

Recitation 6

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Brief Overview

- Solving overdetermined linear systems
 - Least squares method
 - QR algorithm
- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
 - Jacobi's method for finding eigenvalues

Systems of linear equations

$$A \in R^{m \times n}, x \in R^{n \times 1}, b \in R^{m \times 1}$$

Overdetermined: When $m > n$ (skinny)

This is a system with more equations than unknowns. Can have multiple solutions.

Underdetermined: When $m < n$ (fat)

This is a system with fewer equations than unknowns.

Example.

Can you find the solutions for these?

1. $x + y + z = 1, x + y + z = 0$
2. $x + y + z = 1, x + y + 2z = 3$

Two kinds of underdetermined solutions:

- No solution (constraints not satisfied)
- Infinite solutions

Least Squares

Taking the case where $m \geq n$,

- To solve $Ax = b$, minimize the 'residual sum of squares' or 'mean square error' or 'squared euclidean norm'
- Optimization problem:
 - $\min_x \|Ax - b\|_2^2$
 - Has a closed-form solution, known as the **normal equation**:
 - $A^T Ax = A^T b$
 - Multiple ways of solving

Solve Normal Equation using LU, Cholesky etc.

- If A has full rank, $A^T A$ is invertible. In general, $A^T A$ is a symmetric positive definite. How?
 - $x^T A^T Ax = (Ax)^T (Ax) = \|Ax\|_2^2 \geq 0$
 - This property is very useful in general (see Cholesky decomposition).
- Can use the usual methods (LU, Cholesky etc.) to solve this linear system in $O(mn^2)$.
- Disadvantage:
 - Computing
 - May be ill-conditioned, as $k(A^T A) = k(A)^2$

QR decomposition

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} Q_1 & Q_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = Q_1 R_{11},$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\|Ax - b\|^2 &= \|Q^T(Ax - b)\|^2 \\
&= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} x - \begin{bmatrix} Q_1^T b \\ Q_2^T b \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2 \\
&= \|R_{11}x - Q_1^T b\|^2 + \|Q_2^T b\|^2.
\end{aligned}$$

- Since second term is independent of x , the minimum can be achieved when:
 - $R_{11}x = Q_1^T b$
 - This is a triangular linear system. Can be solved in $O(n^2)$
- This decomposition exists for any matrix - rectangular, non-symmetric etc.
- How can we calculate a QR decomposition?

Givens rotations

Use sequence of rotations in 2D subspaces:

For $m \approx n$: $\sim n^2/2$ square roots, and $4/3n^3$ multiplications

For $m \gg n$: $\sim nm$ square roots, and $2mn^2$ multiplications

Householder reflections

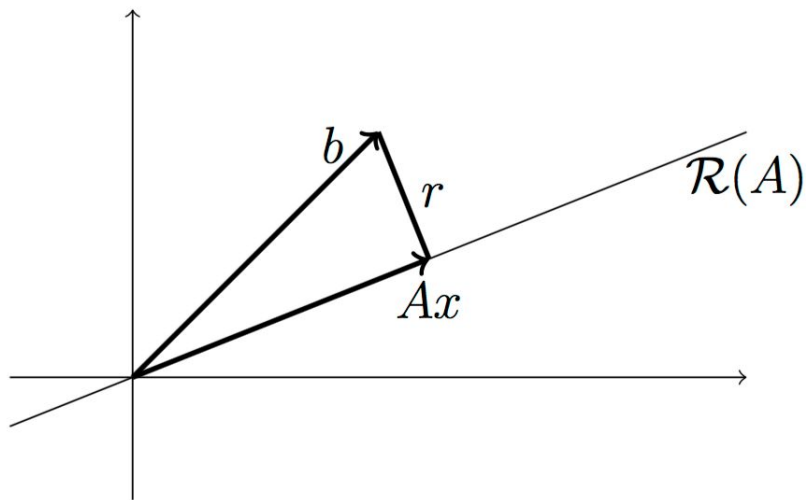
Use sequence of reflections in 2D subspaces

For $m \approx n$: $2/3n^3$ multiplications

For $m \gg n$: $2mn^2$ multiplications

- See textbook or Deuffhard/Hohmann [2] for proof and discussion.
- Advantage: Better conditioned than least-squares, as $k(R_1) = k(A)$. How?
- $k(A^T A) = k(R_1^T Q_1^T Q_1 R_1) = k(R_1^T R_1)$

Geometric interpretation of least squares



- $A^T(Ax - b) = 0 \Rightarrow A^T r = 0$ where r is the residual
- This means residual vector is orthogonal to any vector in the range of A
- $\|Ax\|^2 + \|r\|^2 = \|b\|^2$
- Thus, least squares solves for the projection of 'b' on the range space of 'Ax', or, it solves $Ax = b_{\text{projected}}$, where $b_{\text{projected}} = b \cdot \cos(\theta)$
- If $\theta \approx \pi/2$, then $b \cdot \cos(\theta) \approx 0$, and corresponding solution will be bad (model doesn't fit data!)
- In general, it may be that columns of A are nearly linearly dependent, in which case problem becomes ill-conditioned, as $A^T A$ is not invertible.
 - One approach is called **regularization**. It involves adding a strictly positive constant to the diagonal elements to make eigenvalues non-zero.
 - $(A^T A + \lambda I)x = A^T b$
 - This is the solution of the minimization problem:

- $\min_x \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_2^2$
- This is known as L2-regularization, since the “regularization” term involves an L2-norm
- **(Home Exercise)** Can you say whether we can use an L1-norm instead of the L2-norm for regularization? Is there a closed-form solution for this? why/why not?
- See [1] for an excellent discussion on this topic. Regularization is a very popular concept in applied math, statistics & machine learning, where the objective is also to solve a “system” of nonlinear equations.

Eigenvalue Problems

Theorem 5.1 Suppose that $A \in \mathbb{R}_{\text{sym}}^{n \times n}$; then, the following statements are valid.

- (i) There exist n linearly independent eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $A\mathbf{x}^{(i)} = \lambda_i\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
- (ii) The function

$$\lambda \mapsto \det(A - \lambda I) \quad (5.2)$$

is a polynomial of degree n with leading term $(-1)^n \lambda^n$, called the **characteristic polynomial of A** . The eigenvalues of A are the zeros of the characteristic polynomial.

- (iii) If the eigenvalues λ_i and λ_j of A are distinct, then the corresponding eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(j)}$ are orthogonal in \mathbb{R}^n , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{x}^{(i)\top} \mathbf{x}^{(j)} = 0 \quad \text{if } \lambda_i \neq \lambda_j, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

- (iv) If λ_i is a root of multiplicity m of (5.2), then there is a linear subspace in \mathbb{R}^n of dimension m , spanned by m mutually orthogonal eigenvectors associated with the eigenvalue λ_i .
- (v) Suppose that each of the eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ of A is **normalised**, in other words, $\mathbf{x}^{(i)\top} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, and let X denote the square matrix whose columns are the normalised (orthogonal) eigenvectors; then, the matrix $\Lambda = X^\top A X$ is diagonal, and the diagonal elements of Λ are the eigenvalues of A .
- (vi) Let $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be an orthogonal matrix and define $B \in \mathbb{R}_{\text{sym}}^{n \times n}$ by $B = Q^\top A Q$; then, $\det(B - \lambda I) = \det(A - \lambda I)$ for each $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. The eigenvalues of B are the same as the eigenvalues of A , and the eigenvectors of B are the vectors $Q^\top \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
- (vii) Any vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be expressed as a linear combination of the (ortho)normalised eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, of A , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \quad \alpha_i = \mathbf{x}^{(i)\top} \mathbf{v}.$$

- (viii) The trace of A , $\text{Trace}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$, is equal to the sum of the eigenvalues of A .

[Image source: Chap. 5, Introduction to Numerical Analysis, E. Suli & D. Mayers]

- Recap of some important properties (see image from book)

- If $A \in R_{\text{symm}}^{n \times n}$ (A is a real, symmetric matrix):
 - There exist 'n' linearly independent eigenvectors
 - $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$ gives the characteristic polynomial (in general)
 - If two eigenvalues are distinct, corresponding eigenvectors are orthogonal
 - Other properties in textbook.

- **Why are Eigenvalue problems important?** Ubiquitous in numerical linear algebra, especially solving ODEs, modelling symmetric physical systems or laws etc.

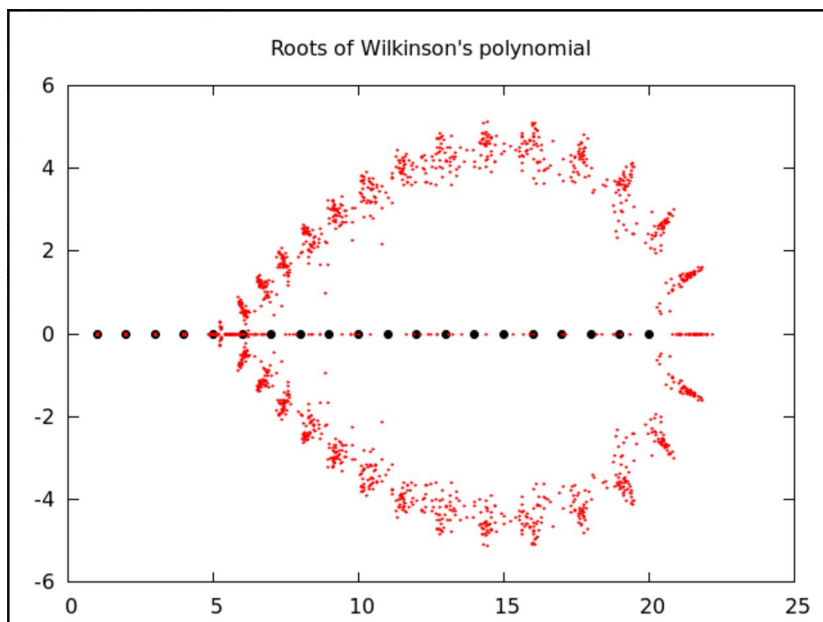
- **How can we calculate Eigenvalues of large matrices?**
 - **Method 1:** Write down characteristic polynomial, and find its roots numerically. This is not very practical for three reasons:
 - i. A 100x100 matrix will have 100 eigenvalues. Newton's method works well when starting very close to the optimal value, but may diverge otherwise.
 - ii. May divide the characteristic polynomial once a root has been found, but polynomial division can be numerically dangerous/unstable.
 - iii. To find eigenvectors, still have to solve 'n' linear equations, which will take $O(n^3)$ time!
 - iv. Note: In general, **polynomial root-finding is an ill-conditioned problem**. See eg. 5.12 (p. 92, Numerical Linear Algebra, Trefethen & Bau) on Wilkinson's polynomial.

 - **Method 2:** Use an iterative method which may diagonalize the matrix, or lead to an eigenvector. Some popular methods are:
 - i. Jacobi
 - ii. QR
 - iii. Sturm sequence
 - iv. Power method
 - v. Inverse Power or Inverse Iteration

- A bad example. Consider the matrix:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & & \varepsilon \\ 1 & 0 & & & & \\ & 1 & 0 & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & & 1 & 0 & \\ & & & & 1 & 0 \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Charac. polynomial: $\lambda^n - \varepsilon = 0$
 - i. Case 1: $\varepsilon = 0, \lambda_i = 0$
 - ii. Case 2: Let $n = 40$, and $\varepsilon = 10^{-40}$, relative error (to other elements) $= 10^{-40}/1 = 10^{-40}$. One eigenvalue, $\lambda_k = 1/10 = 0.1$. Thus, adding an epsilon term changes one eigenvalue by $10^{39} \times \varepsilon$ times! This is an ill-conditioned problem, and numerically unstable.
- See [1] for more info. on this problem.
- Another bad example: Wilkinson's polynomial.
 - $p(x) = (x-1)(x-2)(x-3)\dots(x-19)(x-20)$



Jacobi's method

Idea: Use orthogonal transformations (pre- and post- multiply) to convert matrix to diagonal form.

- Use a plane rotation matrix of the form:

$$R(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & \sin \varphi \\ -\sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

- Can check that this is an orthogonal matrix.
- Choose φ to make (p,q) and (q,p) element zero:

$$\varphi = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{2a_{pq}}{a_{qq} - a_{pp}}$$

- See [4] for example. Also see sec. 5.2 in [3] for good discussion.

Helpful links

1. [Comparison of Least Squares and QR](#)
2. Chapter 3 of *Numerical Methods in Scientific Computing*, Deuffhard & Hohmann is excellent for least squares, QR.
3. [See p. 1 & 2 on bad eigen value problems](#)
4. [See sec. 2 on Jacobi method](#)
5. [More about Jacobi's method](#)
6. [Found this nice MATLAB tutorial](#)
7. [Quick overview of linear algebra and relevant numerical algorithms](#)
8. [Jacobi convergence and eigenvalue problem examples](#)
9. [See topics 'markov chain 1 / 2' for applications of eigenvalue problem in probability](#)
10. [Underdetermined systems](#)