$$

The big O notation means that f is asymptotically equivalent to the order of g(x). If the limit is unity or K = 1, we say f(x) is order of g(x). In this special case, we write

$$f \sim g,\tag{1.13}$$

which is equivalent to  $f/g \to 1$  and  $g/f \to 1$  as  $x \to x_0$ . Obviously,  $x_0$  can be any value, including 0 and  $\infty$ . The notation  $\sim$  does not necessarily mean  $\approx$  in general, though it may give the same results, especially in the case when  $x \to 0$ . For example,  $\sin x \sim x$  and  $\sin x \approx x$  if  $x \to 0$ .

When we say f is order of 100 (or  $f \sim 100$ ), this does not mean  $f \approx 100$ , but it can mean that f could be between about 50 and 150. The small o notation is often used if the limit tends to 0. That is

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f}{g} \to 0, \tag{1.14}$$

or

$$f = o(g). (1.15)$$

If g > 0, f = o(g) is equivalent to  $f \ll g$ . For example, for  $\forall x \in \mathcal{R}$ , we have

$$e^x \approx 1 + x + O(x^2) \approx 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + o(x).$$

**Example 1.1:** A classic example is Stirling's asymptotic series for factorials

$$n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{12n} + \frac{1}{288n^2} - \frac{139}{51480n^3} - \dots\right),$$

which can demonstrate the fundamental difference between an asymptotic series and the standard approximate expansions. For the standard power expansions, the error  $R_k(h^k) \to 0$ , but for an asymptotic series, the error of the truncated series  $R_k$  decreases compared with the leading term [here  $\sqrt{2\pi n}(n/e)^n$ ]. However,  $R_n$  does not necessarily tend to zero. In fact,

$$R_2 = \frac{1}{12n} \cdot \sqrt{2\pi n} (n/e)^n,$$

is still very large as  $R_2 \to \infty$  if  $n \gg 1$ . For example, for n=100, we have  $n! = 9.3326 \times 10^{157}$ , while the leading approximation is  $\sqrt{2\pi n}(n/e)^n = 9.3248 \times 10^{157}$ . The difference between these two values is  $7.7740 \times 10^{154}$ , which is still very large, though three orders smaller than the leading approximation.

# 1.3 Differentiation and Integration

Differentiation is essentially to find the gradient of a function. For any curve y = f(x), we define the gradient as

$$f'(x) \equiv \frac{dy}{dx} \equiv \frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}.$$
 (1.16)

The gradient is also called the first derivative. The three notations f'(x), dy/dx and df(x)/dx are interchangeable. Conventionally, the notation dy/dx is called Leibnitz's notation, while the prime notation ' is called Lagrange's notation. Newton's dot notation  $\dot{y} = dy/dt$  is now exclusively used for time derivatives. The choice of such notations is purely for clarity, convention and/or personal preference.

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