Solutions for Homework 4 Foundations of Computational Math 1 Fall 2011

Problem 4.1

Recall that an elementary reflector has the form $Q = I + \alpha x x^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with $||x||_2 \neq 0$.

4.1.a. Show that Q is orthogonal if and only if

$$\alpha = \frac{-2}{x^T x}$$
 or $\alpha = 0$

4.1.b. Given $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $\gamma = \pm ||v||$ and $x = v + \gamma e_1$. Assuming that $x \neq v$ show that

$$\frac{x^T x}{x^T v} = 2$$

4.1.c. Using the definitions and results above show that $Qv = -\gamma e_1$

Solution: We have

$$Q^{T}Q = (I + \alpha x x^{T})^{T} (I + \alpha x x^{T}) = (I + \alpha x x^{T})(I + \alpha x x^{T})$$
$$= I + 2\alpha x x^{T} + \alpha^{2} x (x^{T} x) x^{T} = I + (2\alpha + \alpha^{2} x^{T} x) x x^{T}$$

Since x is arbitrary we must have

$$(2\alpha + \alpha^2 x^T x) = 0 \to \alpha = \frac{-2}{x^T x}$$

Now taking $x = v + \gamma e_1$, we have

$$x^{T}v = v^{T}v + \gamma e_{1}^{T}v = \gamma^{2} + \gamma \nu_{1}$$

$$x^{T}x = (v + \gamma e_{1})^{T}(v + \gamma e_{1}) = v^{T}v + 2\gamma \nu_{1} + \gamma^{2} = 2(\gamma^{2} + \gamma \nu_{1})$$

$$\therefore \frac{x^{T}x}{x^{T}v} = 2$$

Finally,

$$Qv = (I + \alpha x x^T)v = v + \alpha(x^T v)x = v + \alpha(x^T v)v + \alpha(x^T v)\gamma e_1$$
$$\alpha(x^T v) = \frac{-2x^T v}{x^T x} = -1$$
$$\therefore Qv = -\gamma e_1$$

Problem 4.2

4.2.a

This part of the problem concerns the computational complexity question of operation count. For both LU factorization and Householder reflector-based orthogonal factorization, we have used elementary transformations, T_i , that can be characterized as rank-1 updates to the identity matrix, i.e.,

$$T_i = I + x_i y_i^T$$
, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Gauss transforms and Householder reflectors differ in the definitions of the vectors x_i and y_i . Maintaining computational efficiency in terms of a reasonable operation count usually implies careful application of associativity and distribution when combining matrices and vectors.

Suppose we are to evaluate

$$z = T_3 T_2 T_1 v = (I + x_3 y_3^T)(I + x_2 y_2^T)(I + x_1 y_1^T)v$$

where $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Show that by using the properties of matrix-matrix multiplication and matrix-vector multiplication, the vector z can be evaluated in O(n) computations (a good choice of version for an algorithm) or $O(n^3)$ computations (a very bad choice of version for an algorithm).

Solution: First we derive the bad choice:

compute
$$T_1 = (I + x_1 y_1^T) \to O(n^2)$$
 operations compute $T_2 = (I + x_2 y_2^T) \to O(n^2)$ operations compute $T_3 = (I + x_3 y_3^T) \to O(n^2)$ operations compute $T = (T_3(T_2T_1)) \to O(n^3)$ operations from two matrix-matrix products compute $z = Tv \to O(n^2)$ operations $O(n^3)$ operations in total as desired

Second we derive the best choice:

$$z = (I + x_3 y_3^T)(I + x_2 y_2^T)(I + x_1 y_1^T)v$$

compute $v_1 = v + x_1(y_1^T v) \to O(n)$ operations from an inner product and a vector triad compute $v_2 = v_1 + x_2(y_2^T v_1) \to O(n)$ operations from an inner product and a vector triad compute $z = v_2 + x_3(y_3^T v_2) \to O(n)$ operations from an inner product and a vector triad O(n) operations in total as desired

For completeness we note an $O(n^2)$ version also exists:

compute
$$T_1 = (I + x_1 y_1^T) \to O(n^2)$$
 operations
compute $T_2 = (I + x_2 y_2^T) \to O(n^2)$ operations
compute $T_3 = (I + x_3 y_3^T) \to O(n^2)$ operations
compute $v_1 = T_1 v \to O(n^2)$ operations
compute $v_2 = T_2 v_1 \to O(n^2)$ operations
compute $z = T_3 v \to O(n^2)$ operations
 $O(n^2)$ operations in total

4.2.b

This part of the problem concerns the computational complexity question of storage space.

Recall, that we discussed and programmed an **in-place** implementation of LU factorization that was very efficient in terms of storage space. An array with n^2 entries initialized with $array(I, J) = \alpha_{ij}$ could be used to store the n^2 entries needed to specify L and U, i.e., λ_{ij} for j < i, $1 \le i \le n$ and $1 \le j \le n$.

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$, $n \geq k$, and rank(A) = k. Consider the use of Householder reflectors, H_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$, to transform A to upper trapezoidal form, i.e.,

$$H_k H_{k-1} \cdots H_2 H_1 A = \begin{pmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $R \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ nonsingular upper triangular

Suppose you are given an array with $n \times k$ entries initialized with $array(I, J) = \alpha_{ij}$ and you are to implement your algorithm using minimal storage.

- (i) Are you able to store all of the information needed to specify the H_i , $1 \le i \le k$ and R within the array with $n \times k$ entries? Justify your answer.
- (ii) If you are not able to store all of the information in the array, how much extra storage do you need and what do you store in it?

Solution: If the entries of R are stored in-place in the array then only the positions where 0 values are created in the transformed A are available to store information specifying the H_i . Let $H_i = I + \alpha_i x_i x_i^T$. H_i transforms n-i elements in column i of the matrix to 0 values. To do this it requires α_i and n-i+1 nonzero entries in x_i . So, a total of n-i+2 scalars are needed to specify H_i .

Therefore, there are

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} (n-i) = kn - \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

positions with 0 values that are available in the array. The H_i require

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} (n-i+2) = kn - \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + 2k$$

storage locations. We need 2k extra locations to store α_i and one of the nonzero elements of x_i , typically the topmost in the i-th position of x_i for $1 \le i \le k$.

This can be reduced to k extra locations if the form

$$H_i = I - 2u_i u_i^T$$

where $||u_i||_2 = 1$ is used. This is not typically used in libraries for reasons related to possible overflow.

Problem 4.3

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ have full column rank. Describe an efficient algorithm based on Householder reflectors, H_i , $1 \le i \le k$ that computes a matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ with orthonormal columns such that

$$\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(Q)$$

i.e., A and Q have the same range space.

Solution:

We can construct a series of Householder reflectors so that

$$H_k \cdots H_2 H_1 A = \begin{pmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H^T = \begin{pmatrix} Q & Q_\perp \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H^T = H_1 H_2 \cdots H_k$$

$$Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k} \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(Q)$$

It follows that

$$H^{T}e_{i} = Qe_{i} = H_{1}H_{2}\cdots H_{k}e_{i} \quad 1 < i < k$$

Therefore, Q can be evaluated by applying H^T in factored form to e_i $1 \le i \le k$. Some computations can be saved by noting that due to the structure in the vector u_i that defines H_i we have $H_ie_j = e_j$ with j < i.

Problem 4.4

Consider a Householder reflector, H, in \mathbb{R}^2 . Show that

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} -\cos(\phi) & -\sin(\phi) \\ -\sin(\phi) & \cos(\phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

where ϕ is some angle.

Solution:

We have the basic identities

$$\sin^{2}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos(2\theta))$$
$$\cos^{2}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos(2\theta))$$
$$\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}\sin(2\theta).$$

Any unit length vector in two space must be of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \gamma \\ \sigma \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\gamma = \cos(\theta)$ and $\sigma = \sin(\theta)$ for some angle θ .

$$-2\begin{pmatrix} \gamma \\ \sigma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \sigma \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2\gamma^2 & -2\gamma\sigma \\ -2\gamma\sigma & -2\sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 2\gamma^2 & -2\gamma\sigma \\ -2\gamma\sigma & 1 - 2\sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Applying the identities in the problem yields

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} -\cos(2\theta) & -\sin(2\theta) \\ -\sin(2\theta) & \cos(2\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$

and the proof is completed by setting $\phi = 2\theta$.