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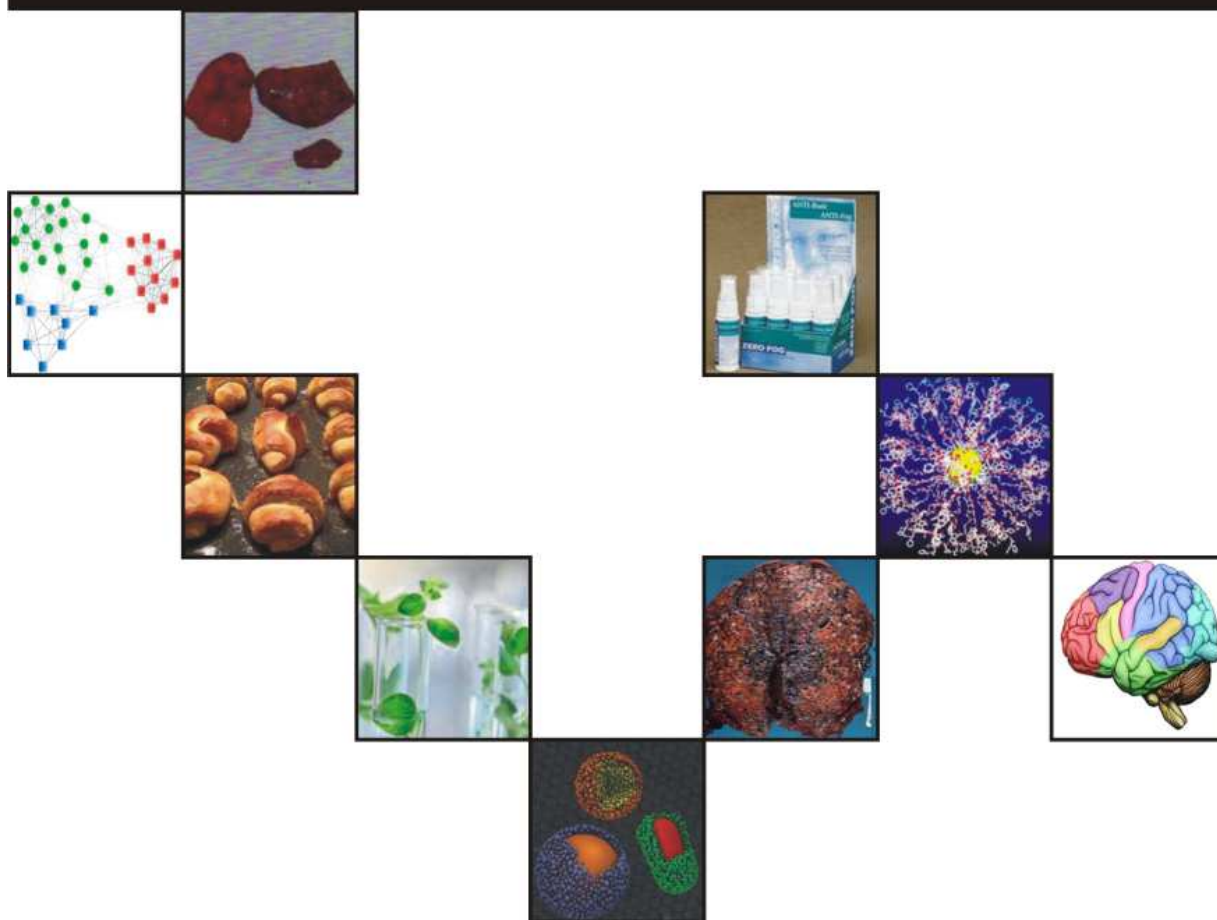
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MATRIX REDUCTION IN NUMERICAL OPTIMIZATION

MOHAMMAD NAVAZ RASOULIZADEH*

Declaration

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This paper develops the use of matrix reduction techniques to simplify and stabilize the solutions to various optimization problems.

1.1 Matrix Reduction

Matrix reduction approximates a matrix by removing some terms in its decomposition.

Suppose that a matrix M can be expressed as a summation of matrices M_i as

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^k M_i = M_1 + \dots + M_k.$$

This kind of expansion is common in matrix computation. For instance, any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ has singular value decomposition(SVD).

$$A = USV^T,$$

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Where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are orthogonal matrices, and $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix. We can write this decomposition as a sum of rank one matrices

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} s_i u_i v_i^T$$

where u_i and v_i are the i -th columns of U and V , and s_i is the i -th diagonal element of S .

If a matrix $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is symmetric and positive definite, Cholesky decomposition

also generates such an expansion as

$$B = LL^T = \sum_{i=1}^m l_i l_i^T,$$

where L is a lower triangular matrix, and l_i is the i -th column of L . This expansion is particularly important when B is updated by a low-rank correction since this can be accomplished by adding a small number of terms to the expression.

Broadly speaking, there are two different approaches to matrix reduction. First, if

We know that only the first k matrices M_i are important to us, we can construct a reduced

matrix \hat{M} as:

$$\hat{M} = \sum_{i=1}^k M_i = M_1 + \dots + M_k.$$

This reduction method is called *truncation*. Alternatively, we can apply a filtering factor

$\varphi_i \in [0, 1]$ to each matrix M_i for $i=1, \dots, k$. Then, the reduced matrix \hat{M} becomes

$$\hat{M} = \sum_{i=1}^k \varphi_i M_i = \varphi_1 M_1 + \dots + \varphi_k M_k.$$

This filtering-based reduction can be regarded as a generalized version of *truncation* since *truncation* is a special case with $\varphi_i \in \{0, 1\}$. Both reduction methods are used in many applications such as regularization of ill-posed problems and factor analysis.

We can also classify the matrix reduction approaches as *build-down* and *build-up*, depending on whether we remove one term in a given matrix expansion or we construct the reduced matrix by adding terms until a certain goal is achieved. For example, while

A complete matrix M is given to us in the problems of regression and factor analysis, we

Construct M By adding matrices M_i in constrained convex optimization.

The purposes of the matrix reduction are very different depending on particular problems.

First, in regression problems in statistics, the truncated or filtered terms are considered to be noise or observation error, so matrix reduction purifies the given raw data.

This can be used in solving least squares problems for an over-determined linear system or regularizing the solution to an ill-posed problem. Second, in factor analysis and principal component analysis (PCA), the reduced parts are regarded as idiosyncratic (unsystematic) factors, which are not shared by multiple variables in common. Third, in constrained convex optimization problems, the reduced terms might correspond to unnecessary (inactive) constraints, which do not make significant contributions to the search for an optimal solution. So, we expect a benefit of decreased computational cost by using matrix reduction.

Whenever matrix reduction is applied, it is a very critical but difficult issue to decide how much to reduce the matrix. This important decision determines both the quality of the reduced matrix and that of the final result. If we reduce too much, we may fail to solve the problem.

On the other hand, if we reduce too little, we can not expect enough benefit from the reduction.

It is a difficult decision because criteria for the reduction must be tailored to the problem and the circumstances. For example, in regularization of ill-

$\sigma_{\max}(X)$		The largest singular value of X
$\sigma_{\min}(X)$		The smallest singular value of X
$\sqrt{x^T x}$	—	2-norm for a vector x
$X_2 = \sigma_{\max}(X)$		2-norm for a matrix X
$X_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij}^2}$		Frobenius norm for a matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
$\text{tr}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ii}$		Trace of matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
I_p		An identity matrix of dimension p

Posed problems, the criteria may change based on which distribution the embedded noise follows, or how the noise in different variables is correlated. Because of this difficulty, the criteria for constraint reduction have been studied in a variety of applications.

In this dissertation, we discuss matrix reduction in three numerical optimization problems. Our study focuses on how we can determine appropriate reduction intensity for successful matrix reduction in these problems. We introduce the problems in the next section.

In addition, a few basic statistical definitions are frequently used. When a continuous random variable x has a probability density function $p_x(x)$, the expected value $E(x)$ is defined as

$$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_x(x) dx$$

Then, the variance $\text{var}(x)$ and the standard deviation $\text{std}(x)$ are defined as

$$\text{var}(x) = E((x - E(x))^2) = E(x^2) - (E(x))^2,$$

$$\text{std}(x) = \sqrt{\text{var}(x)}.$$

For two random variables x and y , the covariance $\text{cov}(x, y)$ and the correlation coefficient $\text{corr}(x, y)$

Are defined as

$$\text{cov}(x,y) = E((x-E(x))(y-E(y))) = E(xy) - E(x)E(y),$$

$$\text{corr}(x,y) = \frac{\text{cov}(x,y)}{\text{std}(x)\text{std}(y)}$$

1.2 Overview of Numerical Optimization Problems

1.2.1 Total Least Squares Problems

Suppose that we have an underlying linear model,

$$(A - E_A)X = (B - E_B),$$

Where E_A and E_B are unknown; they result from noise in the observed matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

And $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$. To estimate the parameters X , we construct a minimization problem

$$\min_{X, \Delta A, \Delta B} [\Delta A, \Delta B]_F,$$

Subject to

$$(A - \Delta A)X = (B - \Delta B),$$

$$\text{Rank}([(A - \Delta A), (B - \Delta B)]) = r,$$

Where r is the known rank of the noise-free data $(A - E_A)$.

The minimization problem above can be solved by matrix reduction on the SVD of

$[A, B]$. If there were no noise in A and B , the concatenated matrix $[A, B]$ would also have

Rank r since $\text{Range}(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \text{Range}(\mathbf{A})$. If the rank r of the noise-free data $(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{E}_A)$ is given to us, we can truncate all but the largest singular values of $[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}]$. By the Eckart-Young-Mirsky Theorem, the resulting $(\mathbf{X}, \Delta\mathbf{A}, \Delta\mathbf{B})$ is the solution to the minimization problem. In addition, if the noise matrices \mathbf{E}_A and \mathbf{E}_B are mutually uncorrelated and have zero mean and identical standard deviations, it is known that the minimization problem

Above gives us a consistent estimate \mathbf{X} for the underlying linear model.

Our study starts from the question of how we can estimate \mathbf{X} if we do not know the rank r or if the embedded noise matrices \mathbf{E}_A and \mathbf{E}_B do not have identical standard deviations and the standard deviations are unknown. If the rank r is not given to us, we need to decide how many singular values to truncate. If the standard deviations of the

Noise are different and we do not know their values, we also need to find an appropriate weight α so that weighted data $\alpha\mathbf{A}$ and $(1-\alpha)\mathbf{B}$ contain noise with identical standard deviations.

In this paper the author proposes a method to estimate the rank r and the weight α . We also present experimental results to evaluate the proposed method.

1.2.2 Covariance Matrix Estimation

In financial portfolio theory, Markowitz proposed the Mean-Variance (MV) portfolio problem to find an optimal portfolio of N stocks satisfying given constraints. The MV portfolio problem requires an estimated covariance matrix $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ for the N stock returns. It is well known that the performance of the portfolio is very sensitive to the quality of the covariance matrix estimate, but a conventional sample covariance matrix is

far from a good estimate.

The main difficulty is that the observed stock return data contain too much noise. Matrix reduction can be used to reduce the error in the covariance matrix estimate .

Suppose that we have stock return data $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times T}$ of N stocks for T time periods. For

Appropriate principal component analysis (PCA), we normalize each stock return, so that larger turn values for a few stocks do not overwhelm the other return values. Let \mathbf{Z} denote the normalized data with zero-means and identical standard deviations. From the

Singular value decomposition of \mathbf{Z} , we have

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{F} = \sum_{i=1}^T \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{f}_i^T,$$

where $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}^T$, \mathbf{u}_i is the i -th column of \mathbf{U} , and \mathbf{f}_i^T is the i -th row of \mathbf{F} . In PCA, the vector \mathbf{f}_i is called the i -th principal component affecting the stock returns, and the vector \mathbf{u}_i is called a load which determines how much each stock return is affected by the i -th component. Previously, many people proposed truncating a few smallest singular values, expecting that the principal components corresponding to the smallest singular values are more significantly contaminated by noise. However, no one has given a clear answer as to how many principal components should be truncated. This is a very difficult decision because we fundamentally do not know how many factors govern the stock returns.

In Chapter 3, we apply a Tikhonov filtering function to the principal components, a monotonically increasing function of the singular value. With this smooth filtering, we expect that the influence of important principal components is amplified while potential information in less important principal components is still preserved. Further more, we

Propose a method to determine filtering intensity. Experiments using stock return data in NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ from 1958 to 2007, show that the MV portfolio using Tikhonov filtered covariance matrix performs quite well.

1.2.3 Interior Point Method for Semi definite Programming

The constrained convex optimization problem known as semi definite programming (SDP)

Has the following primal and dual problems:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Primal SDP: } \min_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{C} \bullet \mathbf{X} & \text{s.t. } \mathbf{A}_i \bullet \mathbf{X} = b_i \text{ for } i=1, \dots, m, \mathbf{X} \succeq 0, \\ \text{Dual SDP: } \max_{\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y} & \text{s.t. } \sum_{i=1}^m y_i \mathbf{A}_i + \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{Z} \succeq 0, \end{array}$$

where $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{A}_i, \mathbf{X}$, and \mathbf{Z} are $n \times n$ symmetric matrices, $\mathbf{C} \bullet \mathbf{X} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{X})$ is the trace of the matrix, and $\mathbf{Z} \succeq 0$ means that \mathbf{Z} is positive semi definite.

In an interior point method (IPM) for solving the SDP, we use Newton's method to find a direction $(\Delta \mathbf{X}, \Delta \mathbf{y}, \Delta \mathbf{Z})$ leading toward an optimal solution and following a central path defined by the primal and dual constraints and complementarity equation. To make the computation of the direction efficient, the Newton equations are reduced to the linear system,

$$\mathbf{M} \Delta \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{g},$$

Where the Schur complement matrix \mathbf{M} is determined by the constraint matrices \mathbf{A}_i and the current point (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}) , and \mathbf{g} is defined by current residuals. The IPM repeatedly solves this reduced equation until it iterates satisfy a given convergence tolerance.

It takes $O(mn^3 + m^2n^2)$ operations to compute \mathbf{M} , which is most expensive part

For each iteration, so we can expect benefit by reducing its computational cost. In many applications of SDP such as the binary code problem, the quadratic assignment problem, and the traveling sales man problem, the matrices A_i and C have identical diagonal block structure. Using the block structure, M can be expanded to

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{pmatrix} M_j,$$

where p is the number of diagonal blocks and matrix M_j is associated with the j -th constraint block. If some constraint blocks make insignificant or detrimental contributions to finding search direction, we may be able to ignore the corresponding M_j when we compute M . We call such blocks *inactive*. Similar to the previous problems, it is critical to determine which constraint blocks can be ignored while still guaranteeing that the iteration converges to the optimal solution.

The author explain how constraint reduction can be applied to IPM for SDP problems and propose a basic predictor-corrector algorithm with constraint reduction. We demonstrate its performance by experiments with test problems. The author develops a new predictor-corrector algorithm with adaptive criteria to determine *inactive* constraint blocks. We verify the correctness of the criteria by proving the global convergence of the proposed algorithm. Its polynomial complexity is also verified to be $O(n \ln(q_0/q))$, where q_0 is an initial residual and q is a required tolerance.