

# **ECE133A Discussion**

Xin Jiang

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, UCLA

ECE133A Applied Numerical Computing

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# Course logistics

- weekly homework: due on Friday via Gradescope
- a project (tentative)
- midterm: open-book, Tuesday, May 4, 4pm–5:50pm (in class)
- final: open-book, Monday, June 7, 6:30pm-9:30pm
- course materials: on CCLE

# Introduction to MATLAB

- you have free access to MATLAB via SEASNET student account
- the official site offers a nice start-up tutorial
- you are not expected to have a strong background in programming
- the programs you write will use only a tiny subset of MATLAB features

# Introduction to Julia

- Julia is a new programming language for scientific computing
- friendly syntax for building math constructs like vectors, matrices
- official site: you can download the software and find a tutorial there
- Jupyter is a open-source web application on which you can create and share live codes, visualizations, and narrative text
- Julia companion for textbook

# Outline

## Matrices

Matrix inverse

orthogonal matrices

QR factorization

LU factorization

least squares

nonlinear least squares

Cholesky factorization

mathematical background

matrix norms

condition and stability

IEEE floating point numbers

# Complexity

## Flop count

- 1 flop = one basic arithmetic operation in  $\mathbf{R}$  or  $\mathbf{C}$
- flop count is the total number of operations in an algorithm
- keep dominant term (with coefficients)

$$(1/3)n^3 + 100n^2 + 10n + 5 \approx (1/3)n^3$$

## Examples

- inner product between two  $n$ -vectors:  $2n - 1 \approx 2n$  flops
- matrix-vector multiplication of  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and  $n$ -vector  $x$ :

$$y = Ax \quad (2n - 1)m \approx 2mn \text{ flops}$$

- product of  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and  $n \times p$  matrix  $B$ :

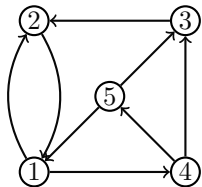
$$C = AB \quad mp(2n - 1) \approx 2mnp \text{ flops}$$

## Matrix representation: adjacency matrices

suppose  $A$  is the adjacency matrix of a directed graph with  $n$  vertices

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{there is a edge from vertex } j \text{ to vertex } i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Matrix representation: adjacency matrices

examine the expression for the  $i, j$  element of the square of  $A$ :

$$(A^2)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik}A_{kj}$$

what's the graph associated with  $B = I + A$ ?

now show the equivalence between

- all the elements of the matrix  $(I + A)^{n-1}$  are positive
- for any vertex  $i$  and  $j$ , there is a directed path from  $i$  to  $j$



## Regression line

let  $a, b$  be two real  $n$ -vectors, and denote

$$m_a = \mathbf{avg}(a) = \frac{\mathbf{1}^T a}{n}, \quad m_b = \mathbf{avg}(b) = \frac{\mathbf{1}^T b}{n},$$

$$s_a = \mathbf{std}(a) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \|a - m_a \mathbf{1}\|, \quad s_b = \mathbf{std}(b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \|b - m_b \mathbf{1}\|$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{n} \frac{(a - m_a \mathbf{1})^T (b - m_b \mathbf{1})}{s_a s_b}$$

we fit a straight line to the points  $(a_k, b_k)$ , by minimizing

$$J = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (c_1 + c_2 a_k - b_k)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \|c_1 \mathbf{1} + c_2 a - b\|^2$$

we found that the optimal coefficients are  $c_2 = \rho s_a / s_b$  and  $c_1 = m_b - m_a c_2$

show that for those values of  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , we have  $J = (1 - \rho^2) s_b^2$

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# Matrix inverse

for a square matrix  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ , **nonsingular = invertible**

$$B \text{ is the inverse of } A \iff AB = I, BA = I$$

the following four properties are equivalent

1.  $A$  is left invertible
2. the columns of  $A$  are linearly independent
3.  $A$  is right invertible
4. the rows of  $A$  are linearly independent

**Exercise:** are the following matrices nonsingular?

- $A = ab^T$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are  $n$ -vectors and  $n > 1$
- $A = I - ab^T$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are  $n$ -vectors with  $\|a\| \|b\| < 1$

## Examples on matrix inverse

suppose  $A$  is a nonsingular  $n \times n$  matrix,  $u, v$  are  $n$ -vectors,  $v^T A^{-1} u \neq -1$

show that  $A + uv^T$  is nonsingular with inverse

$$(A + uv^T)^{-1} = A^{-1} - \frac{1}{1 + v^T A^{-1} u} A^{-1} uv^T A^{-1}$$

consider the  $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} I & a \\ a^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $a$  is an  $n$ -vector

1. when is  $A$  invertible?
2. assuming  $A$  is invertible, give an expression for the inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$

## Example: Vandermonde matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 & \cdots & t_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & t_2 & t_2^2 & \cdots & t_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n & t_n^2 & \cdots & t_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{with } t_i \neq t_j \text{ for } i \neq j$$

we show that  $A$  is nonsingular by showing that  $Ax = 0$  only if  $x = 0$

- $Ax = 0$  means  $p(t_1) = p(t_2) = \cdots = p(t_n) = 0$  where

$$p(t) = x_1 + x_2t + x_3t^2 + \cdots + x_nt^{n-1}$$

$p(t)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n - 1$  or less

- if  $x \neq 0$ , then  $p(t)$  cannot have more than  $n - 1$  distinct real roots
- therefore  $p(t_1) = \cdots = p(t_n) = 0$  is only possible if  $x = 0$

# Polynomial interpolation

in this problem we construct polynomials

$$p(t) = x_1 + x_2t + x_3t^2 + \cdots + x_nt^{n-1}$$

to interpolate points on the graph of the function  $f(t) = 1/(1 + 25t^2)$  we first generate  $n$  pairs  $(t_i, y_i)$ . We then solve a set of linear equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 & \cdots & t_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & t_2 & t_2^2 & \cdots & t_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n & t_n^2 & \cdots & t_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

to find the coefficients  $x_i$

we then plot the polynomials and the function  $f$  in the interval  $[-1, 1]$

the figures below show the interpolation for  $n = 5, 10, 15, 16$ , respectively

## Example on interpolation

express the following problem as a set of linear equations  $Ax = b$

find a rational function

$$f(t) = \frac{x_1 + x_2t + x_3t^2}{1 + x_4t + x_5t^2}$$

that satisfies the five conditions

$$f(0) = b_1, \quad f^{(1)}(0) = b_2, \quad \frac{f^{(2)}(0)}{2} = b_3, \quad \frac{f^{(3)}(0)}{6} = b_4, \quad \frac{f^{(5)}(0)}{24} = b_5,$$

where  $b_1, \dots, b_5$  are given

## Left inverse and right inverse

for tall matrices  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m > n$ ), the following properties are equivalent

1.  $A$  is left invertible
2. the columns of  $A$  are linearly independent
3.  $A^T A$  is nonsingular

the pseudo-inverse of such matrices is given by  $A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$

for wide matrices  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m < n$ ), the following properties are equivalent

1.  $A$  is right invertible
2. the rows of  $A$  are linearly independent
3.  $AA^T$  is nonsingular

the pseudo-inverse of such matrices is given by  $A^\dagger = A^T (AA^T)^{-1}$



## Pseudo-inverse

tall matrix ( $m > n$ )      wide matrix ( $m < n$ )      nonsingular matrix  
with independent cols      with independent rows      ( $m = n$ )

$$A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$$

$$A^\dagger = A^T (A A^T)^{-1}$$

$$A^\dagger = A^{-1}$$

$A^T A$  is nonsingular

$A A^T$  is nonsingular

$$A^\dagger A = I$$

$$A A^\dagger = I$$

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	existence	unique
inverse	square nonsingular	Y
left inverse	matrix with linearly independent cols	N
right inverse	matrix with linearly independent rows	N
pseudo-inverse	all matrices	Y

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## Example on pseudo-inverse

$$(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger? \quad (\blacktriangle)$$

consider the following example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

the pseudo-inverses are

$$A^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (AB)^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 2/5 \\ 1/5 \end{bmatrix}$$

we have  $(AB)(B^\dagger A^\dagger) = I$  but  $B^\dagger A^\dagger \neq (AB)^\dagger$

- is  $(\blacktriangle)$  true when  $A$  has linearly independent columns and  $B$  is nonsingular?
- is  $(\blacktriangle)$  true when  $A$  is nonsingular and  $B$  has linearly independent columns?

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# Orthogonal matrices

## Tall matrix with orthonormal columns

$$A^T A = I, \quad A A^T \neq I$$

- properties: preservation of inner products, norms, distance, and angles
- left-invertibility
- projection of  $x$  on the range of  $A$ :  $A A^T b$

## Orthogonal matrices: a square real matrix with orthonormal columns

$$Q^T Q = I, \quad Q Q^T = I, \quad Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

- examples: permutation matrix, plane rotation, reflector
- linear equation with orthogonal matrix

## Exercise: when is a matrix lower-triangular and orthogonal?

## Examples on orthogonal matrices

let  $Q$  be an  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix, partitioned as

$$Q = [Q_1 \quad Q_2]$$

where  $Q_1 \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $Q_2 \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times (n-m)}$  (assume  $0 < m < n$ )  
consider the matrix  $A = Q_1 Q_1^T - Q_2 Q_2^T$

1. show that  $A = 2Q_1 Q_1^T - I = I - 2Q_2 Q_2^T$
2. show that  $A$  is orthogonal

for what property of the matrix  $B$  is a matrix of the form

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} I & B^T \\ -B & I \end{bmatrix}$$

orthogonal? nonsingular?

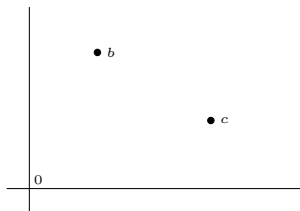
## Example on orthogonal matrices

let  $a$  be an  $n$ -vector with  $\|a\| = 1$ ; define the  $2n \times 2n$  matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} aa^T & I - aa^T \\ I - aa^T & aa^T \end{bmatrix}$$

1. show that  $A$  is orthogonal
2. now suppose  $n = 2$ ; given the plots of  $b$  and  $c$ , indicate on the figure the 2-vectors  $x, y$  that solve the  $4 \times 4$  equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} aa^T & I - aa^T \\ I - aa^T & aa^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$



line through  $a$  and the origin

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# Triangular matrices

- definition
- forward/back substitution
- inverse of a nonsingular triangular matrix  $A$  is also triangular, with

$$(A^{-1})_{ii} = 1/A_{ii}$$

- $A^{-1}$  is computed by solving  $AX = I$  column by column ( $(1/3)n^3$  flops)

**Exercise:** the trace of a matrix is the sum of its diagonal elements; *i.e.*,

$$\text{tr } A = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ii}$$

what is the complexity of computing  $\text{tr}(A^{-1})$  if  $A$  is triangular and nonsingular



# QR factorization

suppose  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  has linearly independent columns;  $A$  can be factored as

$$A = QR$$

where

- $Q$  is  $m \times n$  with orthonormal columns
- $R$  is  $n \times n$  and upper-triangular with nonzero diagonal elements
- by convention, we require  $R_{ii} > 0$

## Properties

- pseudo-inverse:  $A^\dagger = R^{-1}Q^T$
- $\text{range}(A) = \text{range}(Q)$
- projection of  $x$  on the range of  $A$ :  $AA^\dagger x = QQ^T x$
- algorithms: Gram–Schmidt, Householder ( $2mn^2$  flops)
- application: linear equations, least squares

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# LU factorization

**LU factorization** (with row pivoting)

$$A = PLU$$

- $P$  permutation matrix,  $L$  unit lower triangular,  $U$  upper triangular
- exists if and only if  $A$  is nonsingular, but not unique
- complexity:  $(2/3)n^3$  if  $A$  is  $n \times n$

**Solving linear equations  $Ax = b$  by LU factorization**

1. factor  $A$  as  $A = PLU$  ( $(2/3)n^3$  flops)
  2. solve  $(PLU)x = b$  in three steps
    - (a) permutation:  $z_1 = P^T b$  (0 flop)
    - (b) forward substitution: solve  $Lz_2 = z_1$  ( $n^2$  flops)
    - (c) back substitution: solve  $Ux = z_2$  ( $n^2$  flops)
- total complexity:  $(2/3)n^3 + 2n^2 \approx (2/3)n^3$  flops

## Examples on solving linear equations

suppose  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, and  $u$  and  $v$  are  $n$ -vectors  
in each of the following cases, what is the complexity of computing the matrix

$$B = A^{-1}uv^T A^{-1}$$

1.  $A$  is diagonal with nonzero diagonal elements
2.  $A$  is lower-triangular with nonzero diagonal elements
3.  $A$  is orthogonal
4.  $A$  is a general nonsingular matrix

assume we already have the LU factorization  $A = PLU$   
describe an algorithm for each of the following problems

1. compute the  $j$ th column of  $A^{-1}$
2. compute the sum of columns of  $A^{-1}$
3. compute the sum of rows of  $A^{-1}$

## Examples on solving linear equations

consider a square  $(n + m) \times (n + m)$  matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

with  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $D \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times m}$

describe efficient algorithms for computing the Schur complement

$$S = D - CA^{-1}B$$

of each of the following types of matrices  $A$

1.  $A$  is diagonal with nonzero diagonal elements
2.  $A$  is lower triangular with nonzero diagonal elements
3.  $A$  is a general nonsingular matrix

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# Least squares

the least squares problem is an unconstrained optimization problem

$$\text{minimize } \|Ax - b\|^2$$

with variable  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$  and coefficients  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbf{R}^m$

- assume  $A$  has linearly independent columns
- normal equation:  $A^T A \hat{x} = A^T b$
- suppose QR factorization of  $A$  is given by  $A = QR$

$$\hat{x} = A^\dagger b = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b = R^{-1} Q^T b$$

1. compute QR factorization  $A = QR$  ( $2mn^2$  flops)
2. matrix-vector product  $d = Q^T b$  ( $2mn$  flops)
3. solve  $Rx = d$  by back substitution ( $n^2$  flops)

## Typical least squares problems

suppose  $\hat{x}$  is the solution for the least squares problem

$$\text{minimize } \|Ax - b\|^2;$$

and  $\hat{y}$  is the solution for the least squares problem

$$\text{minimize } \|\tilde{A}y - \tilde{b}\|^2$$

show that  $\hat{y} = g(\hat{x})$  by verifying

$$\tilde{A}^T \tilde{A}g(\hat{x}) = \tilde{A}^T \tilde{b}, \quad \text{where } A^T A\hat{x} = A^T b$$

**Exercise:** suppose QR factorization  $[A \ b] = QR$  can be partitioned as

$$Q = [Q_1 \ Q_2], \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ 0 & R_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

show that the LS solution  $\tilde{x}_{\text{ls}} = R_{11}^{-1}R_{12}$  and  $R_{22} = \|A\tilde{x}_{\text{ls}} - b\|$



## Example: $K$ -fold cross-validation

given  $m \times n$  matrices  $A_1, \dots, A_K$ , and  $m$ -vectors  $b_1, \dots, b_K$   
matrices  $C_k$  is constructed by stacking  $A_1, \dots, A_K$ , but skipping  $A_k$

$$C_k = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ \vdots \\ A_{k-1} \\ A_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ A_K \end{bmatrix}, \quad d_k = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_{k-1} \\ b_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ b_K \end{bmatrix}$$

$C_k$  has size  $((K-1)m) \times n$ ; assume  $C_k$  has linearly independent columns  
define  $\hat{x}^{(k)}$  as the solution of the least squares problem

$$\text{minimize } \|C_k x - d_k\|^2$$

what is the complexity for computing  $K$  least squares solutions  $\hat{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{x}^{(K)}$ ?

## Least squares data fitting

1. identify the unknown variable  $x$
2. transfer nonlinear functions into a linear function of  $x$
3. write the problem into least-squares form

**Exercise:** A8.3, A8.6

the  $m$  data points  $(t_i, y_i)$  are well approximated by a function of the form

$$f(t) = \frac{e^{\alpha t + \beta}}{1 + e^{\alpha t + \beta}}$$

formulate the following problem as a least squares problem:

find values of the parameters  $\alpha, \beta$  such that

$$\frac{e^{\alpha t_i + \beta}}{1 + e^{\alpha t_i + \beta}} \approx y_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

## Multi-objective least squares

many other problems can be transformed into a least squares problem

- multi-objective least squares

$$\text{minimize } \lambda_1 \|A_1 x - b_1\|^2 + \cdots + \lambda_k \|A_k x - b_k\|^2$$

with all positive  $\lambda_i$ 's

- Tokhonov regularization ( $\lambda > 0$ )

$$\text{minimize } \|Ax - y\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|^2$$

where the solution is

$$\hat{x} = (A^T A + \lambda I)^{-1} A^T y = A^T (A A^T + \lambda I)^{-1} y$$

this avoids the QR factorization when  $A$  is very wide ( $m \ll n$ )

## Example: regularized least squares image deblurring

the **vec** operation creates an  $n^2$ -vector  $x$  by converting an  $n \times n$  matrix  $X$  in the column-major order:

$$x = \mathbf{vec}(X) = \begin{bmatrix} X_{1:n,1} \\ X_{1:n,2} \\ \vdots \\ X_{1:n,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

conversely, **mat** is the inverse operation of **vec**, *i.e.*,

$$X = \mathbf{mat}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1:n} & x_{(n+1):2n} & \cdots & x_{(n(n-1)+1):n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example: regularized least squares image deblurring

we write the discrete Fourier transform in terms of the  $n \times n$  DFT matrix  $W$ :

$$\begin{aligned}V &= WUW & V &= \text{fft2}(U) \\U &= (1/n^2)W^H V W^H & U &= \text{ifft2}(V)\end{aligned}$$

then we can rewrite the discrete Fourier transform in vector form with  $u = \text{vec}(U)$  and  $v = \text{vec}(V)$ , i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}v &= \widetilde{W}u & v &= \text{reshape}(\text{fft2}(\text{reshape}(u, n, n)), n^2, 1) \\u &= \widetilde{W}^{-1}v & u &= \text{reshape}(\text{ifft2}(\text{reshape}(v, n, n)), n^2, 1)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\widetilde{W} = W \otimes W \in \mathbf{R}^{n^2 \times n^2}$

since  $(1/n)W^H W = I$ , we have

$$\widetilde{W}^H \widetilde{W} = n^2 I, \quad \widetilde{W} \widetilde{W}^H = n^2 I, \quad \widetilde{W}^{-1} = \frac{1}{n^2} \widetilde{W}^H$$

## Example: regularized least squares image deblurring

now we are ready to discuss the image deblurring problem

it is a regularized least squares problem:

$$\text{minimize } \|Ax - y\|^2 + \lambda(\|D_v x\|^2 + \|D_h x\|^2),$$

where  $A = T(B)$ ,  $D_v = T(E)$ , and  $D_h = T(E^T)$ ;  
the coefficient matrices  $B \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $E \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$  are given

define function  $T : \mathbf{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ :

$$T(X) = \frac{1}{n^2} \widetilde{W}^H \text{diag}(\widetilde{W}x) \widetilde{W},$$

where  $x = \text{vec}(X)$

this structure is called *block-circulant with circulant blocks* (BCCB)

the normal equation is given by

$$(A^H A + \lambda D_v^H D_v + \lambda D_h^H D_h)x = A^H y$$

# Example: regularized least squares image deblurring



## Least norm problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|x\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & Cx = d \end{array}$$

the variable is  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , and  $C \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times n}$  with  $p < n$

**Assumption:** the coefficient matrix has linearly independent rows

**Solution:** the solution of the above least norm problem is

$$\hat{x} = C^\dagger d = C^T (CC^T)^{-1} d.$$



## Constrained least squares

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|Ax - b\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & Cx = d \end{array}$$

the variable is  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ ;  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbf{R}^m$ ,  $C \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times n}$ , and  $d \in \mathbf{R}^p$

we make following assumptions in our discussion:

1. the stacked  $(m + p) \times n$  matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} A \\ C \end{bmatrix}$  has linearly independent columns
2.  $C$  has linearly independent rows

hence,  $\hat{x}$  solves the constrained LS problem iff there exists a  $z$  such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} A^T A & C^T \\ C & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x} \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A^T b \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

(the assumptions ensure that the matrix on the lefthand side is nonsingular)

## Example on constrained least squares

solve the following constrained least squares problems

1.  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  has linearly independent columns,  $b \in \mathbf{R}^n$ ,  $c \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , and  $d \in \mathbf{R}$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|Ax - b\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & c^T x = d \end{array}$$

where the optimization variable is  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$

2.  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  has linearly independent columns,  $b \in \mathbf{R}^m$ ,  $c \in \mathbf{R}^m$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|x - b\|^2 + \|y - c\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & A^T x = A^T y \end{array}$$

where the optimization variable  $x, y \in \mathbf{R}^m$

## Example on constrained least squares

let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix with linearly independent columns

1. show that  $\tilde{x}^{(i)}$  is the solution for the constrained least squares problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|Ax\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & e_i^T x = -1 \end{array} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \tilde{x}^{(i)} = -\frac{1}{e_i^T (A^T A)^{-1} e_i} (A^T A)^{-1} e_i$$

2. show that  $\hat{x}^{(i)}$  is the solution for the constrained least squares problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|Ax - b\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & e_i^T x = 0 \end{array} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \hat{x}^{(i)} = \hat{x} - \frac{\hat{x}_i}{e_i^T (A^T A)^{-1} e_i} (A^T A)^{-1} e_i$$

where  $\hat{x}$  is the minimizer of  $\|Ax - b\|^2$

## Least squares summary

- (linear) least squares

$$\text{minimize } \|Ax - b\|^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$$

- least norm

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|x\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & Cx = d \end{array} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \hat{x} = C^T (CC^T)^{-1} d$$

- constrained least squares

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|Ax - b\|^2 \\ \text{subject to} & Cx = d \end{array} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} A^T A & C^T \\ C & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x} \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A^T b \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

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## Nonlinear least squares

$$\text{minimize } g(x) = \|f(x)\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i^2(x)$$

- **Gauss–Newton method:** at iteration  $k$ , we solve a least squares problem

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize } \|f(x^{(k)}) + Df(x^{(k)})(x - x^{(k)})\|^2 \\ \implies &x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - (A^T A)^{-1} A^T f(x^{(k)}), \quad \text{where } A = Df(x^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

- **Levenberg–Marquardt:** at iteration  $k$ , we solve a regularized version

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize } \|f(x^{(k)}) + Df(x^{(k)})(x - x^{(k)})\|^2 + \lambda^{(k)} \|x - x^{(k)}\|^2 \\ \implies &x^{(k+1/2)} = x^{(k)} - (A^T A + \lambda^{(k)} I)^{-1} A^T f(x^{(k)}), \quad \text{where } A = Df(x^{(k)}) \\ \implies &\begin{cases} x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k+1/2)}, \lambda^{(k+1)} = \beta_1 \lambda^{(k)} & \text{if } \|f(x^{(k+1/2)})\|^2 < \|f(x^{(k)})\|^2 \\ x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)}, \lambda^{(k+1)} = \beta_2 \lambda^{(k)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

## Example: fitting an ellipse to points in a plane

an ellipse in a plane can be described as the set of points

$$\hat{f}(t; \theta) = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 + r \cos(\alpha + t) + \delta \cos(\alpha - t) \\ c_2 + r \sin(\alpha + t) + \delta \sin(\alpha - t) \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ , and  $\theta = (c_1, c_2, r, \delta, \alpha)$

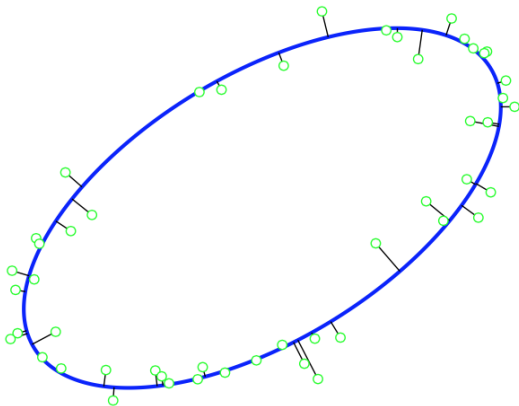
we consider the problem of fitting an ellipse to  $N$  points  $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(N)}$  in a plane:

$$\text{minimize} \quad \sum_{i=1}^N \|\hat{f}(t^{(i)}; \theta) - x^{(i)}\|^2$$

where the optimization variables are  $t^{(1)}, \dots, t^{(N)}$  and  $\theta$

formulate this as a nonlinear least squares problem, and then give expression for the derivatives of the residuals

## Example: fitting an ellipse to points in a plane





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# Positive definite matrices

- a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is positive definite if

$$x^T Ax > 0 \quad \text{for all } x \neq 0$$

- every positive definite matrix is nonsingular
- every positive definite matrix has positive diagonal elements
- if the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is positive definite, then

$$B^T AB$$

is positive definite for any  $B \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times m}$  with linearly independent columns

- $A = B^T B$  is positive definite if  $B$  has linearly independent columns

## Positive semidefinite matrices

- a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is positive semidefinite if

$$x^T Ax \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x$$

- if  $A$  is positive semidefinite, but not positive definite, then it is singular
- every positive semidefinite matrix has nonnegative diagonal elements
- if the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is positive semidefinite, then

$$B^T AB$$

is positive semidefinite for any  $n \times m$  matrix  $B$

- every Gram matrix  $A = B^T B$  is positive semidefinite

## Examples on positive definiteness

are the following matrices positive definite?

- $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & -3 \\ 3 & -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
- $A = I - uu^T$  where  $u$  is an  $n$ -vector with  $\|u\| < 1$
- $A = \begin{bmatrix} I & B \\ B^T & I + B^T B \end{bmatrix}$  where  $B$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix

## Cholesky factorization

every positive definite  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be factored as

$$A = R^T R$$

where  $R \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$  is upper triangular with positive diagonal elements

- complexity of computing  $R$  is  $(1/3)n^3$  flops
- practical method for testing positive definiteness
- used in solving  $Ax = b$  when  $A$  is positive definite

## Cholesky factorization algorithm

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{1,2:n} \\ A_{2:n,1} & A_{2:n,2:n} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & 0 \\ R_{1,2:n}^T & R_{2:n,2:n}^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{1,2:n} \\ 0 & R_{2:n,2:n} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} R_{11}^2 & R_{11}R_{1,2:n} \\ R_{11}R_{1,2:n}^T & R_{1,2:n}^T R_{1,2:n} + R_{2:n,2:n}^T R_{2:n,2:n} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

1. compute first row of  $R$ :

$$R_{11} = \sqrt{A_{11}}, \quad R_{1,2:n} = \frac{1}{R_{11}} A_{1,2:n}$$

2. compute 2,2 block  $R_{2:n,2:n}$  from

$$A_{2:n,2:n} - R_{1,2:n}^T R_{1,2:n} = R_{2:n,2:n}^T R_{2:n,2:n}$$

which is a Cholesky factorization of order  $n - 1$

## Examples on Cholesky factorization

- simple exercises: A11.8
- block matrix example: A11.13

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} A & u \\ u^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- a more complicated example: A11.21

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{avg}(a) & \mathbf{avg}(b) \\ \mathbf{avg}(a) & \mathbf{rms}(a)^2 & (a^T n)/n \\ \mathbf{avg}(b) & (b^T a)/n & \mathbf{rms}(b)^2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} n & \mathbf{1}^T a & \mathbf{1}^T b \\ a^T \mathbf{1} & a^T a & a^T b \\ b^T \mathbf{1} & b^T a & b^T b \end{bmatrix}$$

- exploit structure:  $A$  is positive definite with negative off-diagonal entries
  1. show that its Cholesky factor  $R$  has negative above diagonal entries
  2. show that  $R^{-1}$  has positive above diagonal entries
  3. show that all entries of  $A^{-1}$  is positive

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# Mathematical background

- gradient of differentiable function  $g: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$

$$\nabla g(z) = \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}(z), \dots, \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}(z) \right) \in \mathbf{R}^n$$

- Hessian of  $g$  at  $z$  is a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $\nabla^2 g(z)$  with entries

$$(\nabla^2 g(z))_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(z)$$

- composition with affine mapping: if  $g(x) = h(Cx + d)$ , then

$$\nabla g(x) = C^T \nabla h(Cx + d) \quad \nabla^2 g(x) = C^T \nabla^2 h(Cx + d) C$$

## Mathematical background

- affine approximation of  $g$  at  $z$

$$\hat{g}(x) = g(z) + g'(z)^T(x - z)$$

- quadratic approximation of  $g$  at  $z$

$$\tilde{g}(x) = g(z) + \nabla g(z)^T(x - z) + \frac{1}{2}(x - z)^T \nabla^2 g(z)(x - z)$$

- Jacobian of differentiable function  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$

$$Df(z) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(z) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(z) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(z) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(z) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(z) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n}(z) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(z) & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2}(z) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n}(z) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_1(z)^T \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_m(z)^T \end{bmatrix}$$

# Basic optimization theory

- local optimum and global optimum
- optimality conditions for twice differentiable function  $g$ 
  - necessary: if  $x^*$  is locally optimal, then

$$\nabla g(x^*) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla^2 g(x^*) \text{ is positive semidefinite}$$

- sufficient:  $x^*$  is locally optimal only if

$$\nabla g(x^*) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla^2 g(x^*) \text{ is positive definite}$$

- if  $g$  is a convex function, then

$$x^* \text{ is optimal} \quad \iff \quad \nabla g(x^*) = 0$$

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# Properties of matrix norms

## Properties satisfied by all matrix norms

- *nonnegative*:  $\|A\|_2 \geq 0$  for all  $A$
- *positive definiteness*:  $\|A\|_2 = 0$  only if  $A = 0$
- *homogeneity*:  $\|\beta A\|_2 = |\beta| \|A\|_2$
- *triangle inequality*:  $\|A + B\|_2 \leq \|A\|_2 + \|B\|_2$

## Additional properties satisfied by the 2-norm $\|A\|_2 = \max_{x \neq 0} (\|Ax\|/\|x\|)$

- $\|Ax\| \leq \|A\|_2 \|x\|$
- $\|AB\|_2 \leq \|A\|_2$
- if  $A$  is nonsingular, then  $\|A\|_2 \|A^{-1}\|_2 \geq 1$
- if  $A$  is nonsingular, then  $1/\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \min_{x \neq 0} (\|Ax\|/\|x\|)$
- $\|A^T\|_2 = \|A\|_2$

## Example on matrix norms

$A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  has linearly independent columns and QR factorization  $A = QR$

1. show that the norm of  $A$  satisfies

$$\|A\|_2 \geq \max\{R_{11}, R_{22}, \dots, R_{nn}\}, \quad \|A^\dagger\|_2 \geq \frac{1}{\min\{R_{11}, R_{22}, \dots, R_{nn}\}}$$

(we follow the convention that  $R_{ii} > 0$ )

2. show that  $\|AA^\dagger\|_2 = 1$  (even when  $AA^\dagger \neq I$ )

## Example on matrix norms

1. if  $A$  is a square matrix with  $\|I - A\|_2 < 1$ . then  $A$  is nonsingular
2. if  $A$  is a nonsingular matrix, then

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 \leq \|A^{-1} - I\|_2 + 1, \quad \|A^{-1} - I\|_2 \leq \|A^{-1}\|_2 \|I - A\|_2$$

3. if  $A$  is a square matrix with  $\|I - A\|_2 < 1$ , then

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{1 - \|I - A\|_2}, \quad \kappa(A) \leq \frac{1 + \|I - A\|_2}{1 - \|I - A\|_2}$$

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# Condition and stability

**Problem condition** a mathematical problem is

- *well conditioned* if small changes in problem parameters (or problem data) lead to small changes in the solution;
- *ill-conditioned* if small changes in problem parameters (or problem data) can cause large changes in the solution

**Cancellation** occurs when

- we subtract two numbers that are almost equal;
- one or both numbers are subject to error

**Numerical stability**

refers to the accuracy of an *algorithm* in the presence of rounding errors

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# IEEE floating point numbers

## Binary floating point numbers

$$x = \pm(.d_1d_2 \dots d_n)_2 \cdot 2^e$$

**Machine precision**  $\epsilon_M = 2^{-53} \approx 1.1102 \cdot 10^{-16}$

## Rounding

- a floating point number system is a finite set of numbers
- all other numbers must be rounded

## Rounding rules

- numbers are rounded to the nearest floating point number
- ties are resolved by rounding to the number with least significant bit 0 ("round to nearest even")

## Example on IEEE floating point numbers

the figure shows the function

$$f(x) = \frac{(1+x) - 1}{1+(x-1)}$$

evaluated in IEEE double precision arithmetic in the interval  $[10^{-16}, 10^{-15}]$

