

# Numerical Methods for Computational Science and Engineering

## Computing with Matrices and Vectors

### Machine Arithmetic

As machines can't compute in real numbers but compute with machine numbers, there are some constraints. Over- and underflow exist, the amount of numbers is finite. Thus, instead of checking for equality, we check if the difference of two numbers is smaller than some maximal relative error.

### Cancellation

Cancellation occurs when subtracting we attempt to:

- Subtract numbers of the same size.
- Divide by a small number close to zero.

To avoid cancellation, we simply avoid such kinds of subtractions and divisions by recasting expressions or use tricks like Taylor approximations.

## Gaussian Elimination

### Theory

$A$  is *invertible* or *regular* if and only if there exists a unique solution  $x$  for  $Ax = b$ , that is  $x = A^{-1}b$ .

### Code and Complexity

In Eigen, we use the following code to solve  $Ax = b$ :

```
MatrixXd A;
VectorXd b, x;
...
// A has no special form
x = A.lu().solve(b);
// A is lower triangular
x = A.triangularView<Eigen::Lower>().solve(b);
// A is upper triangular
x = A.triangularView<Eigen::Upper>().solve(b);
// A is hermitian and positive definite
x = A.selfadjointView<Eigen::Upper>().llt().solve(b);
// A is hermitian and positive or negative definite
x = A.selfadjointView<Eigen::Upper>().ldlt().solve(b);
// Solving based on householder transformation
x = A.HouseholderQR<MatrixXd>().solve(b);
// Solving based on singular value decomposition
```

```
x = A.jacobiSvd<MatrixXd>().solve(b);
```

The generic asymptotic complexity is  $O(n^3)$ , but triangular linear systems can be solved in  $O(n^2)$ .

Solving  $Ax = b$  by computing  $A^{-1}$  and calculating  $x = A^{-1}b$  is unstable. Instead we use gaussian elimination, which is stable and not affected by roundoff in practice.

### Low-Rank Modifications

We assume a generic rank-one modification is applied to  $A$ :

$$\tilde{A} = A + uv^H$$

By using *block elimination*, we get:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & u \\ v^H & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x} \\ \zeta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

From this follows that:

$$\begin{aligned} A\tilde{x} + u\zeta &= b \\ \tilde{x} &= A^{-1}(b - u\zeta) \\ &\dots \\ (1 + v^H A^{-1}u)\zeta &= v^H A^{-1}b \\ &\dots \\ A\tilde{x} &= b - \frac{uv^H A^{-1}}{1 + v^H A^{-1}u}b \end{aligned}$$

### Sparse Matrices

A matrix  $A$  is called *sparse*, if the number of non-zero entries  $nnz(A)$  is much smaller than the size of  $A$ .

#### Storage Formats

Sparse matrices should be solved with `x = A.SparseLU<SparseMatrixType>().solve(b)` to further reduce the asymptotic complexity.

Also note that the product of sparse matrices isn't necessarily sparse.

#### Triplet/Coordinate List (COO) Format

Stores triplets with row indices, column indices and the associated values.

### Compressed Row-Storage (CRS) Format

Stores the values, the corresponding column indices and row pointers that indicate the start of a new row.

```
SparseMatrix<double, RowMajor> A(rows, cols);
```

### Compressed Column-Storage (CCS) Format

Same as CRS, but with column pointers and row indices instead.

```
SparseMatrix<double, ColMajor> A(rows, cols);
```

## Linear Least Square Problems

### Example: Linear Parameter Estimation

Assume we take  $m$  measurements and find the pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$ . We can express these measurements in the following overdetermined linear system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_m & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

### Solution Concepts

For given  $A$ ,  $b$ , the vector  $x$  is a least squares solution of  $Ax = b$ , if:

$$x \in \operatorname{argmin}_y \|Ay - b\|_2^2$$

For a least squares solution  $x$ , the vector  $Ax$  is the unique orthogonal projection of  $b$  onto the image of  $\operatorname{Image}(A)$ . From this follows that:

$$b - Ax \perp \operatorname{Image}(A)$$

$$A^T(b - Ax) = 0$$

$$A^T Ax = A^T b$$

If  $m \geq n$  and  $\operatorname{Kernel}(A) = 0$ , then the linear system of equations  $Ax = b$  has a unique least squares solution  $x = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$ .

### Moore-Penrose Pseudoinverse

As there are many potential least square solutions, we define the *generalized solution*  $x^+$  of a linear system of equations as:

$$x^+ = \operatorname{argmin}\{\|x\|_2, x \in \operatorname{lsq}(A, b)\}$$

The generalized solution  $x^+$  of the linear systems of equations  $Ax = b$  is given by:

$$x^+ = V(V^T A^T A V)^{-1}(V^T A^T b)$$

### Code

We want to solve  $A^T A x = A^T b$ . To do this, we use the following procedure:

1. Compute the regular matrix  $C = A^T A$ .
2. Compute the right hand side vector  $c = A^T b$ .
3. Solve the symmetric positive definite linear system of equations  $Cx = c$ .

```
MatrixXd C = A.transpose() * A;  
VectorXd c = A.transpose() * b;  
VectorXd x = C.llt().solve(c);
```

The asymptotic complexity is  $O(n^2 m + n^3)$ .