

Lab Instructions - session 4

Linear Equations

Solving linear equations

Look at the code below.

```
solve_eq.py
import numpy as np
import timeit
N = 100
A = np.random.randn(N,N)
x = np.random.randn(N)
b = A @ x
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 \mathbf{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 - Purtub

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 $\mathbf{A} \times = \mathbf{b}$ 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 b= A@x + 2*noise with the same values of A, 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 A singular?
- What happens when you try to solve the equations?

Task 3 - Near-singular case

In many real-world scenarios, the matrix **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 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?

Task 5

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) is a powerful tool for solving linear systems, especially when the coefficient matrix is singular or ill-conditioned. Write a program to solve a linear system Ax=b using SVD such that:

```
A = [ [1,1] , [2,2] ]
b = [3,6]
```

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- You may use np.linalg.svd() to obtain SVD.
- Try to use **np.linalg.solve()** for solving the above system. What do you observe?
- (Optional): Plot the solution space.

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]
       plt.plot((xi,xj), (yi,yj), '-', color=color)
   plt.axis('square')
   plt.xlim(-100,100)
   plt.ylim(-100,100)
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')
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()

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```
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 \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} .

Task 6

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 7

Instead of choosing the first three equations from **F x** = **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 8 - 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**?