

Grassmannians in Exact Real Computation

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16th May 2019

Definition.

A number $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is computable if there is a computable sequence of rational numbers (A_n) such that $|x - A_n| < 2^{-n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



Exact Real Computation (2/4)

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This construction has a caveat:

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However, this construction also has a merit...

Lemma (F. Brauße, P. Collins, J. Kanig, S. Kim, M. Konečný, G. Lee, N. Müller, E. Neumann, S. Park, N. Preining, M. Ziegler, 2016).

The language of computable numbers is Turing-complete; a function is computable iff it can be expressed in Exact Real Computation. Similarly, the language of functionals is also Turing complete.

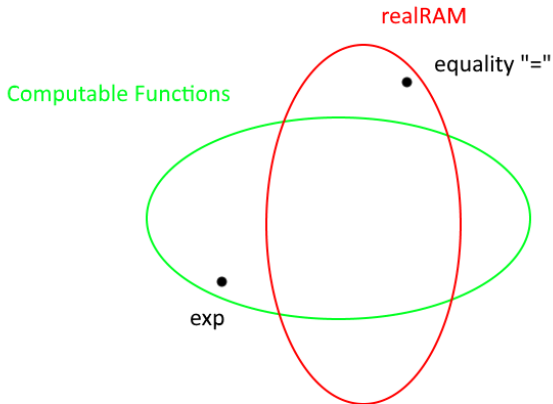
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This differs from other paradigms such as realRAM (BSS machine), which does not have Turing-completeness.

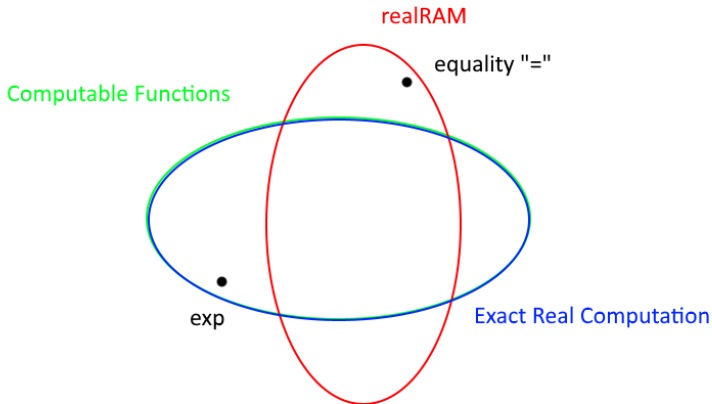
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Since we are interested mainly in \mathbb{R}^n (and in particular in \mathbb{R}^3), we will denote $Gr(k, n)$ to mean $Gr(k, \mathbb{R}^n)$.

Representation of Grassmannian elements (1/2)

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This is not true for higher dimensions - $Gr(2, 4)$ is not projective space!

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- The basis needs to be linearly independent;
- Different bases may represent the same Grassmannian element;
- The size of the basis can change, requiring dynamic memory allocation; as such, the size of the basis will also need to be stored.

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Given a Grassmannian element A , its orthogonal complement is the set $A^\perp = \{x : \forall a \in A, x \perp a\}$.

Specifications

The specification on operations involving two elements (addition, intersection) has a non-triviality:

Lemma.

Testing inequality in Exact Real Computation is equivalent to the Halting problem.

Corollary.

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Testing inequality of two Grassmannian elements is undecidable (though semi-decidable).

Because of this, we must *specify* that the supplied arguments are distinct, and *assert* within the algorithm that they are indeed unequal (though without a fundamental way of doing so).

Algorithms for operations in 3D (1/3)

We observe the following fact.

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Given a line in $Gr(1, 3)$ and a plane in $Gr(2, 3)$, testing whether the line is not contained in the plane is undecidable (though semi-decidable).

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Given the appropriate specifications, the algorithm for addition can be done via case-checking for the dimensions.

Algorithm 1 Minkowski Addition

```
1: procedure ADD( $G_1, G_2$ )
2:   if  $\dim(G_1) > \dim(G_2)$  then
3:     Swap  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ 
4:   if  $\dim(G_2) = 3$  then return  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 
5:   else if  $\dim(G_1) = 0$  then return  $G_2$ 
6:   Assert  $G_1 \not\subseteq G_2$ 
7:   if  $\dim(G_1) = 2$  then return  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 
8:   else if  $\dim(G_2) = 1$  then return  $G_1 \cup G_2$  (as bases)
9:   else return  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 
```

▷ G_1 is a line, G_2 a plane

Algorithms for operations in 3D (2/3)

Similarly, we can devise an algorithm for the intersection of two Grassmannian elements.

Algorithm 3 Intersection

```
procedure INTERSECT( $G_1, G_2$ )
  if  $\dim(G_1) > \dim(G_2)$  then
3:   Swap  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ 
  if  $\dim(G_2) = 3$  then return  $G_1$ 
  else if  $\dim(G_1) = 0$  then return  $\emptyset$ 
6:   Assert  $G_1 \not\subseteq G_2$ 
  if  $\dim(G_1) = 2$  then return  $G_1 \cap G_2$  (as bases)
  else if  $\dim(G_2) = 1$  then return  $\emptyset$ 
9:   else return  $\emptyset$  ▷  $G_1$  is a line,  $G_2$  a plane
```

For orthogonal complements, the outer product and Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization procedure handle most of the work...

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For example, consider lines $L_1, L_2 \in Gr(1, 3)$.

Calling $ADD(L_1, L_2, k = 2)$ indicates that the addition will yield a plane;

Calling $ADD(L_1, L_2, k = 1)$ indicates that the addition will yield a line.

This eliminates case-checking but requires general computations with bases!

Remaining Questions

- How do we specify the data type for bases of Grassmannian elements?

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- What about the “projection” operation?

Definition.

Given a Grassmannian element S and a vector x , the projection of x onto S is the vector $y \in S$ such that $x - y$ is orthogonal to y .

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- Any challenges when implementing in iRRAM?

Thank you!