

	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri
9 - 10		LECTURE	×		
10 - 11		LAB			
11 – 12					
12 – 1					
1 – 2		LAB			
2 – 3					
3 – 4					
4 – 5			LECTURE		

- 1. Two recorded classes this week: Tuesday at 09.00, and Wednesday at 16.00.
- 2. Lab times: Tuesday 10.00-10:50, and 13.00-13.50. You should try to attend at least one of these.



1

Part 1: Solving Linear Systems (again)

Our eventual goal is the solve systems of N simultaneous equations in N unknowns: find x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N , such that

$$\begin{array}{c} c_{3} \\ 6 \times_{1} + 3 \times_{2} - \times_{3} \\ 2 \times_{1} + 3 \times_{2} + \times_{3} \\ - \times_{1} - \times_{2} + 4 \times_{3} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} a_{11} \times_{1} + a_{12} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{1N} \times_{N} = b_{1} \\ a_{21} \times_{1} + a_{22} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{2N} \times_{N} = b_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{N1} \times_{1} + a_{N2} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{NN} \times_{N} = b_{N}. \end{array}$$

We expressed this as a matrix-vector equation: Find x such that

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

where A is a N × N matrix, and **b** and **x** are (column) vector with N entries. We could do this with **Gaussian Elimination** (or LU-factorization, etc). But instead we use a method that is easier to program: (acobi's method). $\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 3 & - \\ 2 & - & 1 \\ 2 & - & 1 \\ 2 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - \\ 1 &$

Part 1: Solving Linear Systems (again)

The idea is to choose an initial "guess", which $call(\mathbf{x}^{(0)})$ The we try to compute an improved guess, called call $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$. And we improve that again, to get $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$.

Eventually, we have a sequence of estimates

$$\{x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, \dots, x^{(k)}, \dots\}$$

If could do this an infinite number of times, then

as
$$k \to \infty$$
, we get $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \to \mathbf{x}$.

But in practice, we just iterate until $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ is "close enough" to \mathbf{x} .

$$\chi^{(0)} = \begin{pmatrix} \chi_{i}^{(0)} \\ \chi_{i}^{(0)} \\ \chi_{i}^{(0)} \\ \chi_{i}^{(0)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Part 1: Solving Linear Systems (again)

The algorithm (i.e., the method of "improving" the $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$) comes from the observation that, since (for example)

The
$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \dot{\xi}_{(M)} = a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1N}x_N = b_1$$
,
then '
 $x_1 = \frac{1}{a_{11}}(b_1 - a_{12}x_2 - a_{13}x_3 - \dots - a_{1N}x_N)$ Reprinted

So we can be optimistic that if $x_2^{(k)}$, $x_3^{(k)}$, ..., $x_N^{(k)}$ are a good estimates for x_2 , x_2 , ..., x_N , then

$$x_1^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{11}} (b_1 - a_{12} x_2^{(k)} - a_{13} x_3^{(k)} - \dots - a_{1N} x_N^{(k)})$$

will be an even better one for x_1 .

~

Here $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \cdots$

Applying the same idea to the rest of the equations, we get

$$\begin{aligned} x_{1}^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{a_{11}} (b_{1} - a_{12} x_{2}^{(k)} - a_{13} x_{3}^{(k)} - \dots - a_{1N} x_{N}^{(k)}) \\ x_{2}^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{a_{22}} (b_{2} - a_{21} x_{1}^{(k)} - a_{23} x_{3}^{(k)} - \dots - a_{2N} x_{N}^{(k)}) \\ &\vdots \\ x_{N}^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{a_{NN}} (b_{N} - a_{N,1} x_{1}^{(k)} - \dots - a_{N,N-1} x_{N-1}^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

This can be programmed with two (or so) nested for loops (which is the topic of Lab 6). But it can also be expressed in a simple way, using matrices and vectors.

Exam	هاه See video or annotated slides	
	$6 \times_1 + 3 \times_2 - \times_3 = 10$	
	$2x_{1} + \frac{1}{2}x_{2} + x_{3} = 1$	
. –	$-X_1 - X_2 + 4X_3 = -5$	
Take :	$\chi^{(\circ)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 0\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	
50 I	${}^{(1)}_{1} = \frac{1}{6} \left(10 - 3 \mathcal{X}_{2}^{(0)} + \mathcal{X}_{3}^{(0)} \right) = \frac{10}{6}$	
$\alpha_{1}^{(l)}$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
د- 2 مح	$h(i) = \begin{pmatrix} 10/6 \\ 1/7 \\ -5/4 \end{pmatrix}$	

.

Part 1: Solving Linear Systems (again)	Jacobi's method
Take $\chi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 10/6 \\ 1/7 \\ 5/6 \end{pmatrix}$ See video	or annotated slides
$5_{0} \qquad \chi_{1}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{6} \left(10 - 3 \chi_{2}^{(1)} + \chi_{3}^{(1)} \right) =$	
$\frac{1}{6}(10-3(\frac{1}{7})-\frac{5}{4})$	= 1.3869
similarly compute x2 and	x (z) x 3
There is also a "mutrix vi flue.	EW" of .

See video or annotated slides
The initial System is
$$Ax = b$$
.
We can write the Jacobi Iteration in
matrix form too.
Let $0 = diag(A) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$ Note: 0^{-1}
Let $T = D - A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -a_{12} & -a_{13} \\ -a_{21} & 0 & -a_{23} \\ -a_{31} & -a_{32} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
The Jacobi Iteration is
 $\chi^{(K+1)} = 0^{-1} (b + T\chi^{(K)})$

Now that we know the method, let us summarise the steps, so as to work out what standard operations on vectors and matrices we need.

We expressed the problem as a matrix-vector equation: Find \mathbf{x} such that

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b},$$

where A is a $N \times N$ matrix, and **b** and **x** are (column) vector with N entries. We then derived Jacobi's method: choose $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ and set

$$x^{(k+1)} = D^{-1}(b \oplus Tx^{(k)}).$$

where $D = \operatorname{diag}(A)$ and T = D - A.

Looking at this we see that the fundamental operations are: vector addition and matrix-vector multiplication.

CS319 – Week 8 Week 8: Linear Systems, and Operator Overloading

END OF PART 1



Part 2: A matrix class

Since we already have Vector class from last week, our next step is to write a class implementation for a matrix, along with the associated functions.

Then we need to define a function to multiply a matrix by vector.

First though, we consider the matrix representation. The most natural approach might seem to be to construct a two dimensional array. This can be done as follows (see Lab 4):

double **entries = new double *[N];	An	orray	of	avrays.
for (int i=0; i <n; i++)<="" td=""><td></td><td>•</td><td></td><td>•</td></n;>		•		•
entries[i] = new double N;)			

A simpler, faster approach is to store the N^2 entries of the matrix in a single, one-dimensional, array of length N^2 , and then take care how the access is done:

In	C++,	if	we	wont, we co	n just	represent
a	matrix	A	is	a "big vector"		
p	$= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{u} \\ \alpha_{2l} \end{pmatrix}$	0,2 022	a13 a23	progrommed as	$ \begin{array}{c} a_{13}\\ a_{21}\\ a_{22}\\ a_{22} \end{array} $	
	0-31	a ₃₂	a33 /	V 1	$\begin{pmatrix} a_{23} \\ a_{31} \\ a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$	
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We'll test this by implementing matrix-vector multiplication function:

02TestMatrix.cpp

	11	File:	01TestMatrix.h (Set v=A*u)
2	//	Author:	Niall Madden (Niall.Madden@NUIGalway.ie)
	//	Date:	Week 8 of 2021-CS319)
4	11	What:	Test the implementation Matrix class

```
void MatVec(Matrix &A, Vector &u, Vector &v)
48
50
      unsigned int N:
      N = A.size():
52
      if ( (N != u.size()) || ( N != v.size() ) )
        std::cerr << "dimension_mismatch_in_MatVec_" << std::endl;</pre>
54
      else
                                                        Mat Vec is
a Matrix - Vector
product.
        for (unsigned int i=0: i<N: i++)</pre>
56
           double x=0;
58
          for (unsigned int j=0; j<N; j++)
             x += A.getij(i,j)*u.geti(j);
           v.seti(i,x);
60
62
```

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END OF PART 2



Now we can implement Jacobi's method. The specific example coded, we will solve N = 3 equations whose matrix representation is

$$9x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 = 15 \tag{1}$$

$$3x_1 + 9x_2 + 3x_3 = 15 \tag{2}$$

$$3x_1 + 3x_2 + 9x_3 = 15 \tag{3}$$

This problem is constructed so that the solution is $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 1$.

Have a look at the main() function in OZJacobi.cpp to see how the problem is set up, and how the Jacobi solver is called. Here we will focus on that solver

Solu :
$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 9 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ $b = \begin{pmatrix} 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix}$





Part 3: Coding Jacobi's method

See 02Jacobi.cpp for more details



we were able to write, for example, r=A*x instead of MatVec(A, x, r)

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Exercise (8.1)

Write a method Matrix::norm() that returns the "Entry-wise" 2-norm of a matrix (also called the Frobenius or Hilbert-Schmidt norm) :

$$\|A\|_{p} = \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}|A_{i,j}|^{p}\Big)^{1/p}.$$

and the max-norm:

 $||A||_0 = \max_{i,j} |A_{i,j}|.$

.



In the next section, we will introduce the idea of **Operator Overloading**. But to get this to work, we need to study **copy constructors**.

This is a very technical area of C++ programming, but is unavoidable.

As we already know **constructor** is a method associated with a class that is called automatically whenever an object of that class is declared.

But there are times when objects are *implicitly* declared, such as when passed (by value) to a function.

Since this will happen often, we need to write special constuctors to handle it.



1

Last week we defined a class for vectors:

- It stores a vector of N doubles in a dynamically assigned array called entries;
- The constructor takes care of the memory allocation.

```
// From Vector.h (Week 7)
  class Vector {
   private
    double *entries:
4
     unsigned int N;
  public:
     Vector (unsigned int Size=2); -7 constructor
8
     ~Vector(void);
10
     unsigned int size(void) {return N;};
     double geti (unsigned int i);
12
     void seti (unsigned int i, double x);
     // print(), zero() and norm() not shown
14 };
16 // Code for the constructor from Vector.cpp
   Vector::Vector (unsigned int Size) {
18
    N = Size:
     entries = new double[Size];
201
```

Here "Entries" is pointer to type double stores memory address of the stort of the orray We then wrote some functions that manipulate vectors, such as AddVec in Week07/01TestVector.cpp



What would happen if we tried the following, seemingly reasonable piece of code?

Vector a(4); a.zero(); // sets entries of a all to 0 Vector c=a; // should define a new vector, with a copy of a This will cause problems for the following reasons: sot E think We would linke to Centries (0) = a. Entries [0] c. enfries (D = a. Entriess (1) (entries (2) = a. Entries [2] c. enfries (3) = a. Entriess (3) But actually t sets c. entries = a. entries. they both point to some memory

This is a problem (i) changing C. Entries[K] charges a entries[k] and vice versa. (2) If c (for example) goes out of scope, its destructor is called, deleting the memory collocated c. entriels. So a Enfries gets deleted too! (3) When a goes out of scope, a entries is deteted (again!) . Which causes program to crash.

The solve this problem, we should define our own **copy constructor**. A **copy constructor** is used to make an exact copy of an existing object. Therefore, it takes a single parameter: the address of the object to copy. For example:



The copy constructor can be called two ways:

(a) *explicitly*, .e.g,

Vector V(2); V.seti(0)=1.0; V.seti(1)=2.0; Vector W(V) // W is a copy V

(b) *implicitly*, when ever an object is passed by value to a function. If we have not defined our own copy constructor, the default one is used, which usually causes trouble.

CS319 – Week 8 Week 8: Linear Systems, and Operator Overloading

END OF PART Part 4





Recall that, along with **Encapsulation** (Classes) and **Inheritance** (deriving new classes from old). Polymorphism is one of the pillar ideas of Object-Oriented Programming

So far we have seen two forms of Polymorphism:

- (a) we may have two functions with the same name but different argument lists. This is **function overloading**.
- (b) templates allow us to define a function or class that with arbitrary data-types, which are not specified until used. In the case of a class template it is specified when an object of that class is defined.

We'll cover another form of polymorphism today: ("Operator overloading" .

Our main goal is to overload the addition (+) and subtraction (-) operators for vectors.

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Last week, we wrote a function to add two Vectors: AddVec.

It is called as AddVec(c,a,b), and adds the contents of vectors a and b, and stores the result in c.

It would be much more natural redefine the standard **addition** and **assignment** operators so that we could just write c=a+b. This is called **operator overloading**.

⁴ To overload an operator we create an **operator function** – usually as a member of the class. (It is also possible to declare an operator function to be a **friend** of a class – it is not a member but does have access to private members of the class. More about **friends** later). The general form of the operator function is:



return-type of a operator is usually the class for which it is defined, but it can be any type. Note that we have a new key-word: operator. The operator being overloaded is substituted for # \mathcal{E}_{0} + \mathcal{O}_{1} = Almost all C++ operators can be overloaded:

Note that, for example, - (minus)
con be both
• binory, as in
$$C = a - b$$

• unory, as in $C = -a$.
Also ++ con be $a + +$ or $+ + ca$.

~

- Operator precedence cannot be changed: * is still evaluated before +
- The number of arguments that the operator takes cannot be changed, e.g., the ++ operator will still take a single argument, and the / operator will still take two. $(\mathcal{E}_a \ if \ a \& b \ ove \ inter, \ a + b \ io \ operator)$
- The original meaning of an operator is not changed; its functionality is extended. It follows from this that operator overloading is always relative always to a user-defined type (in our examples, a class), and not a built-in type way such as int or char.
- Operator overloading is always relative to a user-defined type (in our examples, a class).
- The assignment operator, =, is automatically overloaded, but in a way that usually fails except for very simple classes. (Some as copy constructor)

$$A = A + B + C \quad io \quad Z = (A + B) + C$$

and not
$$Z = A + (B + C).$$

We are free to have the overloaded operator perform any operation we wish, but it is good practice to relate it to a task based on the traditional meaning of the operator. E.g., if we wanted to use an operator to add two matrices, it makes more sense to use + as the operator rather than, say, *.

We will concentrate mainly on binary operators, but later we will also look at overloading the unary "minus" operator.

.....

For our first example, we'll see how to overload operator+ to add two objects from our vector class.

First we'll add the declaration of the operator to the class definition in the header file, (Vector 08.h:)

Wector operator+(Vector b);

Then to Vector08.cpp, we add the code

```
Return type
                         See Vector08.cpp for more details
96 (Vector (Vector): operator+(Vector b) belongs to the Vector cluss.
97 {
98
      Vector c(N); // Make c the size of a
99
      if (N = b.N)
100
       std::cerr << "vector::+ : cant add two vectors of different size!"
101
                 << std :: endl;
102
      else
103
       for (unsigned int i=0; i < N; i++)
104
         c.entries[i] = entries[i] + b.entries[i];
105
      return(c);
106
                                                     but a us
                  c = a + b
```

First thing to notice is that, although + is a binary operator, it seems to take only one argument. This is because, when we call the operator, c = a + bthen a is passed **implicitly** to the function and b is passed **explicitly**. Therefore, for example, a.N is known to the function simply as N.

The temporary object c is used inside the object to store the result. It is this object that is returned. Neither a or b are modified.

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END OF PART Part 5





We now want to see another way of accessing the implicitly passed argument. First, though, we need to learn a little more about pointers, and introduce a new piece of C++ notation.

First, remember that if, for example, x is a double and y is a pointer to double, we can set y=&x. So now y stores the memory address of x. We then access the contents of that address using *y.

Now suppose that we have an object of type Vector called v, and a *pointer to vector*, w. That is, we have defined

Vector v; Vector *w; So $(\bigstar \omega) = V$ Then we can set $(\bigstar \omega)$ Now accessing the member N using v.N, will be the same as accessing it as $(\ast \omega)$.N. It is important to realise that $(\ast \omega)$.N is **not** the same as $\ast \omega$.N. However, C++ provides a new operator for this situation: $(\omega ->N)$ which is equivalent to $((\ast \omega)$.N.) When writing code for functions, and especially overloaded operators, it can be useful to **explicitly** access the implicitly passed object.

That is done using the this pointer, which is a pointer to the object itself.

As we've just noted, since this is a pointer, its members are accessed using either (*this).Nor this->N.

The following simple (but contrived) demonstration shows why we might like to use the this pointer.

The (original) constructor for our Vector class took an integer argument called Size:

```
// Original version
Vector::Vector (unsigned int Size)
{
    N = Size;
    entries = new double[Size];
}
```

Suppose, for no good reason, we wanted to call the passed argument N: Then we would get the code below:



Surprisingly, this will compile, but will give bizarre results (before crashing). To get around this we must distinguish between the local, passed, variable \mathbb{N} , and the class member \mathbb{N} .

This can be done by changing the offending line to:

this->N = N;

Part 6: The \rightarrow , this, and = operators

Overloading =

A much better use of this is for the case where a function must return the address of the argument that was passed to jt. This is the case of the assignment operator.

