



1928

**K. N. Toosi University
of Technology**

Department of electrical engineering

Course: Linear Algebra

Professor: Dr. Mahsan Tavakoli

Lab Instructions - session 5

Linear Equations

Deadline: -

Spring 2024

Prepared by
Ramin Tavakoli



Lab Instructions - session 5

Linear Equations

Solving linear equations

Look at the code below.

`solve_eq.py`

```
import numpy as np
import timeit

N = 100
P = 1000

A = np.random.randn(N, N)
x = np.random.randn(N)
b = A @ x
# solve for x given A and b
x1 = np.linalg.solve(A, b)
x2 = np.linalg.inv(A) @ b

print("error1=", np.linalg.norm(x-x1))
print("error2=", np.linalg.norm(x-x2))

print("elapsed1=", timeit.timeit(lambda: np.linalg.solve(A, b), number=100))
print("elapsed2=", timeit.timeit(lambda: np.linalg.inv(A) @ b, number=100))
```

- What does the above do? Explain. (the function `np.linalg.norm` gives the length of a vector)
- Which method is more accurate? Using `np.linalg.solve` or using the inverse?
- Which method is faster?
- Set N to a larger number and look at the results.
- Set the true x to a matrix `x = np.random.randn(N,P)` with `P=100`, so that b becomes a matrix of the same size. Which method is faster? Choose a larger P. What happens?



Task 1 – Perturb

In many real-world applications, we do not have access to the true vector of measurements $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$, but rather a perturbed version of it (noisy measurements).

To simulate this scenario, we introduce noise by generating random perturbations and adding them to the calculated measurement vector:

```
noise = 0.001 * np.random.randn(N)
b = A @ x + noise
```

- solve the system of linear equations $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with the noisy version of \mathbf{b} . Observe how the perturbation affects the error.
- Double the size of the perturbation and see how the error changes. To have a fair comparison you need to solve with $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + 2 * \mathbf{noise}$ with the same values of \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{x} , and noise (do not recreate them).

Task 2 - Singular case

Change the initial code (no noise added to \mathbf{b}) such that \mathbf{A} is singular. Here is one way to do it

```
A = np.random.randn(N,N)
A[:,N-1] = A[:,N-2]
```

- Why is \mathbf{A} singular?
- What happens when you try to solve the equations?

Task 3 - Near-singular case

In many real-world scenarios, the matrix \mathbf{A} may not be exactly singular, but rather near singular. This means that the matrix is very close to a singular matrix (A singular matrix plus a small perturbation). Here we create such a scenario:

```
A = np.random.randn(N,N)
A[:,N-1] = A[:,N-2]
A += 0.00001 * np.random.randn(N,N)
```

- Compare the (order of) magnitude of the errors with the non-singular case. What happens as we bring \mathbf{A} closer to a singular matrix (make 0.00001 smaller)?



Task 4 - The effect of perturbation in near-singular case

Repeat task 1 but this time with a near-singular matrix **A**. How does a small perturbation affect the error in a near-singular case?

Back to the Face Models

Remember the linear combination of faces from Lab 2 where you had to tune the scalars **a**, **b**, and **c** to reconstruct **TargetFace2** as a linear combination of **Face1**, **Face2**, and **Face3**:

face1.py

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

from face_data import Face1, Face2, Face3, TargetFace2, edges

def plot_face(plt,X,edges,color='b'):
    "plots a face"
    plt.plot(X[:,0], X[:,1], 'o', color=color, markersize=3)
    for i,j in edges:
        xi = X[i,0]
        yi = X[i,1]
        xj = X[j,0]
        yj = X[j,1]
        # draw a line between X[i] and X[j]
        plt.plot((xi,xj), (yi,yj), '-', color=color)
    plt.axis('square')
    plt.xlim(-100,100)
    plt.ylim(-100,100)

# make a guess
a = 1/3.
b = 1/3.
c = 1/3.

Face = a * Face1 + b * Face2 + c * Face3

plot_face(plt, TargetFace2, edges, color='r')
plot_face(plt, Face, edges, color='g')
# change a,b,c until the two plots align
plt.show()
```



In Lab 2 we found **a**, **b**, and **c** by trial and error. Now, we find them analytically. To do this, first, vectorize the 68 by 2 face matrices to obtain 136-dimensional vectors:

```
face1 = Face1.ravel()
face2 = Face2.ravel()
face3 = Face3.ravel()
t = TargetFace2.ravel()
```

Then, arrange the face vectors as the columns of a 136 by 3 matrix **F**:

```
F = np.stack((face1, face2, face3), axis=1)
```

Let $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}]^T$. The relation $\mathbf{F} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{t}$ gives a system of 136 equations and 3 unknowns. Solving for \mathbf{x} gives the coefficients **a**, **b**, and **c**.

Task 5

Choose the first 3 equations from the above to get a system of 3 equations and 3 unknowns. Solve the equations to find **a**, **b**, and **c**.

Task5.py

```
x = # solve the equations
a, b, c = x
Face = a * Face1 + b * Face2 + c * Face3

plot_face(plt, TargetFace2, edges, color='r')
plot_face(plt, Face, edges, color='g')
plt.show()
```

Task 6

Instead of choosing the first three equations from $\mathbf{F} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{t}$, choose three random equations. You may use **np.random.choice** to select 3 indices without replacement.

Task6.py

```
for i in range(5):
    inds = np.random.choice(range(136), 3, replace=False)
    # choose the equations
    a, b, c = # solve the equations

    Face = a * Face1 + b * Face2 + c * Face3
    plot_face(plt, TargetFace2, edges, color='r')
    plot_face(plt, Face, edges, color='g')
```



```
plt.show()
```

- Does choosing a different set of equations affect the result?

Task 7 - Noisy measurements

Add a little Gaussian noise to the target face. This is similar to what we did in Task 1.

```
TargetFace2 += 3 * np.random.randn(*TargetFace2.shape)
```

Now, repeat Task 6. What happens?

- Do we get a face close to **TargetFace2** in most iterations?
- Does the quality of the result depend on the choice of the 3 equations?
- Why do you think this happens?
- (Optional) Can you think of a better way to find the coefficients **a, b, c**?