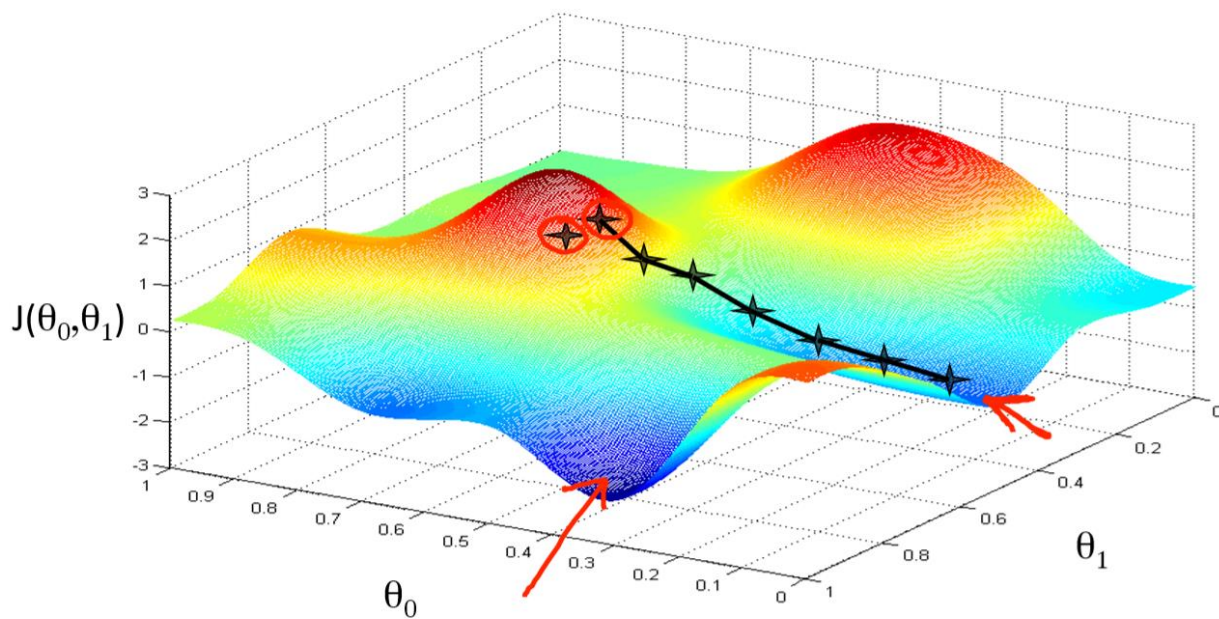


# Mathematical Methods for Data Science

August 2020

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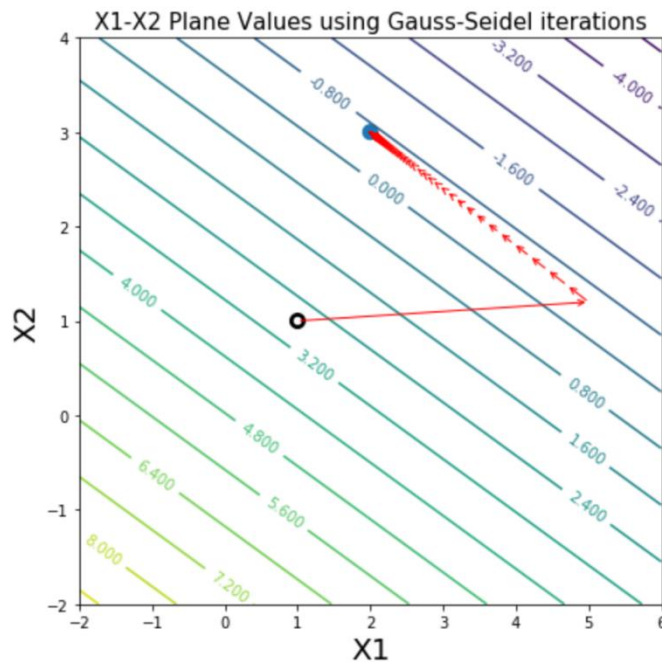
## Answers

1. In the following, supply the code, and a plot, of the iterations in the  $x_1, x_2$  plane, starting at  $x = (1, 1)$ . Define  $Ax = b$  where

$$A := \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}; b := (13, 21)$$

1.1. Find  $x$  using Gauss-Seidel iterations.

Based on Golub, Gene H., et al. book [1], in Gauss-Seidel method for solving  $Ax = b$ , the matrix  $A$  is split into 2 parts:  $U$ , an upper triangular matrix similar to  $A$  upper triangular elements;  $L$ , a lower triangular matrix which is calculated using the following formula:  $L = A - U$ . This can be converted into an iterative method by the following recurrence:  $x_{(i+1)} = L^{-1}(b - Ux_i)$ . Further, the function  $GS(\dots)$  which described below was developed using the abovementioned equations, and the function  $plotChart()$  was developed in order to plot the iterations in the  $x_1, x_2$  plane for all of the below mentioned iterative methods. Further, by plugging in the given arguments of  $A, x_0, b$ , the most accurate  $x$  values, which are [2 3] achieved after 199 iterations using  $\varepsilon = 10E - 11$ , and resulted in the following  $x_1, x_2$  plane plot which described below.



## 1.2. Find $x$ using Jacobi iterations.

Based on Shewchuk, J.R., paper [2] the Jacobi Method for solving  $Ax = b$ , the matrix  $A$  is splitted into 2 parts:  $D$ , whose diagonal elements are identical to the elements of  $A$ , and the rest are zero;  $E$ , whose off diagonal elements are equal to the elements of  $A$ , while the diagonal elements are zero. Therefore,

$$A = D + E$$

The Jacobi method is derived as follows:

$$Ax = b$$

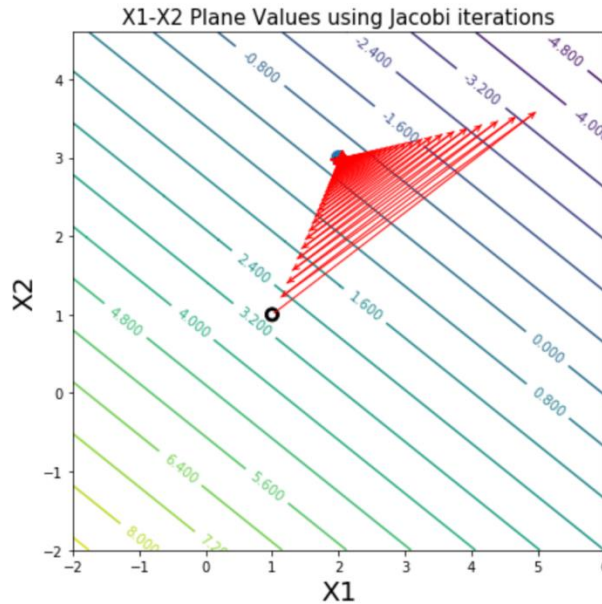
$$Dx = -Ex + b$$

$$x = -D^{-1}Ex + D^{-1}b$$

$$x = Bx + z, \quad \text{where } B = -D^{-1}E, \quad z = D^{-1}b$$

This can be converted into an iterative method by the following recurrence:  $x_{(i+1)} = Bx_i + z$ .

Further, the function *jacobi(...)* which described below was developed using the abovementioned equations. Further, by plugging in the given arguments of  $A, x_0, b$ , the most accurate  $x$  values, which are  $[2 \ 3]$ , achieved after 387 iterations using  $\varepsilon = 10E - 9$ , and resulted in the following  $x_1, x_2$  plane plot which described below.



### 1.3. Find $x$ using Steepest Descent (a.k.a. Gradient Decent), with exact line-searches.

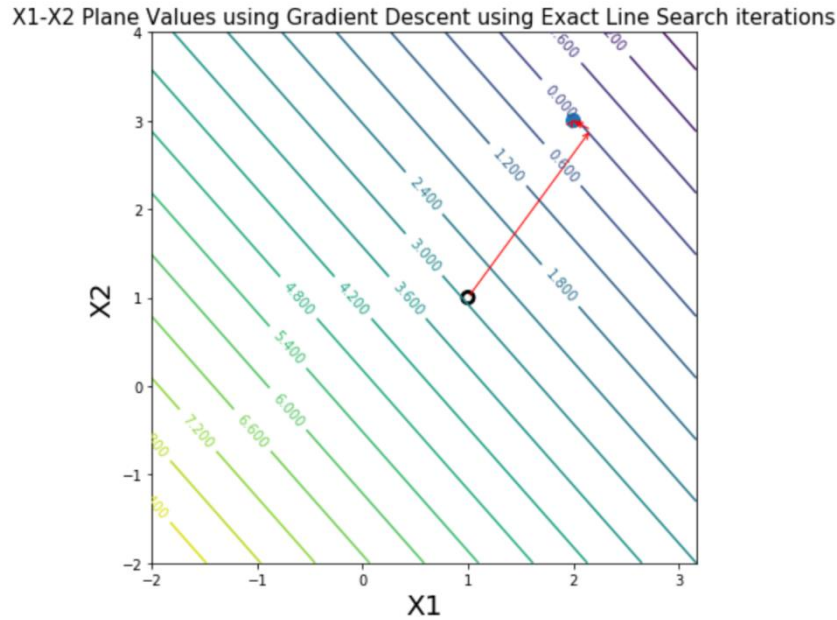
Based on Shewchuk, J.R., paper [2], the required equations for solving  $Ax = b$  system using Gradient Descent with exact line-searches are as follows

$$r_i = b - Ax_i$$

$$\alpha_i = \frac{r_i^T r_i}{r_i^T A r_i}$$

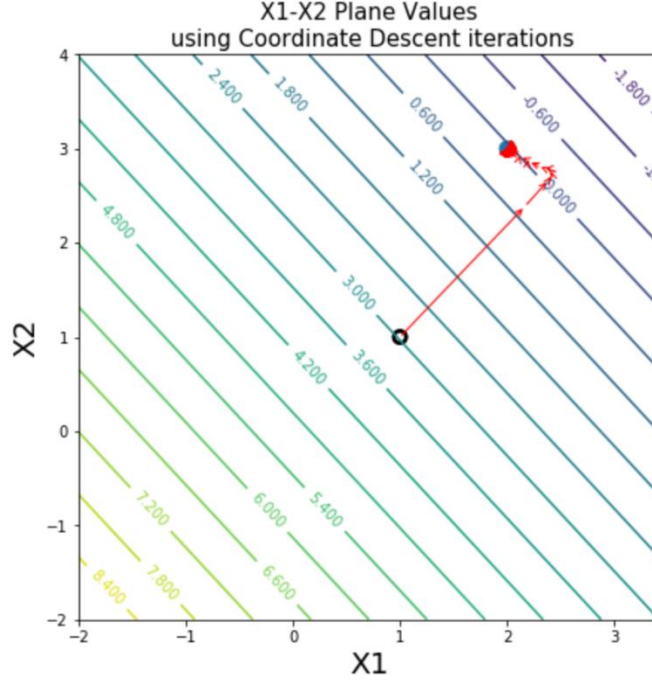
$$x_{(i+1)} = r_i + \alpha_i r_i$$

Further, the function  $GDELS(\dots)$  which described below was developed using the abovementioned equations. Further, by plugging in the given arguments of  $A, x_0, b$ , the most accurate  $x$  values, which are  $[2 \ 3]$ , achieved after 5 iterations using  $\varepsilon = 10E - 6$ , and resulted in the following  $x_1, x_2$  plane plot which described below. Furthermore, this method outperformed the rest of the optimization methods.



### 1.4. Find $x$ using coordinate-decent, i.e., optimizing a single coordinate per iteration. You are free to choose the type of descent you perform at each coordinate.

Unlike Gradient Descent, Based on Shewchuk, J.R., paper [2], Coordinate Descent is a method for optimizing each coordinate separately. Moreover, the function  $CD(\dots)$  which described below was developed similar to the Gradient Descent algorithm that was presented above, however, I added an internal loop in order to optimize each coordinate separately. Further, by plugging in the given arguments of  $A, x_0, b$ , the most accurate  $x$  values, which are  $[2 \ 3]$ , achieved after 124 iterations using  $\varepsilon = 10E - 11$ , and resulted in the following  $x_1, x_2$  plane plot which described below.



**2. Generate 1000 samples from  $Binom(10, 0.5)$ . You are allowed to use your software's  $Unif[0, 1]$  generator. I want the code and a histogram of 1,000 samples.**

**2.1. Use the inverse probability transform ( $F^{-1}(t)$ ). You are allowed to use your software's quantile functions.**

First, denote the binomial probability function as  $X \sim Binomial(n, p) \rightarrow P_k = P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$ . Second, based on P. Robert et al. book [3] which describes the Inverse Transform method, the binomial inverse probability transform ( $F^{-1}(t)$ ) needed to be found, by calculating the increment between two consecutive probabilities where

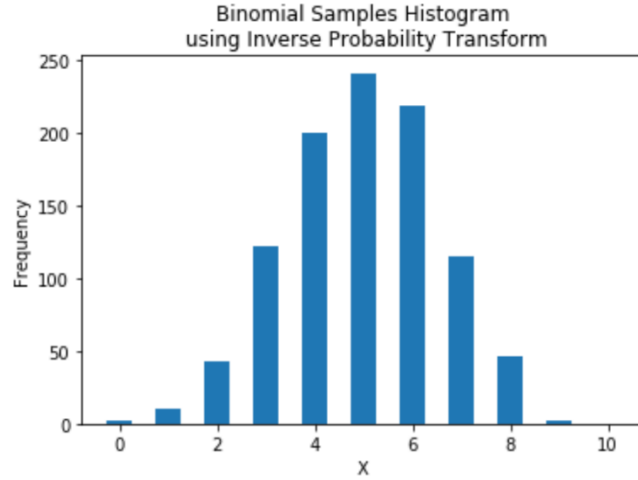
$$\frac{P_{k+1}}{P_k} = \frac{\binom{n}{k+1} p^{k+1} (1-p)^{n-k-1}}{\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}} = \frac{\binom{n}{k+1}}{\binom{n}{k}} \cdot \frac{p}{(1-p)}$$

$$\frac{\binom{n}{k+1}}{\binom{n}{k}} = \frac{n!}{(n-k-1)!(k+1)!} \cdot \frac{(n-k)!k!}{n!} = \frac{n!}{(n-k-1)!(k+1)k!} \cdot \frac{(n-k)(n-k-1)!k!}{n!} = \frac{n-k}{k+1}$$

By combining the abovementioned equations it can be shown that

$$\frac{P_{k+1}}{P_k} = \frac{\binom{n}{k+1}}{\binom{n}{k}} \cdot \frac{p}{(1-p)} = \frac{n-k}{k+1} \cdot \frac{p}{(1-p)} \Rightarrow P_{k+1} = \frac{n-k}{k+1} \cdot \frac{p}{(1-p)} P_k$$

Finally, in order to generate a binomial random variable  $X$ , the inverse probability method needed to be used with the following parameters:  $k$ , which represents the possible value of  $X$ ,  $P$  which is the probability that  $X = k$ , and  $F$  is the probability that  $X \leq k$  where  $F = \sum_{j=0}^k P_j$ . Further, both samples generation and below histogram of 1000 binomial samples were calculated using the code below which describes the implementation of this method.

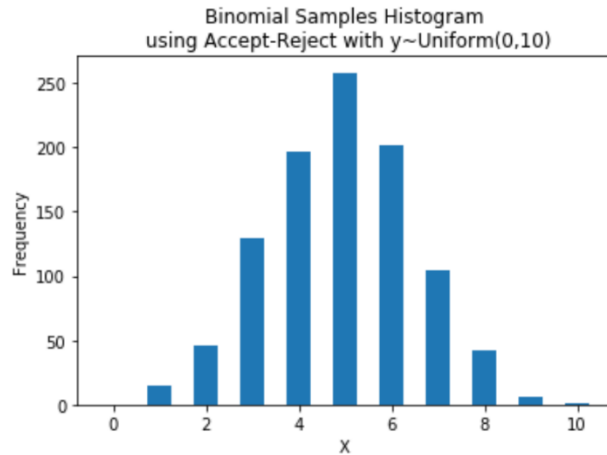


## 2.2. Use accept reject (a.k.a. rejection sampling), with proposals from $Unif\{0, 10\}$ . Use only your software's $Unif[0, 1]$ generator.

Note that since the accept reject method requires a normalization factor denoted as  $M$  which is relevant to the acceptance condition  $U \leq \frac{f(y)}{m \cdot g(y)}$ , an appropriate value that fulfills the following condition:

$f(x) \leq M \cdot g(x)$  needed to be found. Therefore, by simulating the binomial probability space where  $n = 10, p = 0.5$  which resulted in finding the maximal value of  $P_{max} = P(x = 5 | n = 10, p = 0.5) = 0.24609375$ . Then,  $M$  was found by multiplying  $P_{max}$  with  $g(x) = \frac{1}{10}$ , since  $g(x) \sim Uniform(0,10)$  which resulted in the following:

$M = P_{max} \cdot g(x) = 0.24609375 \cdot 0.1 \cong 2.4609375$ . Further, this method was implemented using the `binomial_AR()` function which described below and based on P. Robert et al. book [3]. Moreover, since  $M$  depends on the given probability and the number of trials it was designed to address the general case where  $n$  and  $p$  are unknown. Furthermore, the histogram below was generated using the `binomial_AR()` function.



### 2.3. Use Metropolis-Hastings with a proposal distribution of your choice.

Based on P. Robert et al. book [3], the Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm steps are as follows:

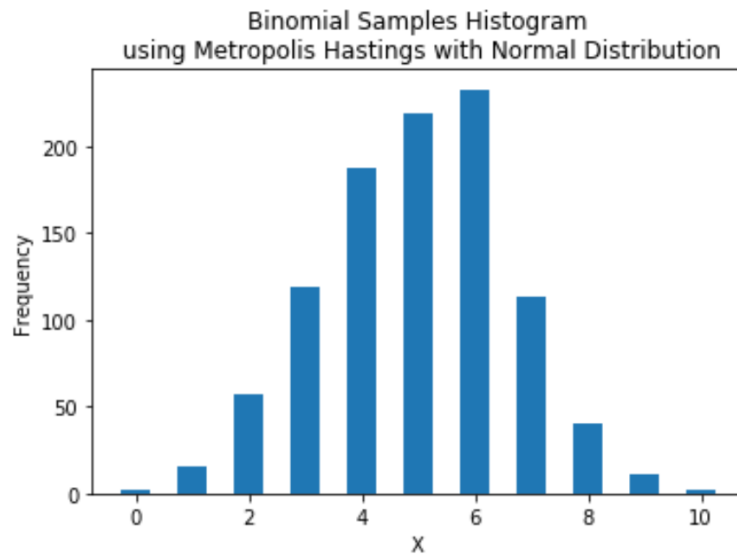
Given  $x_t$ ,

1. Generate  $Y_t \sim q(y/x_t)$
2. Take  $X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} Y_t & \text{with probability } \rho(x_t, Y_t), \\ x_t & \text{with probability } 1 - \rho(x_t, Y_t), \end{cases}$

Where

$$\rho(x, y) = \min \left\{ \frac{f(y) q(x|y)}{f(x) q(y|x)}, 1 \right\}$$

Note that in the case of choosing a symmetric proposal density, the proposal density ratio  $\frac{q(x|y)}{q(y|x)}$  which goes in two directions is equal to 1. Therefore, I chose to use the normal distribution as the proposed density, which is symmetric and moreover, in order to generate values between  $[0,10]$  I used the following parameters  $Y_t \sim N(\mu = 5, \sigma = \mu/3)$ . Further, note that since only a *uniform*(0,1) random variable generation function is allowed to be used, first, I used the Box-Muller transform to generate  $z \sim N(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$ . Secondly, I shifted and scaled  $z$  to the appropriate values using  $Y_t = z \cdot \sigma + \mu$ , where  $\mu = 5, \sigma = \mu/3$ . Finally, as described below, I have implemented this method using the *normal\_BM()* function to generate a normal distributed random variable and the *binomial\_MH()* function which contain the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm implementation and a histogram generation.





**3. What are the first 10 numbers in the sequence of a linear congruent generator with:**

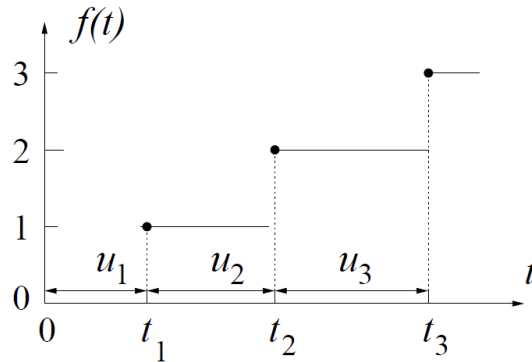
**$a = 1664525, c = 0, m = 232, X_0 = 3$ ? Provide sequence and code.**

The requested generated sequence was generated using the code below that was written based on Tezuka S. book, Uniform Random Numbers Theory and Practice [4].

$x_1 = 4993575, x_2 = 1168709115, x_3 = 232464319, x_4 = 476952243, x_5 = 4292385047,$   
 $x_6 = 1044246571, x_7 = 1258902575, x_8 = 3214606435, x_9 = 2259777287, x_{10} = 740218203$

**4. Let  $N_t$  be a simple birth process, i.e., a Poisson point process with rate  $\lambda_i = \lambda i$ . Let  $X_i$  be the times between event, so that  $N_t = \max \{n \text{ s.t. } \sum_{i=0}^n X_i \leq t\}$ . Write the likelihood of  $\lambda$ , given  $X_1, \dots, X_N$ . Is it convex in  $\lambda$ ?**

Based on Bruce Hajek notes for ECE 534 [5], a function  $f \in \mathbb{R}_+$  is called a *counting function* based on the following conditions:  $f(0) = 0, f$  is *nondecreasing,  $f$  is right continuous and integer valued*. The number of counts during an interval of  $(0, t]$  denoted as  $f(t)$ . In addition, an increment defined as the number of counts in the interval  $(a, b]$  is denoted as  $f(b) - f(a)$ . The time for the  $i$ th count for  $i \geq 1$  denoted as *count time*  $t_i$ , which results in describing  $f$  as a sequence of  $t_i$ . Further,  $f$  can be also described as a sequence of *intercount times*  $u_i$ , if  $u_1 = t_1$  and  $u_i = t_i - t_{i-1}$  for  $i \geq 2$ . A graphical demonstration of count times and intercount times sequences is described below.



Further, by definition, a *Poisson Process* with rate of  $\lambda > 0$  is a random process  $N = (N_t : t \geq 0)$  such that  $N$  is a counting process with independent increments. In addition,  $N(t) - N(s)$  has the  $Pois(\lambda(t - s))$  distribution for  $t \geq s$ . As a result,  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$  are mutually independent  $Exp(\lambda)$  random variables. Recall that the exponential distribution density function is

$$f(x|\lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



Based on [6] In order to calculate  $\lambda$  likelihood function given  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  I'll use the fact that  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are distributed exponentially with rate of  $\lambda_i = \lambda i$ , the likelihood function will be written as follows:

$$L(\lambda|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_t = \max\{n \text{ s.t. } \sum_{i=0}^n X_i \leq t\}} \lambda_i e^{-\lambda_i x_i} = \prod_{i=1}^{N_t = \max\{n \text{ s.t. } \sum_{i=0}^n X_i \leq t\}} \lambda i e^{-\lambda i x_i} = \lambda^n n! e^{-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n i x_i}$$

The log-likelihood function will be written as follows:

$$l(\lambda|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \ln(\lambda^n n! e^{-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n i x_i}) = n \ln(\lambda) + \ln(n!) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n i x_i$$

Finally, in order to find the maximum likelihood estimator for  $\lambda$  I'll take the derivative of the log-likelihood function to be equal to zero as follows:

$$\frac{dl(\lambda|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)}{d\lambda} = \frac{dl(n \ln(\lambda) + \ln(n!) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n i x_i)}{d\lambda} = \frac{n}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^n i x_i = 0$$

$$\frac{n}{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^n i x_i \xrightarrow{\text{yields}} \hat{\lambda} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i}$$

In order to check If  $\hat{\lambda} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i}$  is convex I'll use the definition of convex function based on Boyd, S., et al. book, Convex Optimization [7]. A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is *convex* if **dom**  $f$  is a convex set and if for all  $x, y \in \mathbf{dom} f$ , and  $\theta$  with  $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$ ,  $f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$

Further, geometrically speaking, it means that the line segment between  $(x, f(x))$  and  $(y, f(y))$ , denoted as the *chord* between  $x$  and  $y$  lies above the graph of  $f$ . In the following case, we have  $\hat{\lambda} = f(x) = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i}$ , by plugging  $f(x)$  in the above inequality we get the following:

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i(\theta x_i + (1 - \theta)y_i)} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i(\theta x_i + y_i - \theta y_i)}$$

$$\theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y) = \theta \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i} + (1 - \theta) \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i y_i}$$

Since  $x_i, y_i > 0$ , for this proof I'll assume that both  $\forall i \ x_i = y_i = 1$  which results in the following:

First,  $f(x) = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i} = f(y)$ . Second, since the accumulation at the denominator is arithmetic series it can be calculated using this formula  $S_n = \frac{n(a_1 + a_n)}{2}$ . Further, under the assumptions, the value of  $f(x)$  is equal to  $f(x) = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i} = \frac{n}{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}} = \frac{2}{n+1}$ . Finally, by plugging this into the inequality it can be shown that

$$(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i(\theta x_i + (1 - \theta)y_i)} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i(\theta x_i + y_i - \theta y_i)} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i(\theta + 1 - \theta)} = \frac{2}{n + 1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y) &= \theta \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i} + (1 - \theta) \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i y_i} = \theta \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i} + (1 - \theta) \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n i} \\ &= \theta \frac{2}{n + 1} + (1 - \theta) \frac{2}{n + 1} = \frac{2}{n + 1} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, since the inequality is now confirmed  $f(x)$  is *convex* since,

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \frac{2}{n + 1} \leq \frac{2}{n + 1} = \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$$

However, in the general case where  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are unknown, by plugging in the extreme values of  $\theta$  where  $\theta = 0$  or  $\theta = 1$  we get equality for both sides, which means that  $f(x)$  is not *strictly convex*.

## 5. Prove that the leading eigenvalue of Markov Chain's transition matrix is 1.

Based on the book of Gutterp, P. and N. Minin, V. [8] Let  $A_{n \times n}$  be a Markov Chain's transition matrix, which is a left stochastic matrix such that each entry  $p_{ij}$  is non-negative and moreover, the sum of each column entries is 1. In order to simplify this proof, I'll use the fact that for a squared matrix, its determinant is equal to its transposed matrix determinant:

$\det(A) = \det(A^T)$ . Therefore, after transposing A, it can be treated as a right stochastic matrix where  $a_{ij} \geq 0$  and  $a_{i1} + a_{i2} + \dots + a_{in} = 1$ . In addition, by def.,  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A'$  if and only if  $A'v = \lambda v$  for some **nonzero vector v**. By letting  $v$  be a vector of ones the following equation can be derived:

$$eq. 1. A'v = \begin{pmatrix} a_{i1} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^n a_{nj} \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{\text{right stochastic def.}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad eq. 2. \lambda v = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

By the eigenvalue def. and based on the above equations it can be derived that the eigenvalue is 1:

$$eq. 3. A'v = \lambda v \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \lambda = 1$$

Now to show that the absolute value of any eigenvalue of the stochastic matrix A is less than or equal to 1. First, since  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A if and only if  $Av = \lambda v$  for some **nonzero vector v**, by comparing the  $i$ -th row of both sides, for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$  the following equation can be derived

$$eq. 4. a_{i1}v_1 + a_{i2}v_2 + \dots + a_{in}v_n = \lambda v_i$$

Second, let  $v_k$  be the entry of  $v$  that has the maximal absolute value;

$$eq. 5. |v_k| = \max\{|v_1|, |v_2|, \dots, |v_n|\}$$

Note that  $|v_k| > 0$ , otherwise  $v = 0$  which contradicts that an eigenvector is a nonzero vector. As a result, using eq.4. it can be shown that with  $i = k$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{eq. 6. } |\lambda||v_k| &= |a_{k1}v_1 + a_{k2}v_2 + \dots + a_{kn}v_n| \\
 &\leq a_{k1}|v_1| + a_{k2}|v_2| + \dots + a_{kn}|v_n| \quad (\text{by the triangle inequality and } a_{ij} \geq 0) \\
 &\leq a_{k1}|v_k| + a_{k2}|v_k| + \dots + a_{kn}|v_k| \quad (\text{since } |v_k| \text{ is the maximal}) \\
 &= (a_{k1} + a_{k2} + \dots + a_{kn})|v_k| = |v_k|
 \end{aligned}$$

Finally, since  $|v_k| > 0$ , it follows that  $\lambda \leq 1$ .

## 6. Show that the regression's "Hat Matrix" ( $H = (X'X)^{-1}X'$ is the Moore-Penrose Pseudo-Inverse of the matrix $X$ ).

The true regression model is defined as  $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$  while  $X$  defined as the matrix of independent variables observations,  $Y$  as the vector of dependent variable observations,  $\beta$  the true coefficient vector, and a noise term denoted as  $\varepsilon$ . The predicted model defined as  $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta}$  while  $\hat{\beta}$  denoted as the estimated coefficient vector. Since the sum of squared errors defined as  $SSE = (Y - X\hat{\beta})'(Y - X\hat{\beta})$ , it can be minimized by calculating the partial derivatives for each  $\beta_i$  and moreover, set it to be equal to zero, the Normal equations are derived, which result in the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (X'X)\beta &= (X'Y) \rightarrow (X'X)^{-1}(X'X)\beta = (X'X)^{-1}(X'Y) \rightarrow I\beta = (X'X)^{-1}(X'Y) \\
 \rightarrow \hat{\beta} &= (X'X)^{-1}X'Y \rightarrow \hat{\beta} = HY \quad (H \text{ defined as the regression Hat Matrix})
 \end{aligned}$$

In addition, based on Golub, Gene H., and Charles F. Van Loan book [1] note that the pseudo inverse (or Moore-Penrose inverse) of a matrix  $A$  is the matrix  $A^+$  that fulfills the following conditions:

- I.  $AA^+A = A$
- II.  $A^+AA^+ = A^+$
- III.  $AA^+$  *symmetric* ( $A$  symmetric if  $A=A'$ )
- IV.  $A^+A$  *symmetric*

In addition, in case when  $A$  has linearly independent columns (and thus the matrix  $A'A$  is invertible),  $A^+$  can be computed as  $(A'A)^{-1}A'$ .

In order to prove that  $H$  is the Moore-Penrose Pseudo-Inverse of the matrix  $X$ , the abovementioned conditions needed to be proofed:

- I.  $XHX = X((X'X)^{-1}X')X = X(X'X)^{-1}X'X = XI = X = XX^+X$
- II.  $HXH = ((X'X)^{-1}X')X((X'X)^{-1}X') = (X'X)^{-1}X'X(X'X)^{-1}X' = I(X'X)^{-1}X' = X^+ = X^+XX^+$
- III.  $(XX^+)' = (XH)' = H'X' = ((X'X)^{-1}X')'X' = X(X'X)^{-1}X' = XH = XX^+ \rightarrow XX^+ \text{ is symmetric}$

$$\text{IV. } (X^+X)' = (HX)' = X'H' = X'((X'X)^{-1}X')' = X'(X(X'X)^{-1}) = X'X(X'X)^{-1} = I \text{ (identity is symmetric)} \rightarrow X^+X \text{ is symmetric}$$

As a result, by approving all of the conditions above, it can be inferred that  $X^+ = (X'X)^{-1}X' = H$  meaning that  $H$  the regression's "Hat Matrix" is the Moore-Penrose Pseudo-Inverse of the matrix  $X$ .

**7. Prove that the QR decomposition of a matrix may be found with a series of Householder Transformations. How many floating-point operations (FLOPS) are required (explain)?**

Based on Golub, Gene H., and Charles F. Van Loan book, Matrix Computations [1], QR decomposition defined as a rectangular matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  which can be decomposed into a product of an orthogonal matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and an upper triangular  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  so that  $A = QR$ . In general, there are several ways to perform QR decomposition, and in particular, the Householder QR method will be described here. First, a brief explanation regarding Householder reflections will be presented. Second, I'll describe the QR algorithm using Householder transformations and last, calculations regarding how many floating-point operations (FLOPS) are required during this technique will be presented.

First, since orthogonal matrices serve an important role when dealing with eigenvalues, least squares and other calculations, recall that  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  defined as an orthogonal matrix if  $Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I_m$ . Second, in order to explain what Householder Reflections are and to understand rotations and reflections associated geometry, a demonstration in  $m=2$  level taken from [1] will be given. Note that orthogonal matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  is defined as *rotation* if it has the form:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

In the case of  $y = Q^T x$ ,  $x$  is rotated counterclockwise through angle  $\theta$  which results in  $y$ . Further, Note that orthogonal matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  is defined as a *reflection* if it has the form:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & -\cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

In the case of  $y = Q^T x = Qx$ ,  $x$  is reflected across the line is defined as  $S = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta/2) \\ \sin(\theta/2) \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

which results in  $y$ . Moreover, since both rotations and reflections can be constructed easily and can contain zeros within vectors by choosing the proper angle or the reflection plane, they are computationally attractive.

A *Householder reflection* defined as follows: Let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  be a nonzero vector denoted as the Householder vector, which is usually normalized i.e.  $\|v\| = 1$ , in order to simplify calculation ( $v^T v = 1$ ) and to permit the storage of  $v(2:m)$  where the zeros are introduced in  $x$  meaning *only with rank - 1*.  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is defined as Householder reflection if it has the form  $P = I_m - \beta v v^T$  where  $\beta = \frac{2}{v^T v}$ . In case vector  $x$  is multiplied by the householder matrix  $P$ , it is reflected in the hyperplane  $\text{span}\{v\}^\perp$  as follows:

$$Px = (I_m - \beta vv^T)x = x - \beta vv^T x$$

In addition, note that  $P$  is symmetric and orthogonal, which explained below:

$$P^T = (I_m - \beta vv^T)^T = I_m - \beta vv^T = P \rightarrow P \text{ is symmetric}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P^T P &= PP = (I_m - \beta vv^T)(I_m - \beta vv^T) = I_m - \beta vv^T - \beta vv^T + \beta \beta vv^T vv^T = I_m - 2\beta vv^T + \beta \beta vv^T vv^T = \\ &= I_m - 2 \frac{2}{v^T v} vv^T + \frac{2}{v^T v} \frac{2}{v^T v} vv^T vv^T = I_m - 4vv^T + 4vIv^T P = I_m \text{ (since } ||v|| = 1) = PP^{-1} \\ &\rightarrow P \text{ is orthogonal} \end{aligned}$$

Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m \geq n$ , the Housholder QR algorithm finds Householder matrices  $H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n$  such that in the case of  $Q = H_1 \cdot H_2 \cdots H_n$ , then  $Q^T A = R$  is upper triangular. In addition, note that the upper triangular part of  $A$  is overwritten by the upper triangular part of  $R$  and components  $j + 1:m$  of the  $j$ th Householder vector are stored in  $A(j + 1:m, j), j < m$ .

```

For j = 1:n
    [v, β] = house(A(j:m, j))
    A(j:m, j:n) = (I - βvv^T)A(j:m, j:n)
    if j < m
        A(j + 1:m, j) = v(2:m - j + 1)
    end
end
end

```

Further, as described above, after  $n$  steps, an upper triangular  $R$  is constructed such that  $R = H_n H_{n-1} \cdots H_1 A$  and by setting  $Q = H_1 \cdot H_2 \cdots H_n$ ,  $A = QR$  is obtained. Furthermore, the Housholder QR algorithm requires  $2n^2(m - n/3)$  flops, and since the matrix  $Q = H_1 \cdot H_2 \cdots H_n$  also required, it can be accumulated using  $4(m^2 n - mn^2 + n^3/3)$  flops based on the following accumulation algorithm:

```

Q = I_m(:, 1:k) where 1 ≤ k ≤ m
For j = n:-1:1
    v(j:m) = [1; A(j + 1:m, j)]
    β_j = 2/(1 + ||A(j + 1:m, j)||_2^2)
    Q(j:m, j:k) = Q(j:m, j:k) - (β_j v(j:m))(v(j:m)^T Q(j:m, j:k))
end
end

```

As a result, in order to calculate both  $Q$  and  $R$  matrices, we need approximately  $\frac{4n^3}{3}$  flops.

## **Reference**

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