

Notes

- ◆ Note that $r^2 \log(r)$ is NaN at $r=0$:
instead smoothly extend to be 0 at $r=0$
- ◆ Schedule a make-up lecture?

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Review LU

- ◆ Write $A=LU$ in block partitioned form
 - By convention, L has all ones on diagonal
- ◆ Equate blocks: pick order to compute them
 - “Up-looking”: compute a row at a time (refer just to entries in A in rows 1 to i)
 - “Left-looking”: compute a column at a time (refer just to entries in A in columns 1 to j)
 - “Bordering”: row of L and column of U
 - “Right-looking”: column of L and row of U (note: outer-product update of remaining A)
- ◆ Can do all of these “in-place” (overwrite A)

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Pivoting

- ◆ LU and LDL^T can fail
 - Example: if $A_{11}=0$
- ◆ Go back to Gaussian Elimination ideas: reorder the equations (rows) to get a nonzero entry
- ◆ In fact, nearly zero entries still a problem
 - Perhaps cancellation error => few significant digits
 - Dividing through will taint rest of calculation
- ◆ Pivoting: reorder to get biggest entry on diagonal
 - Partial pivoting: just reorder rows (or columns)
 - Complete pivoting: reorder rows **and** columns (expensive)

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Row Partial-Pivoting

- ◆ Row partial-pivoting: $PA=LU$
 - Compute a column of L, swap rows to get biggest entry on diagonal
 - Express as $PA=LU$ where P is a permutation matrix
 - P is the identity with rows swapped (but store it as a permutation vector)
 - This is what LAPACK uses
- ◆ Guarantees entries of L bounded by 1 in magnitude
- ◆ No good guarantee on U – but usually fine
- ◆ If U doesn't grow too much, comes very close to optimal accuracy

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Symmetric Pivoting

- ◆ Problem: partial (or complete) pivoting destroys symmetry
- ◆ How can we factor a symmetric indefinite matrix reliably but twice as fast as unsymmetric matrices?
- ◆ One idea: symmetric pivoting $PAP^T=LDL^T$
 - Swap the rows the same as the columns
- ◆ But let D have 2×2 as well as 1×1 blocks on the diagonal
 - Partial pivoting: Bunch-Kaufman (LAPACK)
 - Complete pivoting: Bunch-Parlett (safer)

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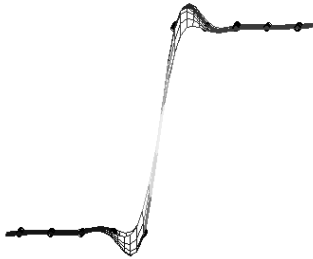
Reconsidering RBF

- ◆ RBF interpolation has advantages:
 - Mesh-free
 - Optimal in some sense
 - Exponential convergence (each point extra data point improves fit everywhere)
 - Defined everywhere
- ◆ But some disadvantages:
 - It's a global calculation (even with compactly supported functions)
 - Big dense matrix to form and solve (though later we'll revisit that...)

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Gibbs

- ◆ Globally smooth calculation also makes for overshoot/undershoot (Gibbs phenomena) around discontinuities
- ◆ Can't easily control effect



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Noise

- ◆ If data contains noise (errors), RBF strictly interpolates them
- ◆ If the errors aren't spatially correlated, lots of discontinuities: RBF interpolant becomes wiggly

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Linear Least Squares

- ◆ Idea: instead of interpolating data + noise, approximate
- ◆ Pick our approximation from a space of functions we expect (e.g. not wiggly -- maybe low degree polynomials) to filter out the noise
- ◆ Standard way of defining it:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \phi_i(x)$$

$$\lambda = \arg \min_{\lambda} \sum_{j=1}^n (f_j - f(x_j))^2$$

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Rewriting

- ◆ Write it in matrix-vector form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(f_i - \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \phi_j(x_i) \right)^2 = \|b - Ax\|_2^2$$

$$b = (f_1 \quad f_2 \quad \dots \quad f_n)^T$$

$$x = (\lambda_1 \quad \dots \quad \lambda_k)^T$$

$$A_{ij} = \phi_j(x_i) \quad (\text{a rectangular } n \times k \text{ matrix})$$

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Normal Equations

- ◆ First attempt at finding minimum: set the gradient equal to zero (called "the normal equations")

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \|b - Ax\|_2^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} ((b - Ax)^T (b - Ax)) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (b^T b - 2x^T A^T b + x^T A^T A x) = 0$$

$$-2A^T b + 2A^T A x = 0$$

$$A^T A x = A^T b$$

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Normal Equations: Good Stuff

- ◆ $A^T A$ is a square $k \times k$ matrix (k probably much smaller than n)

Symmetric positive (semi-)definite

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Normal Equations: Problem

- ◆ What if $k=n$?
At least for 2-norm condition number,
 $\kappa(A^T A) = \kappa(A)^2$
 - Accuracy could be a problem...
- ◆ In general, can we avoid squaring the errors?