

Numerical Methods for Computational Science and Engineering Summary HS 2009

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Part I.

Theory

1. Vector norms and matrix norms

Definition: Norm

X = vector space over field \mathbb{K} , $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$. A map $\|\cdot\| : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}_0^+$ is a *norm* on X , if it satisfies

1. $\forall x \in X : x \neq 0 \iff \|x\| > 0$
2. $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\| \quad \forall x \in X, \lambda \in \mathbb{K}$
3. $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in X$

Name	Definition	Matlab function
Euclidean norm	$\ \vec{x}\ _2 = \sqrt{ x_1 ^2 + \dots + x_n ^2}$	<code>norm(x)</code>
1-Norm	$\ \vec{x}\ _1 = x_1 + \dots + x_n $	<code>norm(x,1)</code>
∞ -norm, max-norm	$\ \vec{x}\ _\infty = \max\{ x_1 , \dots, x_n \}$	<code>norm(x,inf)</code>

Definition: Matrix norm

Given a vector norm $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^n , the associated *matrix norm* is defined by

$$\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n} : \quad \|\mathbf{M}\| := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}} \frac{\|\mathbf{M}x\|}{\|x\|}$$

Definition: Condition (number) of a matrix

Condition of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$:

$$\text{cond}(\mathbf{A}) := \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\| \|\mathbf{A}\|$$

$$\text{cond}(\mathbf{A}) \gg 1 \iff \text{columns/rows of } \mathbf{A} \text{ "almost linearly dependent"}$$

Definition: Symmetric positive definite (s.p.d.) matrices

$\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ is *symmetric (Hermitian) positive definite* if

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}^H \wedge x^H \mathbf{M} x > 0 \iff x \neq 0$$

If $x^H \mathbf{M} x \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{K}^n \implies \mathbf{M}$ positiv semi-definite.

Lemma: Necessary conditions for s.p.d. matrices

For a symmetric/hermitian positiv definite matrix $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}^H$ holds true:

1. $m_{ii} > 0, i = 1, \dots, n$
2. $m_{ii}m_{jj} - |m_{ij}|^2 > 0$ – steht so im skript ist wahrscheinlich aber falsch
3. All eigenvalues of \mathbf{M} are positive.

Definition: Diagonally dominant matrix

$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ is *diagonally dominant*, if

$$\forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\} : \sum_{j \neq k} |a_{kj}| \leq |a_{kk}|$$

The matrix \mathbf{A} is called *strictly diagonally dominant* if

$$\forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\} : \sum_{j \neq k} |a_{kj}| < |a_{kk}|$$

Lemma: Lemma

A diagonally dominant Hermitian/symmetric matrix with non-negative diagonal entries is positive semi-definite.

Definition: Positiv Semidefinite

A *diagonally dominant* Hermitian/symmetric matrix with *non-negative diagonal entries* is positive semi-definite.

Theorem: Gaussian elimination for s.p.d. matrices

Every symmetric/Hermitian positive definite matrix possesses an LU-decomposition.

Lemma: Cholesky decomposition for s.p.d. matrices

For any s.p.d $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ there is a unique upper triangular Matrix $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ with $r_{ii} > 0 \ i = 1, \dots, n$ such that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}^H \mathbf{R}$

Definition: Unitäre und orthogonal matrices

$\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ is *unitary*, if $\mathbf{Q}^{-1} = \mathbf{Q}^H$

$\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ is *orthogonal*, if $\mathbf{Q}^{-1} = \mathbf{Q}^T$

Theorem: Criteria for Unitarity

$$\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n} \quad \text{unitary} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \|\mathbf{Q}x\|_2 = \|x\|_2 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{K}^n$$

Properties of an unitary/orthogonal matrix

If $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ is unitary, then

- $\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{I}$
- $\text{cond}(\mathbf{Q}) = 1$
- all rows/columns (regarded as vectors $\in \mathbb{K}^n$ have Euclidean norm= 1
- all rows are pairwise orthogonal
- $|\det \mathbf{Q}| = 1$ and all eigenvalues $\in \{z \in \mathbb{K} : |z| = 1\}$
- $\|\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{A}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{A}\|_2$ for any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,m}$

2. Givens Rotations

Let \mathbf{A} be a matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ (im not sure if \mathbb{K} is allowed here). The idea is to rotate the columns of \mathbf{A} , in such a way that they stand orthogonal to each other.

Idea Given $(a, b)^T \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$. Find $c, s \in \mathbb{R}$ with

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{C}} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and $c^2 + s^2 = 1$. Apparently \mathbf{C} is orthogonal.

Because of the condition $c^2 + s^2 = 1$ it is apparent to represent

$$c = \cos \varphi \quad s = \sin \varphi$$

Since a rotation doesn't change the length of a vector follows:

$$|r| = \|(r, 0)^T\|_2 = \|(a, b)^T\|_2 = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

It's now easy to get the solution for the problem above:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \pm \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \\ c &= \frac{a}{r} \\ s &= \frac{b}{r} \end{aligned}$$

The givens rotation matrix can now be represented through

$$\mathbf{G}_{i,k} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & & & & & \\ i \rightarrow & & c & 0 & \cdots & 0 & s & & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & & & 0 & & & \\ & & \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots & & & \\ & & 0 & & & 1 & 0 & & & \\ k \rightarrow & & -s & 0 & \cdots & 0 & c & & & \\ & & & & & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{i,k} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{i-1} \\ r \\ x_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{k-1} \\ 0 \\ x_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{pmatrix}$$

3. Eigenvalues

Definition: Eigenvalues und Eigenvectors

Eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$: $\Leftrightarrow \det(\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = 0$

Spectrum of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$: $\sigma(\mathbf{A}) := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \text{eigenvalue of } \mathbf{A}\}$ (= Menge aller Eigenwerte)

Eigenspace associated with eigenvalue $\lambda \in \sigma(\mathbf{A})$

$$Eig_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) := Ker(\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$$

Eigenvector $x \in Eig_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) \setminus \{0\}$

Lemma: Gershgorin circle theorem

For any $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$

$$\sigma(\mathbf{A}) \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^n \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a_{jj}| \leq \sum_{i \neq j} |a_{ji}| \right\}$$

Lemma: Similarity and spectrum

The spectrum of a matrix is invariant with respect to *similarity transformations*

$$\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n} : \sigma(\mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{S}) = \sigma(\mathbf{A}) \forall \text{ regular } \mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$$

Theorem: Schur normal form

$$\forall \mathbf{A} : \exists \mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n} \text{ unitary} : \mathbf{U}^H \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{T} \quad \text{with } \mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n} \text{ upper triangular}$$

A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ with $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^H = \mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}$ is called *normal*.

Part II.

Computing with Matrices and Vectors

4. Vectors

$$\text{Column vector} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{K}^n$$
$$\text{Row Vector} = (x_1 \dots x_n)$$

Initialization of vectors in matlab

```
1 column_vector = [1;2;3];  
   row_vector   = [1,2,3];
```

5. Matrices

A $n \times m$ Matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \dots & & \dots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,m}$$

Accessing matrix and sub-matrices

Single entry $(\mathbf{A})_{i,j} = a_{i,j}$,

i : Row (Zeile)

j : Column (Spalte)

i-th row $(\mathbf{A})_{i,:}$

j-th column $(\mathbf{A})_{:,j}$

Types There are two different matrix storage formats used in matlab

normal data is placed in a one-dimensional array using the row major format.

sparse Compressed row-storage (CRS) format. Space: $O(n + m)$, Access time: $O(n)$

6. Elementary operations

dot product $x \cdot y = x^H y = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{x}_i y_i \in K$

tensor product $xy^H = (x_i \bar{y}_j)_{i=1,\dots,m \ j=1,\dots,n} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$

row scaling multiplication with a diagonal matrix from left

$$\begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & & d_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 a_{11} & d_1 a_{12} & \dots & d_1 a_{1m} \\ d_2 a_{21} & d_2 a_{22} & & d_2 a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ d_n a_{n1} & d_n a_{n2} & \dots & d_n a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

column scaling multiplication with diagonal matrix from right

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & & d_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 a_{11} & d_2 a_{12} & \dots & d_m a_{1m} \\ d_1 a_{21} & d_2 a_{22} & & d_m a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ d_1 a_{n1} & d_2 a_{n2} & \dots & d_m a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

6.1. Matrix multiplication rules

The matrix product is

associative $(AB)C = A(BC)$

bi-linear $(\alpha A + \beta B)C = \alpha(AC) + \beta(BC)$, $C(\alpha A + \beta B) = \alpha(CA) + \beta(CB)$

non-commutative $AB \neq BA$

7. Complexity

operation	description	# mult/div	# add/sub	complexity
dot product	$(x, y \in \mathbb{K}^n) \mapsto x^H y$	n	$n - 1$	$O(n)$
tensor product	$(x \in \mathbb{K}^m, y \in \mathbb{K}^n) \mapsto xy^H$	nm	0	$O(nm)$
matrix product	$(A \in \mathbb{K}^{n,m}, B \in \mathbb{K}^{n,k}) \mapsto AB$	nmk	$mk(n - 1)$	$O(nmk)$

7.1. Reading the complexity from a plot

Plot the time measurements for different $t_i = \text{time}(f(n_i))$ for different $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k, n_i \in \mathbb{N}$

plot	function	complexity
loglog	straight line	$O(n^\alpha)$ for some α
semilog	straight line	$O(\alpha^n)$ for some α

8. Numerical stability

Definition: Stable algorithm

An Algorithm G for solving a problem $F : X \mapsto Y$ is *numerically stable*, if for all $x \in X$ its result $G(x)$ is the exact result for “slightly perturbed” data:

$$\exists C \approx 1 : \forall x \in X : \exists \hat{x} \in X : \|x - \hat{x}\| \leq C \epsilon_{\text{ps}} \|x\| \wedge G(x) = F(\hat{x})$$

Part III.

Direct Methods for Linear Systems of Equations

Given matrix $A \in K^{n,n}$, vector $b \in K^n$

Sought solution vector $x \in \mathbb{K}^n$

9. Gaussian Elimination

Asymptotic complexity: $O(n^3)$. (Backsubstitution: $O(n^2)$)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \mathbf{c}^T \\ d & \mathbf{C} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow A' = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \mathbf{c}^T \\ 0 & \mathbf{C}' = \mathbf{C} - \frac{d\mathbf{c}^T}{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}$$

9.1. Stability

Lemma: Equivalence of gaussian elimination and LU-factorization

The following algorithms for solving the LSE $Ax = b$ are *numerically equivalent*

1. Gauss elimination without pivoting
2. LU-factorization followed by forward and backward substitution

10. Sparse Matrices

Initialization:

```
A = sparse(m,n);  
A = spalloc(m,n,nnz);  
A = sparse(i,j,s,m,n);  
A = spdiags(B,d,m,n);  
A = speye(n);  
A = spones(S);
```

Theorem: LU-Decomposition Fill-in on sparse matrices

If $A \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ is *regular* with LU-decomposition $A = LU$, then the fill-in is confined to the *envelope* of A

Solving Sparse Band Matrices

Alter the LSE with Gauss and try to remove the fill-in (see: set 3, problem 3)

11. QR-Factorization / QR-Decomposition

A QR decomposition (also called a QR factorization) of a matrix is a decomposition of the matrix into an orthogonal and a right triangular matrix.

QR-Decomposition with Householder reflections advantageous for fully populated target columns (dense matrices).

QR-Decomposition with Givens Rotations more efficient, if target column sparsely populated

Lemma: Uniqueness of QR-factorization

The “economy QR-factorization of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$, $m \geq n$ with $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$ is unique, if we demand $r_{ii} > 0$

Stability of the QR-Decomposition

- Computing the generalized QR-decomposition $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$ by means of Householder reflections or Givens rotations is (numerically) stable for any $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m,n}$
- For *any* regular systems matrix ans LSE can be solved by means of

QR-Decomposition + orthogonal transformation + backward substitution

12. Modification Techniques

Lemma: Sherman Morrison Woodbury formula

For regular $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$, and $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,k}$, $k \leq n$, holds

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{UV}^H)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{V}^H\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{U})^{-1}\mathbf{V}^H\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

If $\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{V}^H\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{U}$ regular.

12.1. Rank-1 modifications

with LU-Decomposition Let $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} := \mathbf{A} + uv^H$, $u, v \in \mathbb{K}^n$. uv^H is a general *rank 1 matrix*. For solving $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}x = b$ when $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU}$ is already known. Apply the Sherman Morrison Woodbury formula:

$$x = \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^H}{1 + v^H\mathbf{A}^{-1}u} \right) \mathbf{A}^{-1}b$$

with QR-Decomposition Matlab Command

`[Q1,R1] = qrupdate(Q,R,u,v)`

with Cholesky factorization Matlab Command

`R = cholupdate(R,v)`

Part IV.

Iterative Methods for Non-Linear Systems of Equations

13. Iterative Methods

An *iterative method* for (approximately solving) the non-linear equation $F(\vec{x}) = 0$ is an algorithm generating a sequence $(x^{(k)})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ of *approximate solutions*.

Definition: Convergence of iterative methods

An iterative methods *converges*

$$x^{(k)} \rightarrow x^* \text{ and } F(x^*) = 0$$

Definition: Consistency of iterative methods

An iterative method is *consistent* with $F(x) = 0$

$$:\Longleftrightarrow \quad \Phi_F(x^*, x^*, \dots, x^*) = x^* \Leftrightarrow F(x^*) = 0$$

13.1. Speed of convergence

Definition: Linear convergence

A sequence $x^{(k)}$, $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ in \mathbb{R}^n *converges linearly* to $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if

$$\exists L < 1 \quad \left\| x^{(k+1)} - x^* \right\| \leq C \left\| x^{(k)} - x^* \right\| \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

\Rightarrow straight line in *lin-log plot*.

Definition: Order of convergence

A *convergent* sequence $x^{(k)}$, $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ in \mathbb{R}^n converges with *order* \mathbf{p} to $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if

$$\exists C > 0 : \quad \left\| x^{(k+1)} - x^* \right\| \leq C \left\| x^{(k)} - x^* \right\|^p \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

with $C < 1$. (For $p = 1$: linear convergence)

Guessing the order of convergence

Abbreviate $\varepsilon_k := \left\| x^{(k)} - x^* \right\|$

$$\varepsilon_{k+1} \approx C \varepsilon_k^p \quad \Rightarrow \quad \log \varepsilon_{k+1} \approx \log C + p \log \varepsilon_k \quad \rightarrow \quad p \approx \frac{\log \varepsilon_{k+1} - \log \varepsilon_k}{\log \varepsilon_k - \log \varepsilon_{k-1}}$$

13.2. Termination criteria

Usually the iteration will never arrive at an/the exact solution x^* after finitely many steps. Thus we can only hope to compute an approximate solution by accepting an $x^{(k)}$ as a result.

A priori termination stop iteration after a fixed number of steps.

Problem: *Hardly ever possible*

A posteriori termination criteria use already computed iterates to decide when to stop. Reliable termination:
stop iteration

$$\left\| x^{(k)} - x^* \right\| \leq \tau \quad \tau \equiv \text{prescribed tolerance}$$

Problem: x^* not known

Stationary iteration use that the finite numbers are finite: Wait until (convergent) iteration becomes stationary.

$$\text{wait until : } x^{(k)} = x^{(k+1)}$$

Problem: *Very inefficient*

Residual based termination Stop convergent iteration when

$$\left\| F \left(x^{(k)} \right) \right\| \leq \tau \quad \tau \equiv \text{prescribed tolerance}$$

Problem: *No guaranteed accuracy since $\left\| F \left(x^{(k)} \right) \right\|$ small $\nRightarrow |x^{(k)} - x^*|$ small.*

14. Fixed Point Iterations

F is a non-linear system of equations with $F : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$

A *fixed point iteration* is defined by an *iteration function* $\Phi : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ and an initial guess $x^{(0)} \in U$.

$$x^{(k+1)} := \Phi \left(x^{(k)} \right)$$

Definition: Consistency of fixed point iterations

A fixed point iteration $x^{(k+1)} := \Phi \left(x^{(k)} \right)$ is *consistent* with $F(x) = 0$ if

$$F(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x \in U \cap D \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \Phi(x) = x$$

If Φ continuous and the fixed point iteration is (locally) convergent to x^* then x^* is the fixed point of the iteration function Φ .

Definition: Contractive mapping

$\Phi : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ is *contractive*, if

$$\exists L < 1 : \quad \|\Phi(x) - \Phi(y)\| \leq \|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in U$$

Theorem: Banach's fixed point theorem

If $D \subset \mathbb{K}^n$ ($\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$) closed and $\Phi : D \mapsto D$ satisfies

$$\exists L < 1 : \quad \|\Phi(x) - \Phi(y)\| \leq \|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in D$$

then there is a unique fixed point $x^* \in D$, $\Phi(x^*) = x^*$, which is the limit of the sequence of iterates $x^{(k+1)} := \Phi \left(x^{(k)} \right)$ for any $x^{(0)} \in D$

$$\begin{aligned}
-1 < \Phi'(x^*) < 1 & \text{ convergence} \\
\Phi'(x^*) < -1 & \text{ divergence} \\
\Phi'(x^*) > 1 & \text{ divergence}
\end{aligned}$$

Lemma: Sufficient condition for local linear convergence of fixed point iterations

If $\Phi : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$, $\Phi(x^*) = x^*$, Φ differentiable in x^* and $\|D\Phi(x^*)\| < 1$, then the fixed point iteration converges locally and at least *linearly*.

If $0 < \|D\Phi(x)\| < 1$, then the *asymptotic rate* of linear convergence is $L = \|D\Phi(x)\|$ (where as L : lipschitz constant).

Lemma: Higher order local convergence of fixed point iterations

If $\Phi : U \subset \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is $m + 1$ times *continuously differentiable*, $\Phi(x^*) = x^*$ for some x^* in the interior of U and $\Phi^{(l)}(x^*) = 0$ for $l = 1, \dots, m$, $m \geq 1$, then the fixed point iteration converges locally to x^* with

$$\text{order} \geq m + 1$$

15. Zero Finding

$F : I \subset \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ continuous, I interval. Sought: $x^* \in I : F(x^*) = 0$.

15.1. Bisection

Use of ordering of real numbers and intermediate value theorem. *Input*: $a, b \in I$ such that $F(a)F(b) < 0$ (different signs).

```

function x = bisect(F,a,b,tol)
    fa = F(a);
    fb = F(b);
    if (fa*fb > 0)
        error('f(a) and f(b) have the same sign');
    end

    v = 1;
    if (fa > 0)
        v = -1;
    end
    x = 0.5 * (a+b);
    while ((b-a > tol) & (a<x) & (x<b))
        if (v*F(x) > 0)
            b = x;
        else
            a = x;
        end
        x = 0.5*(a+b)
    end
end

```

Advantages foolproof, requires only F evaluations

Drawbacks Merely linear convergence $|x^{(k)} - x^*| \leq 2^{-k}|b - a|$

\implies `fzero` uses this approach.

15.2. Model Function Methods

Model function Methods is a class of iterative methods for finding zeroes of F :

Idea Given: approximate zeroes $x^{(k)}, x^{(k-1)}, \dots, x^{(k-m)}$

1. replace F with a *model function* \tilde{F} (using function values/derivative values in $x^{(k)}, x^{(k-1)}, \dots, x^{(k-m)}$)
2. $x^{(k+1)} :=$ zero of \tilde{F}

Distinguish between one-point methods and multipoint methods.

15.2.1. Newton Method

Assume: $F : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuously differentiable. Model function := tangent af F in $x^{(k)}$.

$$\tilde{F}(x) := F(x^{(k)}) + F'(x^{(k)})(x - x^{(k)})$$

with $x^{(k+1)} :=$ zero of the tangent.

We obtain the *Newton Iteration*

$$x^{(k+1)} := x^{(k)} - \frac{F(x^{(k)})}{F'(x^{(k)})} \quad \text{with } F'(x^{(k)}) \neq 0$$

15.2.2. Multi Point Methods

Replace F with an *interpolation polynomial* producing interpolatory model function methods.

Secant Method

$x^{(k+1)} =$ zero of secant

$$s(x) = x^{(k)} - \frac{F(x^{(k)}) - F(x^{(k-1)})}{F(x^{(k)}) - F(x^{(k-1)})} \cdot (x - x^{(k)})$$

$$\Rightarrow x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \frac{F(x^{(k)}) \cdot (x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)})}{F(x^{(k)}) - F(x^{(k-1)})}$$

- Only one function evaluation per step
- no derivatives required

15.3. Efficiency

Efficiency of an iterative method \leftrightarrow *computational effort* to reach prescribed number of significant digits in result.

Computational effort/step

$$W \approx \frac{\#\{\text{evaluations of } F\}}{\text{step}} + n \cdot \frac{\#\{\text{evaluations of } F'\}}{\text{step}} \dots$$

Definition: Efficiency

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\# \text{ of digits gained}}{\text{total work required}} = \frac{|\log p|}{k(p) \cdot W}$$

$k(p) =$ number of steps to achieve relative reduction of error

$|\log p| =$ number of significant digits of $x^{(k)}$

16. Newton's Method

16.1. The Newton Iteration

Definition: Newton Iteration

$$x^{(k+1)} := x^{(k)} - DF(x^{(k)})^{-1} F(x^{(k)})$$

```
function x = newton(x,F,DF,tol)
    for i = 1:MAXIT
        s = DF(x) \ F(x);
        x = x - s;
        if (norm(s) < tol*norm(x))
            return;
        end
    end
end
```

9

If $DF(x)$ is not available use

$$\frac{\delta F_i}{\delta x_j}(x) \approx \frac{F_i(x + h\vec{e}_j) - F_i(x)}{h}$$

to approximate $DF(x)$. Warning: Impact of roundoff errors for small h .

The Newton Method has *Local quadratic convergence* if $DF(x^*)$ is regular.

A posteriori termination criterion

Quit as soon as

$$\left\| DF(x^{(k)})^{-1} F(x^{(k)}) \right\| < \tau \|x^{(k)}\|$$

Since we expect that $DF(x^{(k-1)}) \approx DF(x^{(k)})$, when the Newton Iteration has converged

The Newton Method

- converges *asymptotically* very fast: doubling of number of significant digits in each step
- often a *very small region of convergence*, which requires an initial guess rather close to the solution

16.2. Damped Newton Method

We observe an "overshooting" of the Newton correction.

Idea: Use a damping factor for the Newton correction:

$$x^{(k+1)} := x^{(k)} - \lambda^{(k)} DF(x^{(k)})^{-1} F(x^{(k)}) \quad \text{with: } \lambda^{(k)} > 0$$

Choice of damping factor: Use maximal $\lambda^{(k)} > 0 : \|\Delta\bar{x}(\lambda^{(k)})\| \leq \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{(k)}}{2}\right) \|\Delta x^{(k)}\|$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x^{(k)} &= DF(x^{(k)})^{-1} F(x^{(k)}) \\ \Delta\bar{x}(\lambda^{(k)}) &= DF(x^{(k)})^{-1} F(x^{(k)} + \lambda^{(k)} \Delta x^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

Policy

Reduce damping factor by a factor $q \in]0, 1[$ (usually $q = \frac{1}{2}$) until the affine invariant natural monotonicity test passed.

16.3. Quasi-Newton Method (Broyden Method)

Use when $DF(x)$ is not available and numerical differentiation is too expensive.
Worthwhile for dimensions $n \gg 1$ and low accuracy requirements.

Part V.

Krylov Methods for Linear Systems of Equations

A class of *iterative methods* for approximate solutions of large linear systems of equations.

17. Descent Methods

Definition: Energy norm

A s.p.d matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ induces a *energy norm*

$$\|x\|_{\mathbf{A}} := (x^T \mathbf{A} x)^{1/2} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Lemma: S.p.d LSE and quadratic minimization problem

An LSE with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ s.p.d is equivalent to a minimization problem:

$$\mathbf{A}x = b \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad x = \arg \min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} J(y), \quad J(y) = \frac{1}{2} y^T \mathbf{A} y - b^T y$$

17.1. Abstract steepest descent

Given continuously differentiable $F : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

Find minimizer $x^* \in D : x^* = \arg \min_{x \in D} F(x)$

$$x^{(0)} \in D$$

$$k = 0$$

while $\|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}\| \leq \tau \|x^{(k)}\|$ **do**

$$d_k = -\mathbf{grad} F(x^{(k)})$$

$$t^* = \arg \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}} F(x^{(k)} + t d_k)$$

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + t^* d_k$$

$$k = k + 1$$

end while

17.2. Gradient Method for s.p.d linear systems of equations

Adapt the steepest descent algorithm for the quadratic minimization problem.

$$F(x) = J(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T \mathbf{A} x - b^T x \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{grad} J(x) = \mathbf{A} x - b$$

$$x^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$k = 0$$

$$r_0 = b - \mathbf{A} x^{(0)}$$

while $\|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}\| \leq \tau \|x^{(k)}\|$ **do**

$$t^* = \frac{r_k^T r_k}{r_k^T \mathbf{A} r_k}$$

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + t^* r_k$$

$$r_{k+1} = r_k - t^* \mathbf{A} r_k$$

$$k = k + 1$$

end while

17.3. Convergence

The steepest descent and the gradient method possess at least linear convergence

Theorem: Convergence of gradient/steepest descent method

The iterates of the gradient method satisfy

$$\left\|x^{(k+1)} - x^*\right\|_A \leq L \left\|x^{(k)} - x^*\right\|_A \quad L = \frac{\text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A}) - 1}{\text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A}) + 1}$$

that is, the iteration converges at least linearly

18. Conjugate gradient method

Again, we consider a linear system of equations $\mathbf{A}x = b$ with s.p.d system matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ and given $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Idea Replace linear search with *subspace correction*

Given Initial guess $x^{(0)}$ and *nested* subspaces $U_1 \subset U_2 \subset \dots \subset U_n = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\dim U_k = k$

$$U_{k+1} = \text{Span}\{U_k, r_k\}$$

18.1. Krylov Spaces

Definition: Krylov Space

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$, $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $z \neq 0$, the l -th *Krylov space* is defined as

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{A}, z) = \text{Span}\{z, \mathbf{A}z, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{l-1}z\}$$

Lemma:

The subspaces $U_k \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $k \geq 1$ defined above satisfy

$$U_k = \text{Span}\{r_0, \mathbf{A}r_0, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{k-1}r_0\} = \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{A}, z)$$

where $r_0 = b - \mathbf{A}x^{(0)}$ is the initial residual.

18.2. Implementation of CG

Left out

```
1      x = pcg(A,b,tol,maxit,[],[],x0);  
      x = pcg(Afun,b,tol,maxit,[],[],x0);
```

CG is used for larger n as iterative solver $x^{(k)}$ for some $k \ll n$ is expected to provide good approximation for x^*

19. Preconditioning

CG has a slow convergence rate in case $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{A}) \gg 1$

Idea Apply CG Method to transformed linear systems

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\mathbf{A}}\tilde{x} &= \tilde{b} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{A}} &= \mathbf{B}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}^{-1/2} \\ \tilde{x} &= \mathbf{B}^{1/2}x \\ \tilde{b} &= \mathbf{B}^{-1/2}b\end{aligned}$$

where as $\mathbf{B}^{1/2} = \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{D}^{1/2} \mathbf{Q}$ and $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{Q}^T$.

Preconditioner

A s.p.d matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ is called a *preconditioner* for the s.p.d matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ if

1. $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{A}^{-1/2} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^{-1/2})$ is "small"
2. the evaluation of $\mathbf{B}^{-1}x$ is about as expensive as the matrix vector multiplication $\mathbf{A}x$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

20. Survey of Krylov Subspace Methods

20.1. Minimal residual function

Replace inner Euclidean product in CG with \mathbf{A} -inner product.

$$\left\| x^{(l)} - x \right\|_A \quad \text{replaced with} \quad \left\| \mathbf{A}(x^{(l)} - x) \right\|_2$$

minres \implies Iterative solver for *symmetric* Matrices \mathbf{A}

gmres \implies Iterative solver for *general* Matrices \mathbf{A}

Part VI.

Eigenvalues

21. "Direct" Eigensolvers

All "direct" eigensolvers are iterative methods

```
function d= eigqr(A,tol)
    n = size(A,1);
    while (norm(tril(A,-1))> tol*norm(A))
        shift = A(n,n);
        [Q,R] = qr(A-shift*eye(n));
        A = Q'*A*Q;
        tril(A,-1)
    end
    d = diag(A);
end
```

22. Power Methods

22.1. Direct Power Method

Initial Guess $z^{(0)}$ "arbitrary"

Next Iterate $w = Az^{(k-1)}$, $z^{(k)} = \frac{w}{\|w\|_2}$

Computes the eigenvector for λ_{max} . Get eigenvalue through raleigh quotient.

Definition: Raleigh Quotient

$$p_{\mathbf{A}}(u) = \frac{u^H \mathbf{A} u}{u^H u}$$

If $\lambda \in \sigma(\mathbf{A})$ and $z \in Eig_{\lambda}(\mathbf{A})$ then $p_{\mathbf{A}}(z) = \lambda$.

22.1.1. Normalized Cut

Pixel set $\mathcal{V} : \{1, \dots, nm\}$

Indexing (since all pixels are saved in a row)

$$k = index(pixel_{i,j}) = (i-1)n + j$$

Notation

$$p_k = (\mathbf{P})_{ij} \quad k = 1, \dots, nm$$

Local similarity matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{N,N}$ where as $N = nm$.

$$(\mathbf{W})_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if pixels } i, j \text{ not adjacent} \\ 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ \sigma(p_i, p_j) & \text{if pixels } i \text{ and } j \text{ adjacent} \end{cases}$$

σ is a *similarity function*

$$\sigma(x, y) = e^{-\alpha(x-y)^2} \quad \alpha > 0$$

Definition: Normalized Cut

For $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathcal{V}$ we define the normalized cut as

$$Ncut(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{cut(\mathcal{X})}{weight(\mathcal{X})} + \frac{cut(\mathcal{X})}{weight(\mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{X})}$$

with

$$cut(\mathcal{X}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}, j \notin \mathcal{X}} w_{ij}, \quad weight(\mathcal{X}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}, j \in \mathcal{V}} w_{ij}$$

Segmentation problem find

$$\mathcal{X}^* \subset \mathcal{V} : \mathcal{X}^* = \arg \min_{\mathcal{X} \subset \mathcal{V}} Ncut(\mathcal{X})$$

Reformulate the problem

$$\text{Indicator function : } z : \{1, \dots, N\} \mapsto \{-1, 1\}, \quad z_i := z(i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \in \mathcal{X} \\ -1 & \text{if } i \notin \mathcal{X} \end{cases}$$

Lemma: Ncut and Rayleigh quotient

With $z \in \{-1, 1\}^N$ (indicator function) there holds

$$Ncut(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{y^T \mathbf{A} y}{y^T \mathbf{D} y}, \quad y = (1 + z) - \beta(1 - z), \quad \beta = \frac{\sum_{z_i > 0} d_i}{\sum_{z_i < 0} d_i}$$

22.2. Inverse Iteration

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ regular:

$$\text{Smallest (in modulus) EV of } \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{(\text{Largest (in modulus) EV of } \mathbf{A}^{-1})}$$

22.3. Preconditioned Inverse Iteration

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ find *smallest* Eigenvalue of regular \mathbf{A} . Instead of solving $\mathbf{A}w = z^{(k-1)}$ compute $w = \mathbf{B}^{-1}z^{(k-1)}$ with "inexpensive s.p.d. *approximate inverse* $\mathbf{B}^{-1} \approx \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ (\mathbf{B} : preconditioner).

Initial Guess $z^{(0)}$

Next Iterate

$$w = z^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}z^{(k-1)} - p_{\mathbf{A}}(z^{(k-1)})z^{(k-1)})$$

$$z^k = \frac{w}{\|w\|_2}$$

- Linear convergence
- fast convergence if spectral condition number $\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A})$ small.

22.4. Subspace Iterations

Task Compute m , $m \ll n$ of the largest/smallest eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^H$ and associated eigenvectors.

Use orthogonality of the Eigenvectors.

Part VII.

Least Squares

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$, $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $b \in \mathbb{K}^m$

Find $x \in \mathbb{K}^n$ such that

1. $\|\mathbf{A}x - b\| = \inf\{\|\mathbf{A}y - b\|_2 : y \in \mathbb{K}^n\}$
2. $\|x\|$ is minimal

Lemma: Existence & Uniqueness of Solutions of the Least squares problem

The least squares problem for $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{A} \neq 0$ has a unique solution for every $b \in \mathbb{K}^m$

23. Normal Equations

$$\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A} x = \mathbf{A}^H b$$

Numerically unstable

$$\text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}) = \text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A})^2$$

Part VIII.

Filtering Algorithms

24. Discrete Convolutions

Definition: Discrete Convolution

Given $x = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1})^T \in \mathbb{K}^n$, $h = (h_0, \dots, h_{n-1})^T \in \mathbb{K}^n$ their *discrete convolution* is the vector $y \in \mathbb{K}^{2n-1}$ with components

$$y_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} h_{k-j} x_j, \quad k = 0, \dots, 2n-2$$

Definition: Discrete Periodic Convolution

The *discrete periodic convolution* of two n -periodic sequences $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$, $(y_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ yields the n -periodic sequence

$$(z_k) = (x_k) *_{\mathbb{Z}} (y_k)$$

$$z_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x_{k-j} y_j = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Definition: Circulant Matrix

A matrix $\mathbf{C} = (c_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$ is *circulant*

$$:\Leftrightarrow \quad \exists (u_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ } n\text{-periodic sequence: } c_{ij} = u_{i-j}, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n$$

25. Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

Fourier-Matrix

$$F_n = \begin{pmatrix} w_n^0 & w_n^0 & \dots & w_n^0 \\ w_n^0 & w_n^1 & \dots & w_n^{n-1} \\ w_n^0 & w_n^2 & \dots & w_n^{2n-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_n^0 & w_n^{n-1} & \dots & w_n^{(n-1)^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$w_n^k = e^{2\pi i k/n}$$

Lemma: Properties of Fourier Matrix

The scaled Fourier Matrix $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{F}_n$ is unitary:

$$\mathbf{F}_n^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{F}_n^H = \frac{1}{n} \overline{\mathbf{F}_n}$$

Lemma: Diagonalization of Circulant Matrices

For any circulant matrix $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n}$, $c_{ij} = u_{i-j}$, $(u_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ n -periodic sequence, holds true

$$\mathbf{C} \overline{\mathbf{F}_n} = \overline{\mathbf{F}_n} \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$$

$$d = \mathbf{F}_n (u_0, \dots, u_{n-1})^T$$

Conclusion:

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F}_n^{-1} \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) \mathbf{F}_n$$

Definition: Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

The linear map $\mathcal{F}_n : \mathbb{C}^n \mapsto \mathbb{C}^n$, $\mathcal{F}_n(y) := \mathbf{F}_n y$, $y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is called *discrete Fourier transform*

```
%% DFT
c = fft(y)
%% Inverse DFT
y = ifft(c);
```

25.1. Two-Dimensional DFT

```
fft2(Y) = fft(fft(Y), 'y').'
```

26. Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

Complexity of FFT algorithm: $n = 2^L$

$$O(L2^L) = O(n \log_2 n)$$

Part IX.

Polynomial Interpolation

27. Polynomials

$$\mathcal{P}_k := \{t \mapsto a_k t^k + a_{k-1} t^{k-1} + \dots + a_0, a_j \in \mathbb{K}\}$$

Theorem: Dimension of Space of Polynomials

$$\dim \mathcal{P}_j = k + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{P}_k \subset C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$$

Matlab:

$$a_k t^k + a_{k-1} t^{k-1} + \dots + a_0 \quad (\text{use horner schema to calculate})$$

`polyval(p,x);`

28. Polynomial Interpolation: Theory

Given: Simple nodes t_0, \dots, t_n , $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $-\infty < t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n < \infty$ and the values $y_0, \dots, y_n \in \mathbb{K}$ compute $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$ such that

$$p(t_j) = y_j \quad \text{for } j = 0, \dots, n$$

28.1. Lagrange Polynomials

For nodes $t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n$ consider

$$\text{Lagrange Polynomials: } L_i(t) = \prod_{j=0 \wedge j \neq i}^n \frac{t - t_j}{t_i - t_j}$$

29. Chebychev Interpolation

Definition: Chebychev Polynomial

The n^{th} Chebychev Polynomial is

$$T_n(t) = \cos(n \arccos(t)) \quad -1 \leq t \leq 1$$

$$\text{Zeros of } T_n : \quad t_k = \cos\left(\frac{2k-1}{2n}\pi\right), \quad k = 1, \dots, n$$

Scaling argument

$$[-1, 1] \xrightarrow{\hat{t} \mapsto t := a + \frac{1}{2}(\hat{t}+1)(b-a)} [a, b] \quad \hat{f}(\hat{t}) := f(t)$$

29.1. Computational Aspects

Theorem: Orthogonality of Chebychev polynomials

The Chebychev polynomials are orthogonal with respect to the scalar product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

Theorem: Representation formula

The interpolation polynomial p of f in the Chebychev nodes x_0, \dots, x_n (the zeros of T_{n+1} is given by:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2}c_0 + c_1T_1(x) + \dots c_nT_n(x)$$

with

$$c_k = \frac{2}{n+1} \sum_{t=0}^n f\left(\cos\left(\frac{2t+1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) \cdot \cos\left(k \frac{2t+1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Theorem: Clenshaw algorithm

Let $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$ be an arbitrary polynomial

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2}c_0 + c_1T_1(x) + \dots + c_nT_n(x)$$

Set

$$\begin{aligned} d_{n+2} &= d_{n+1} = 0 \\ d_k &= c_k + (2x) \cdot d_{k+1} - d_{k+2} \quad \text{for } k = n, n-1, \dots, 0 \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2}(d_0 - d_2)$$

The Clenshaw algorithm is numerically stable

Part X.

Piecewise Polynomials

Perspective Data Interpolation

Problem Model a functional relation: $f : I \subset \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ from the (exact) measurements (t_i, y_i) , $i = 0, \dots, n$.
Interpolation constraint $f(t_i) = y_i \ \forall i$

Goal Shape preserving interpolation

positive data	\rightarrow	positive interpolant f
monotonic data	\rightarrow	monotonic interpolant f
convex data	\rightarrow	convex interpolant f

30. Piecewise Lagrange Interpolation

30.1. Piecewise Linear Interpolation

Data $(t_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $i = 0, \dots, n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n$

Piecewise linear interpolant connect the dots with direct lines.

$$s(x) = \frac{(t_{i+1} - t)y_i + (t - t_i)y_{i+1}}{t_{i+1} - t_i} \quad t \in [t_i, t_{i+1}]$$

30.2. Piecewise Polynomial Interpolation

Use a polynomial instead of a direct line.

31. Cubic Hermite Interpolation

Given Mesh points $(t_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $i = 0, \dots, n$, $t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n$

Goal Function $f \in \mathbb{C}^1([t_0, t_n])$, $f(t_i) = y_i$, $i = 0, \dots, n$

$$s(t) = y_{i-1}H_1(t) + y_iH_2(t) + c_{i-1}H_3(t) + c_iH_4(t), \quad t \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$$

$$\begin{aligned} H_1(t) &= \phi\left(\frac{t_i - t}{h_i}\right) \\ H_2(t) &= \phi\left(\frac{t - t_{i-1}}{h_i}\right) \\ H_3(t) &= -h_i\theta\left(\frac{t_i - t}{h_i}\right) \\ H_4(t) &= h_i\theta\left(\frac{t - t_{i-1}}{h_i}\right) \\ h_i &= t_i - t_{i-1} \\ \phi(\tau) &= 3\tau^2 - 2\tau^3 \\ \theta(\tau) &= \tau^3 - \tau^2 \end{aligned}$$

Choose slopes c_i according to specification. For example:

$$c_i = \begin{cases} \Delta_1 & \text{for } i = 0 \\ \Delta_n & \text{for } i = n \\ \frac{t_{i+1}-t_i}{t_{i+1}-t_{i-1}}\Delta_i + \frac{t_i-t_{i-1}}{t_{i+1}-t_{i-1}}\Delta_{i+1} & \text{if } 1 \leq i < n \end{cases}$$

$$\Delta_j = \frac{y_j - y_{j-1}}{t_j - t_{j-1}}$$

31.1. Shape Preserving Hermite Interpolation

Hermite interpolation does not preserve monotonicity. Choose a different formula for the slopes:

$$c_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \text{sgn}(\Delta_i) \neq \text{sgn}(\Delta_{i+1}) \\ \frac{1}{\frac{w_a}{\Delta_i} + \frac{w_b}{\Delta_{i+1}}} & \text{(weighted average) otherwise } (w_a + w_b = 1) \end{cases}$$

Concrete choice of weights:

$$w_a = \frac{2h_{i+1} + h_i}{3(h_{i+1} + h_i)} \quad w_b = \frac{h_{i+1} + 2h_i}{3(h_{i+1} + h_i)} \quad \text{Matlab Function: pchip}$$

32. Splines

Definition: Spline Space

Given an interval $I = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ and a *mesh* $\mathcal{M} := \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{n-1} < t_n = b\}$, the vector space $\mathcal{S}_{d,\mathcal{M}}$ of the *spline functions* of degree d (or order $d + 1$) is defined by

$$\mathcal{S}_{d,\mathcal{M}} := \left\{ s \in C^{d-1}(I) : s|_{[t_{j-1}, t_j]} \in \mathcal{P}_d \forall j = 1, \dots, n \right\}$$

$d = 0$: \mathcal{M} -piecewise constant *discontinuous* functions

$d = 1$: \mathcal{M} -piecewise linear *continuous* functions

$d = 2$: continuously differentiable \mathcal{M} -piecewise quadratic functions

Dimension of Spline Space

Dimension of spline space by *counting argument*

$$\dim \mathcal{S}_{d,\mathcal{M}} = n \cdot \dim \mathcal{P}_d - \#\{C^{d-1} \text{continuity constraints}\} = n \cdot (d + 1) - (n - 1) \cdot d = n + d$$

32.1. Cubic Spline Interpolation

Special case of Spline interpolation. Since C^2 -functions are perceived as smooth. Choose $d = 3$.

Reuse representation through cubic Hermite basis polynomials:

$$s_{[t_{j-1}, t_j]}(t) = s(t_{j-1}) \cdot (1 - 3\tau^2 + 2\tau^3) + s(t_j) \cdot (3\tau^2 - 2\tau^3) + h_j s'(t_{j-1}) \cdot (\tau - 2\tau^2 + \tau^3) + h_j s'(t_j) \cdot (-\tau^2 + \tau^3)$$

with $h_j = t_j - t_{j-1}$ and $\tau = (t - t_{j-1})/h_j$

Produces Linear $n - 1$ linear equations for n slopes

$$\frac{1}{h_j}c_{j-1} + \left(\frac{2}{h_j} + \frac{2}{h_{j+1}}\right)c_j + \frac{1}{h_{j+1}}c_{j+1} = 3\left(\frac{y_j - y_{j-1}}{h_j^2} + \frac{y_{j+1} - y_j}{h_{j+1}^2}\right) \quad c_j = s'(t_j)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_0 & a_1 & b_1 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & b_1 & a_2 & b_2 & 0 & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & 0 & b_{n-3} & a_{n-1} & b_{n-2} & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & b_{n-2} & a_0 & b_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3\left(\frac{y_1 - y_0}{h_1^2} + \frac{y_2 - y_1}{h_2^2}\right) \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ 3\left(\frac{y_{n-1} - y_{n-2}}{h_{n-1}^2} + \frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{h_n^2}\right) \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} a_j = \frac{1}{h_j} \\ b_j = \frac{2}{h_j} + \frac{2}{h_{j+1}} \end{cases}$$

Two additional constraints are required, three different choices are possible (put them into the LSE above):

Complete cubic spline interpolation

$$\begin{aligned} s'(t_0) &= c_0 \\ s'(t_n) &= c_n \end{aligned}$$

Natural cubic spline interpolation

$$s''(t_0) = s''(t_n) = c_n \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{cases} \frac{2}{h_1}c_0 + \frac{1}{h_1}c_1 = 3\frac{y_1 - y_0}{h_1^2} \\ \frac{1}{h_n}c_{n-1} + \frac{2}{h_n}c_n = 3\frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{h_n^2} \end{cases}$$

Periodic cubic spline interpolation

$$\begin{aligned} s'(t_0) &= s'(t_n) \\ s''(t_0) &= s''(t_n) \end{aligned}$$

produces an $n \times n$ -linear system with s.p.d. coefficient matrix: TODO: REDO MATRIX

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & b_0 \\ b_1 & a_2 & b_2 & \ddots & & 0 \\ 0 & b_2 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & b_{n-2} & 0 \\ 0 & & \ddots & b_{n-2} & a_{n-1} & b_{n-1} \\ b_0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & b_{n-1} & a_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Matlab function: `v = spline(t,y,x)`

32.2. Shape Preserving Spline Interpolation

Since the cubic spline interpolant is *not* monotonicity or curvature-preserving. We fix the slopes c_i in the nodes using the harmonic mean of data slopes Δ_j , the final interpolant will be tangents of these segments in the points (t_i, y_i) . If (t_i, y_i) is a local maximum or minimum of the data, c_j is set to zero.

$$\begin{aligned} c_i &= \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\Delta_i^{-1} + \Delta_{i+1}^{-1}} & \text{if } \text{sign}(\Delta_i) = \text{sign}(\Delta_{i+1}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ c_0 &= 2\Delta_1 - c_1 \\ c_n &= 2\Delta_n - c_{n-1} \\ \Delta_j &= \frac{y_j - y_{j-1}}{t_j - t_{j-1}} \end{aligned}$$

Part XI.

Numerical Quadrature

Approximate evaluation of $\int_{\Omega} f(x)dx$, integration domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. Continuous function $f : \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ only available as function $y=f(x)$ (point evaluation).

33. Quadrature Formulas

n -point quadrature formula on

$$[a, b] : \int_a^b f(t)dt \approx Q_n(f) = \sum_{j=1}^n w_j^n f(\xi_j^n)$$
$$w_j^n : \text{Quadrature weights} \in \mathbb{R}$$
$$\xi_j^n : \text{Quadrature nodes} \in [a, b]$$

Given Quadrature formula $(\hat{\xi}_j, \hat{w}_j)_{j=1}^n$ on reference interval $[-1, 1]$

Idea Transformation formula for integrals

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

34. Polynomial Quadrature Formulas

Idea replace integrand f with $p_{n-1} \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$ = polynomial interpolant of f for given interpolation nodes $\{t_0, \dots, t_{n-1}\} \subset [a, b]$.

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt \approx Q_n(f) := \int_a^b p_{n-1}(t)dt$$

Newton Cotes Formulas

$n = 1$: **Trapezoidal rule** (order 2)

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt \approx \frac{b-a}{2}(f(a) + f(b))$$

$n = 2$: **Simpson rule** (order 4)

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt \approx \frac{b-a}{6} \left(f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right)$$

$n \geq 8$: **Quadrature formulas with negative weights**

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt \approx \frac{b-a}{28350} \left(989f(a) + 5888f\left(\frac{b-a}{8}\right) - 928f\left(\frac{b-a}{4}\right) + 10496f\left(3\frac{b-a}{8}\right) - \right. \\ \left. 4540f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right) + 10496f\left(5\frac{b-a}{8}\right) - 928f\left(3\frac{b-a}{4}\right) + 5888f\left(7\frac{b-a}{8}\right) + 989f(b) \right)$$

Warning: Negative weights compromise numerical stability.

Quadrature Error

Quadrature error estimates directly from L^∞ -interpolation error for Lagrangian interpolation with polynomial degree $n - 1$

$$f \in C^n([a, b]) \Rightarrow \left| \int_a^b f(t)dt - Q_n(f) \right| \leq \frac{1}{n!} (b-a)^{n+1} \|f^{(n)}\|_{L^\infty([a, b])}$$

35. Composite Quadrature

With $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{m-1} < x_m = b$

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(t)dt$$

- Partition integration domain $[a, b]$ by *mesh*
- Apply the quadrature formulas from above on the sub-intervals

Theorem: Convergence of composite quadrature formulas

For a composite quadrature formula Q based on a local quadrature formula of order $p \in \mathbb{N}$ holds:

$$\exists C > 0 : \left| \int_I f(t)dt - Q(f) \right| \leq Ch^p \|f^{(p)}\|_{L^\infty(I)} \quad h : \max \text{ Mesh width}$$

Lemma: Bound for order of quadrature formula

There is no n -point quadrature of order $2n + 1$

36. Gauss Quadrature

Necessary & Sufficient conditions of order 4

$$Q_n(p) = \int_a^b p(t)dt \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}_3 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad Q_n(t^q) = \frac{1}{q+1} (b^{q+1} - a^{q+1}), \quad q = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

This gives us 4 equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 1dt &= 2 = 1w_1 + 1w_2 \\ \int_{-1}^1 tdt &= 0 = \xi_1 w_1 + \xi_2 w_2 \\ \int_{-1}^1 t^2 dt &= \frac{2}{3} = \xi_1^2 w_1 + \xi_2^2 w_2 \\ \int_{-1}^1 t^3 dt &= 0 = \xi_1^3 w_1 + \xi_2^3 w_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \quad w_1 &= 1 \\ w_2 &= 1 \\ \xi_1 &= \frac{1}{3} \\ \xi_2 &= \frac{-1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: Existence of n -point quadrature formulas of order $2n$

Let $\{\bar{P}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0}$ be a family of non-zero polynomials that satisfies

- $\bar{P}_n \in \mathcal{P}_n$
- $\int_{-1}^1 q(t) \bar{P}_n(t) dt = 0$ for all $q \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$
- The set $\{\xi_j^n\}_{j=1}^m w_j^n f(\xi_j^n)$ of real zeros of $\bar{\mathfrak{P}}_n$ is contained in $[-1, 1]$

$$\text{then } Q_n(f) = \sum_{j=1}^m w_j^n f(\xi_j^n)$$

Lemma: Zeros of Legendre Polynomials

P_n has n distinct zeros in $] -1, 1[$.

Part XII.

Integration of Ordinary Differential Equations: Single Step Methods

37. Initial Value Problems (IVP) for ODEs

Initial value problem (IVP) for first-order ordinary differential equation (ODE)

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{y} &= f(t, y) \\ y(t_0) &= y_0\end{aligned}$$

- $f : I \times D \mapsto \mathbb{R}^d$ (= right hand side) given in procedural form: `function v = f(t,y)`
- $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ (= time interval)
- $D \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ (= state space / phase space)
- $\Omega = I \times D$ (= extended state space)
- t_0 (= initial time)
- y_0 (= initial value)

For $d > 1$: $\dot{y} = f(t, y)$ can be viewed as a *system of ordinary differential equations*.

$$\dot{y} = f(y) \iff \begin{pmatrix} \dot{y}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \dot{y}_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(t, y_1, \dots, y_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(t, y_1, \dots, y_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Autonomous IVP } H : \quad \begin{cases} \dot{y} &= f(y) \\ y(0) &= y_0 \end{cases}$$

Assumption: Global Solutions

All solutions of H are global. $J(y_0) = \mathbb{R}$ for all $y_0 \in D$

Definition: Evolution Operator

Under the Assumption above the mapping:

$$\Phi : \begin{cases} \mathbb{R} \times D & \mapsto D \\ (t, y_0) & \mapsto \Phi'(y_0) = y(t) \end{cases}$$

where $t \mapsto y(t) \in C^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^d)$ is the unique (global) solution of the IVP $\dot{y} = f(y)$. $y(0) = y_0$ is the *evolution operator* for the autonomous ODE $\dot{y} = f(y)$

38. Euler Methods

Idea *timestepping*: successive approximation of evolution on small intervals $[t_{k-1}, t_k]$

Approximation of solution on $[t_{k-1}, t_k]$ by *tangent* curve to current global condition.

Explicit Euler Method

Explicit euler method generates a sequence by the recursion:

$$y_{k+1} = y_k + h_k f(t_k, y_k) \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1$$

with local *timestep* $h_k = t_{k+1} - t_k$

Implicit Euler Method

$$y_{k+1} = y_k + h_k f(t_{k+1}, y_{k+1})$$

39. Convergence of Single Step Methods

$$e_{k+1} = \Psi^{h_k} y_k - \Psi^{h_k} y(t_k) = \underbrace{\Psi^{h_k} y_k - \Psi^{h_k} y(t_k)}_{\text{propagated error}} + \underbrace{\Psi^{h_k} y(t_k) - \Psi^{h_k} y(t_k)}_{\text{one-step error}}$$

40. Runge-Kutta Methods

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \dot{y}(t) = f(t, y(t)) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow y(t_1) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\tau, y(\tau)) d\tau$$

Idea Approximate integral by means of s -point quadratur formula defined on reference interval $[0, 1]$ with nodes c_1, \dots, c_s and weights b_1, \dots, b_s

$$y(t_1) \approx y_1 = y_0 + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i f(t_0 + c_i h, y(t_0 + c_i h)) \quad h = t_1 - t_0$$

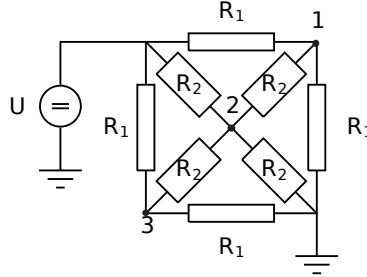
Get $y(t_0 + c_i h)$ by *bootstrapping*.

Part XIII.

Applications

41. Electrical circuits

Consider the following linear circuit ($U_{input} = U$, R_1 , R_2 given). Since the circuit is grounded: $U_{ground} = 0$



To derive the linear system of equations. One has to look at the specific nodes and create an LSE:

Node 1

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot (U_1 - U) + \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot (U_1 - 0) + \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot (U_1 - U_2) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \left(2\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \right) \cdot U_1 - \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot U_2 &= \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot U \end{aligned}$$

Node 2

$$-\frac{1}{R_2} \cdot U_1 + 4\frac{1}{R_2} \cdot U_2 - \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot U_3 = \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot U$$

Node 3

$$-\frac{1}{R_2} \cdot U_2 + \left(2\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \right) \cdot U_3 = \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot U$$

Now we are able to create the LSE:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} & -\frac{1}{R_2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{R_2} & 4\frac{1}{R_2} & -\frac{1}{R_2} \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{R_2} & 2\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \\ U_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{R_1}U \\ \frac{1}{R_2}U \\ \frac{1}{R_1}U \end{pmatrix}$$