

# Applied Math HW 4

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## Question 1

Let  $u$  and  $v$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let  $A$  and  $B$  be two  $n \times n$  matrices.

- (a) Find the number of operations (multiplications and divisions) required to compute the scalar product, the norm  $\|u\|_2$  and the rank-one matrix  $uv^T$ .

- Let  $u = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$  and  $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ . Then, the scalar product is calculated at

$$\langle u, v \rangle = u^T v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n.$$

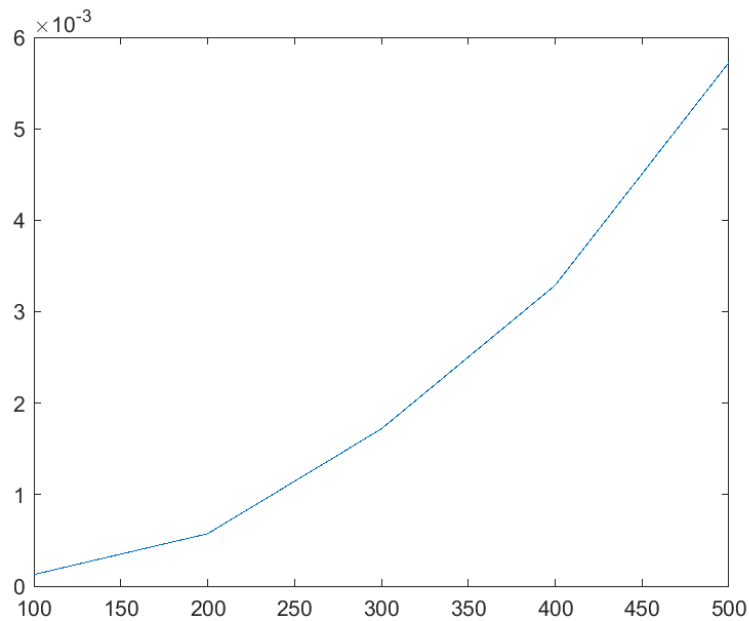
Since we are only counting multiplications and divisions, we can clearly see from above that this has one multiplication for each index of the vectors, therefore  $N_{op}(n) = n$ .

- Recall that  $\|u\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$ . We saw from before that the inner product takes  $n$  multiplications to complete. If we consider the square root function as an operation, we have  $N_{op}(n) = n + 1$ , but if we only consider multiplications and divisions, then  $N_{op}(n) = n$ .
- Notice, the multiplication  $uv^T$  is expressed as

$$uv^T = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 v_1 & u_1 v_2 & \dots & u_1 v_n \\ u_2 v_1 & u_2 v_2 & \dots & u_2 v_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_n v_1 & u_n v_2 & \dots & u_n v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, notice each entry of the resulting  $n \times n$  matrix has one multiplication. Therefore, there there are clearly  $N_{op}(n) = n^2$  operations involved.

- (b) For  $n = 100k$  with  $k = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , estimate the running time of Matlab (using `tic` and `toc`) for computing the product of two matrices  $A = \text{rand}(n, n)$  and  $B = \text{rand}(n, n)$ . Plot this running time in terms of  $n$ .
- Below is my graph of the running time in terms of  $n$ . The size of the matrix  $n$  is the horizontal axis and the running time in seconds to compute  $AB$  is the vertical axis. To prevent inconsistencies from the randomness of the matrices, I did 100 matrix multiplications for each value of  $n$  and averaged the computation times. I then took this average running time for a fixed  $n$  to be my representative value for the plot which gave much smoother results. Additionally, I found that running my `for` loop gave better results when starting at  $k = 5$  and working backwards to  $k = 1$  (perhaps because of MATLAB needing to load certain packages on the first use of `tic` and `toc`; thus, a smaller relative error when the first usage is on the longer test-case).



- The values that are represented in this graph are

$n$	time
100	$1.2685 \times 10^{-4}$
200	$5.7295 \times 10^{-4}$
300	$1.7192 \times 10^{-3}$
400	$3.2887 \times 10^{-3}$
500	$5.7249 \times 10^{-3}$

- My code to produce this plot is as follows:

```

N = 100; %Number of times to average each test case
M = 5; %Max value for k
time = zeros(1, M);
n = 100*(1:M);
y = zeros(M, N);

%for k = 1:M
for k = M:-1:1
    C = zeros(n(k), n(k));
    for j = 1:N
        A = rand(n(k), n(k));
        B = rand(n(k), n(k));
        tic;
        C = A*B;
        y(k, j) = toc;
    end
    time(k) = mean(y(k, :));
end

figure;
plot(n, time);

```

(c) Assume that this running time is a polynomial of  $n$ , so that for  $n$  large enough,  $T(n) \approx Cn^s$ . In order to find a numerical approximation of the exponent  $s$ , plot the logarithm of  $T$  in terms of the logarithm of  $n$ . Deduce an approximate value of  $s$ .

- We have seen in class that the standard algorithm for matrix multiplication takes  $O(n^3)$  operations. MATLAB; however, may have a slightly more efficient algorithm, but we should expect it to be similar. Notice the

following:

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &\approx Cn^s \\
 \implies \log(T(n)) &\approx \log(Cn^s) \\
 \implies \log(T(n)) &\approx s \log(n) + \log(C)
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, when graphing the logarithm of  $T$  versus the logarithm of  $n$ , we should expect our  $s$  to be the slope of the log-log plot. With this in mind, I appended the following code to the end of the code in the previous section:

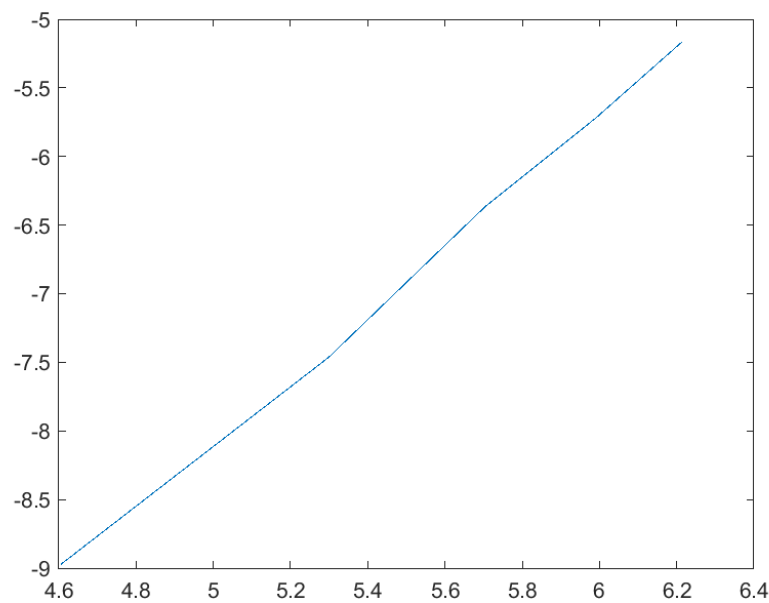
```

figure;
w = log(n);
z = log(time);
plot(w, z)

p = polyfit(w, z, 1);
slope = p(1);

```

- The first 4 lines of code produced the following graph:



- This graph has points at the following values:

$n$	$\ln(n)$	$\ln(\text{time})$
100	4.6052	-8.9725
200	5.2983	-7.4647
300	5.7038	-6.3659
400	5.9915	-5.7173
500	6.2146	-5.1629

- The last two lines of code I added create a linear approximation of this log-log plot and then return the slope of the that line into the variable named `slope`. The output of this was 2.3824 which indicates that  $s \approx 2.3824$ . This approximation may not be completely accurate due the randomness involved and the fact we are only using 5 test cases with a maximum  $n$  of 500. More test cases and a larger set of  $n$ 's would likely make this estimate more accurate.

## Question 2

Let  $A$  be an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix. Prove the following properties:

(a)  $\text{cond}(\alpha A) = \text{cond}(A)$  for all nonzero  $\alpha$ .

- Let  $\alpha \neq 0$ .
- In order to prove the given statement, I will first prove the following property that if  $A$  is invertible, then

$$(\alpha A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\alpha} A^{-1}$$

To show this, simply note that

$$\begin{aligned}(\alpha A) \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} A^{-1} \right) &= \frac{\alpha}{\alpha} A A^{-1} = I \\ \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} A^{-1} \right) (\alpha A) &= \frac{\alpha}{\alpha} A^{-1} A = I\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, we can compute the condition number:

$$\text{cond}(\alpha A) = \|\alpha A\| \|(\alpha A)^{-1}\| = |\alpha| \|A\| \left\| \frac{1}{\alpha} A^{-1} \right\| = \frac{|\alpha|}{|\alpha|} \|A\| \|A^{-1}\| = \text{cond}(A)$$

(b)  $\text{cond}_2(AU) = \text{cond}_2(UA) = \text{cond}_2(A)$  for any orthogonal matrix  $U$ .

- Recall from HW2, we have proven that  $\|QAZ\|_2 = \|A\|_2$  for  $Q$  and  $Z$  orthogonal matrices. In particular, by taking  $Q = I$  and  $Z = U$ , we get  $\|AU\|_2 = \|A\|$  and by taking  $Q = U$  and  $Z = I$ , we get  $\|UA\|_2 = \|A\|$ . Note, we can also replace  $A$  with  $A^{-1}$  and  $U$  with  $U^{-1} = U^T$  (which must be also be orthogonal) and these equalities will still hold true. Therefore, we can compute the condition numbers as:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cond}_2(AU) &= \|AU\|_2 \|(AU)^{-1}\|_2 = \|A\|_2 \|U^T A^{-1}\|_2 = \|A\|_2 \|A^{-1}\|_2 = \text{cond}_2(A) \\ \text{cond}_2(UA) &= \|UA\|_2 \|(UA)^{-1}\|_2 = \|A\|_2 \|A^{-1} U^T\|_2 = \|A\|_2 \|A^{-1}\|_2 = \text{cond}_2(A)\end{aligned}$$

(c)  $n^{-2} \text{cond}_1(A) \leq \text{cond}_\infty(A) \leq n^2 \text{cond}_1(A)$ .

- Recall the following property about matrix norms:  $\frac{1}{n} \|A\|_\infty \leq \|A\|_1 \leq n \|A\|_\infty$ . These can also be rephrased as  $\frac{1}{n} \|A\|_1 \leq \|A\|_\infty \leq n \|A\|_1$  which lead to:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cond}_\infty(A) &= \|A\|_\infty \|A^{-1}\|_\infty \leq \left( n \|A\|_1 \right) \left( n \|A^{-1}\|_1 \right) = n^2 \text{cond}_1(A) \\ \text{cond}_\infty(A) &= \|A\|_\infty \|A^{-1}\|_\infty \geq \left( \frac{1}{n} \|A\|_1 \right) \left( \frac{1}{n} \|A^{-1}\|_1 \right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{cond}_1(A)\end{aligned}$$

Putting these inequalities together clearly gives the stated property.

### Question 3

Let  $A$  be an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix and  $b$  be a nonzero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Assume that  $x$  and  $x + \Delta x$  solve

$$Ax = b, \quad (A + \Delta A)(x + \Delta x) = b.$$

Prove that the inequality

$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x + \Delta x\|} \leq \text{cond}(A) \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|}$$

is optimal in the sense that there are  $\Delta A \neq 0$  and  $b \neq 0$  such that the equality happens.

*Proof.*

We have already shown that the inequality holds in class; therefore, I simply need to show that it is an optimal inequality.

By the definition of the operator norm, we know that there exists some vector  $x_0 \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\|A^{-1}x_0\| = \|A^{-1}\| \|x_0\|$ . Define  $b = x_0$ . So that  $Ax = b \implies x = A^{-1}b \implies \|x\| = \|A^{-1}\| \|b\|$ . With this in mind, define

$$\Delta A := \frac{b(x + \Delta x)^T}{\|x + \Delta x\|^2}$$

With this in mind, notice the following properties:

$$\Delta A(x + \Delta x) = b \frac{(x + \Delta x)^T (x + \Delta x)}{\|x + \Delta x\|^2} = b \frac{\|x + \Delta x\|^2}{\|x + \Delta x\|^2} = b \quad (0.1)$$

Furthermore, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\|\Delta A\| &= \frac{\|b(x + \Delta x)^T\|}{\|x + \Delta x\|^2} = \max_{\|z\|=1} \frac{\|b(x + \Delta x)^T z\|}{\|x + \Delta x\|^2} = \max_{\|z\|=1} \frac{|\langle x + \Delta x, z \rangle| \|b\|}{\|x + \Delta x\|^2} = \frac{\|b\|}{\|x + \Delta x\|} \\ &\implies \|\Delta A\| \|x + \Delta x\| = \|b\|\end{aligned} \quad (0.2)$$

Notice the last equality in the first line of equalities above follows as an inequality with Cauchy-Schwartz and it is attained by taking  $z = (x + \Delta x)/\|x + \Delta x\|$ . Therefore, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
& (A + \Delta A)(x + \Delta x) = b \\
\implies & Ax + A\Delta x + \Delta A(x + \Delta x) = b \\
\implies & A\Delta x + \Delta A(x + \Delta x) = 0 && \text{since } Ax = b \\
\implies & -A^{-1}\Delta A(x + \Delta x) = \Delta x
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by taking norms of both sides of this equality, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\Delta x\| &= \|A^{-1}\Delta A(x + \Delta x)\| \\
&= \|A^{-1}b\| && \text{by (0.1)} \\
&= \|A^{-1}\| \|b\| && \text{by construction of } b \\
&= \|A^{-1}\| \|\Delta A\| \|x + \Delta x\| && \text{by (0.2)} \\
\implies \frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x + \Delta x\|} &= \|A^{-1}\| \|\Delta A\| \\
&= \|A\| \|A^{-1}\| \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|} \\
&= \text{cond}(A) \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|}
\end{aligned}$$

□

Notice I was being slightly deceiving in the preceding proof by using the fact that  $y^T y = \langle y, y \rangle = \|y\|^2$  which is only true for the vector 2-norm. To make this proof work for the vector  $p$  norm in general take

$$\Delta A = \frac{by^T}{\|x + \Delta x\|_p^2}$$

where  $y$  is chosen such that  $y^T(x + \Delta x) = \|x + \Delta x\|_p^2$ . This  $y$  will vary depending on  $p$ , for example

- $p = 1$ . Take  $y = \|x + \Delta x\|_1(\pm 1, \pm 1, \dots, \pm 1)^T$  where you choose  $+$  or  $-$  to match the sign of  $x + \Delta x$  in that coordinate.
- $p = \infty$ . Take  $y = \pm \|x + \Delta x\|_\infty e_k$  where  $k$  is chosen as the coordinate corresponding the largest absolute value of an entry of  $x + \Delta x$  and  $+$  or  $-$  matches the sign of that element.