# **18.335 Midterm Solutions**

# Problem 1: Schur, backsubstitution, complexity (20 points)

You are given matrices A ( $m \times m$ ), B ( $n \times n$ ), and C ( $m \times n$ ), and want to solve for an unknown *matrix* X ( $m \times n$ ) solving:

$$4X - XB = C.$$

We will do this using the Schur decompositions of A and B. (Recall that any square matrix S can be factorized in the Schur form  $S = QUQ^*$  for some unitary matrix Q and some upper-triangular matrix U.)

(a)  $AX - XB = C = Q_A U_A Q_A^* X - X Q_B U_B Q_B^*$ , and hence (multiplying on the left by  $Q_A^*$  and on the right by  $Q_B$ ), we obtain

$$U_A Q_A^* X Q_B - Q_A^* X Q_B U_B = Q_A^* C Q_B,$$

so  $A' = U_A$ ,  $B' = U_B$ ,  $C' = Q_A^* C Q_B$ , and  $X' = Q_A^* X Q_B$ . To get X from X', we obtain  $X = Q_A X' Q_B^*$ .

(b) The last row of A'X' - X'B' = C', since A' is upper-triangular, is:

$$A'_{mm}X'_{m,:} - X'_{m,:}B' = C'_{m,:} = X'_{m,:}(A'_{mm}I - B'),$$

which is only in terms of the last row  $X'_{m,:}$  of X'. To find this last row, then, we merely need to solve the system of equations above—since  $A'_{mn}I - B'$  is upper-triangular, we can do this by backsubstitution in  $O(n^2)$  operations. Or, I guess, technically, this is "forward" substitution because you start with the first column of B' and move right, but whatever—it's the same thing under a permutation. [Although this is a row-vector problem, we can obviously transpose to get the familiar column-vector problem, in which case  $(A'_{mm}I - B')^T$  is lower-triangular.]

(c) More generally, the *j*-th row of A'X' - X'B' = C' can be written purely in terms of the *j*-th and later rows of X', since A' is upper-triangular:

$$A'_{jj}X'_{j,:} + \sum_{i>j} A'_{ji}X'_{i,:} - X'_{j,:}B' = C'_{j,:}$$

and hence

$$X'_{j,:}(A'_{jj}I - B') = C'_{j,:} - \sum_{i>j} A'_{ji}X'_{i,:},$$

which is again an upper-triangular system of equations. It takes 2(m - j)n operations to construct the right-hand side, and  $O(n^2)$  operations to solve by backsubstitution.

(d) We have to solve for *m* rows. Each of them requires an  $O(n^2)$  backsubstitution, for  $O(mn^2)$  operations. There are also  $\approx \sum_{j=1}^{m} 2(m-j)n = O(m^2n)$  flops to compute the right-hand sides. Finally, to compute  $X = Q_A X' Q_B^*$  requires two matrix multiplies, for  $2m^2n + 2mn^2$  flops. So, the total complexity is  $O(m^2n) + O(mn^2)$ , not including the  $O(m^3) + O(n^3)$  time for the Schur factorizations.

## Problem 2: Stability (20 points)

Since it is backwards stable (with respect to *A* and/or *b*), we obtain an  $x + \delta x$  such that  $(A + \delta A)(x + \delta x) = b + \delta b \approx A(x + \delta x) + \delta A x$ , where  $||\delta A|| = O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})||A||$  and  $||\delta b|| = O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})||b||$ . That means that the residual, computed in exact arithmetic, would  $r = b - A(x + \delta x) = A\delta x = \delta A x - \delta b$ . The norm of this is  $\leq ||\delta A x|| + ||\delta b|| \leq ||\delta A|| ||x|| + ||\delta b|| = [||A|| ||x|| + ||b||]O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$ . But  $||x|| = ||A^{-1}b|| \leq ||A^{-1}|| ||b||$ , and so we obtain  $||r|| \leq [\kappa(A) + 1] ||b|| O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$ . However, I didn't specify whether the backwards stability was with respect to *A* or *b*; if you only assumed the latter you wouldn't have gotten the  $\kappa(A)$  term.

This is still not quite right, however, if the residual r itself is computed in floating-point arithmetic. In particular, the computation of b - Ay in floating-point for any y is also backwards stable with respect to y, so in computing  $b - A(x + \delta x)$  we obtain  $b - A(x + \delta x + \delta x')$  where  $||\delta x'|| = ||x||O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}}) \le ||A^{-1}|| ||b||O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$ . Hence, this gives us an additional term  $A\delta x'$  in the residual, which has magnitude  $\le ||A|| ||\delta x'|| \le \kappa(A) ||b||O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$ .

Adding these two sources of error, we obtain a residual whose magnitude proportional to  $\kappa(A) \|b\| O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$ .

# Problem 3: Conjugate gradient (20 points)

(a) CG does not change the component of  $x_n$  in the nullspace (the span of the zero- $\lambda$  eigenvectors).

Proof: If we expand  $x_j = \sum_i \gamma_i^{(j)} q_i$  in the eigenvectors  $q_i$  with some coefficients  $\gamma_i^{(j)}$ , we see immediately that  $Ax_j = \sum_{i>k} \lambda_i \gamma_i^{(j)} q_i$  is in the span of the nonzero- $\lambda$  eigenvectors of A; equivalently, it is perpendicular to the nullspace. Hence, the residual  $r_j = b - Ax_j$  (which we compute by recurrence in the CG algorithm) is also perpendicular to the nullspace. Since all the residuals are perpendicular to the nullspace, and since the directions  $d_j$  are linear combinations of the residuals (via Gram-Schmidt), the directions  $d_j$  are also perpendicular to the nullspace. Hence, when we compute  $x_n = x_{n-1} + \alpha_n d_{n-1}$ , we do not change the components of x in the nullspace, and  $\gamma_i^{(n)} = \gamma_i^{(n-1)}$  for  $i \leq k$ .

- (b) Because CG only changes  $x_n$  in directions perpendicular to the nullspace, it is equivalent to doing CG on the *nonsingular* problem of Ax = b acting within the column space of A. Since  $x_0 = 0$ , it initially has no (nonzero) component in the nullspace and hence  $x_n$  has no component in the nullspace. Hence, if  $b = \sum_{i>k} \beta_i q_i$  for some coefficients  $\beta_i$ , it converges to  $x_n \to \sum_{i>k} \frac{\beta_i}{\lambda_i} q_i$ . The rate of convergence is determined by the square root of the condition number of A within this subspace, i.e. at worst the convergence requires  $O(\sqrt{\lambda_m/\lambda_{k+1}})$  iterations, assuming we have sorted the  $\lambda_j$ 's in increasing order. (Not including possible superlinear convergence depending on the eigenvalue distribution.)
- (c) If we choose the initial guess x<sub>0</sub> ≠ 0, it will still converge, but it may just converge to a different solution—the component of x<sub>0</sub> in the nullspace has no effect on CG at all, and the component in the column space is just a different starting guess for the nonsingular CG in the subspace. That is, since the component ∑<sub>i≤k</sub> γ<sub>i</sub>q<sub>i</sub> of x<sub>0</sub> in the nullspace is not changed by CG, we will get (in the notation above) x<sub>n</sub> → ∑<sub>i≤k</sub> γ<sub>i</sub>q<sub>i</sub> + ∑<sub>i>k</sub> β<sub>i</sub>/<sub>λi</sub>q<sub>i</sub>.
- (d) Just set b = 0 and pick  $x_0$  to be a random vector, and from above it will converge to a vector in the nullspace in  $O(\sqrt{\lambda_m/\lambda_{k+1}})$  iterations at worst.

#### Problem 4: Rayleigh quotients (20 points)

Let the smallest- $\lambda$  eigensolution of *B* be  $B\lambda_1 = \lambda_1 q_1$  where  $q_1^*q_1 = 1$ . Let  $x = \begin{pmatrix} q_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , in which case the Rayleigh quotient is  $r(x) = \lambda_1$  by inspection, and since this is an upper bound for the smallest eigenvalue of *A*, we are done.

# Problem 5: Norms and SVDs (20 points)

If *B* were just a real number *b*, this would be a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ b & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , which has eigenvalues  $1 \pm b$  for eigenvectors  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . We would immediately obtained the desired result since ||B|| = |b| and  $||A||_2$  is the ratio of the maximum to the minimum eigenvalue. Now, we just want to use a similar strategy for the general case where *B* is  $m \times n$ , where from the SVD we can write:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} I & B \\ B^* & I \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I & U\Sigma V^* \\ V\Sigma^T U^* & I \end{pmatrix}.$$

That is, we expect to get  $\pm$  combinations of eigenvectors of *B*.

For simplicity, let's start with the case where *B* is square  $m \times m$ , in which case  $\Sigma = \Sigma^T$  (diagonal) and *U* and *V* are all  $m \times m$ . In this case, consider the vectors corresponding to the columns of  $X_{\pm} = \begin{pmatrix} U \\ \pm V \end{pmatrix}$ . In this case,

$$AX_{\pm} = \begin{pmatrix} I & U\Sigma V^* \\ V\Sigma U^* & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ \pm V \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} U \pm U\Sigma \\ V\Sigma \pm V \end{pmatrix} = X_{\pm}(I \pm \Sigma),$$

Since the matrix at right is diagonal, this means that the columns of  $X_{\pm}$  are eigenvectors of A, with eigenvalues  $1 \pm \sigma_i$  where  $\sigma_i$  are the singular values of B (possibly including some zeros from the diagonal of  $\Sigma$  if B is not full rank). These are, moreover, all of the 2m eigenvalues of A. Since A is Hermitian, eigenvalues are the same thing as the singular values, and hence the maximum singular value of A is  $1 + \max \sigma_i$  and the minimum is  $1 - \max \sigma_i$  (since we are given that  $||B||_2 < 1$  and hence  $\sigma_i < 1$ ), and hence  $\kappa(A) = (1 + \max \sigma_i)/(1 - \max \sigma_i) = (1 + ||B||_2)/(1 - ||B||_2)$ . Q.E.D.

What about the case where *B* is not square? Suppose m > n, in which case *U* is bigger than *V* so it doesn't make sense to write  $X_{\pm}$  as above. However, there is a simple fix. In the definition of  $X_{\pm}$ , just pad *V* with m - n columns of zeros to make an  $n \times m$  matrix  $V_0$ . Then  $V^*V_0$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix plus m - n columns of zeros. Then we get

$$AX_{\pm} = \begin{pmatrix} I & U\Sigma V^* \\ V\Sigma^T U^* & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ \pm V_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} U \pm U\Sigma_0 \\ V\Sigma^T \pm V_0 \end{pmatrix} = X_{\pm}(I \pm \Sigma_0),$$

where  $\Sigma_0$  is  $\Sigma$  padded with m - n columns of zeros to make a diagonal  $m \times m$  matrix, noting that  $V\Sigma^T = V_0\Sigma_0^T = V_0\Sigma_0$ . The result follows as above. If m < n, the analysis is similar except that we pad U with n - m columns of zeros.

# Problem 6: Least-squares problems (20 points)

We want to minimize  $(Ax - b)^*W(Ax - b)$ . The best thing to do is to turn this into a regular least-squares problem by breaking W in "halves" and putting half on the left and half on the right. For example, we can compute the Cholesky factorization  $W = R^*R$ , and then we are minimizing  $(RAx - Rb)^*(RAx - Rb)$ , which is equivalent to solving the least-squares problem for RA and Rb. This we could do, e.g., by computing the QR factorization RA = Q'R', and then solve  $R'x = Q'^*Rb$  by backsubstitution. None of these steps has any particular accuracy problems.

Of course, there are plenty of other ways to do it. You could also compute  $\sqrt{W}$  by diagonalizing  $W = Q\Lambda Q^*$  and then using  $\sqrt{W} = Q\sqrt{\Lambda}Q^*$ . This might be a bit more obvious if you have forgotten about Cholesky. Again solving the least-squares problem with  $\sqrt{W}A$  and  $\sqrt{W}b$ , this works, but is a bit less efficient because eigenproblems take many more operations than Cholesky factorization.

We could also write down the normal equations  $A^*WAx = A^*Wb$ , derived from the gradient of  $(Ax - b)^*W(Ax - b)$  with respect to x. However, solving these directly sacrifices some accuracy because (as usual) it squares the condition number of A.

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