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# Numerical Linear Algebra Homework 1

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**1.3.** Generalizing Example 1.3, we say that a square or rectangular matrix  $R$  with entries  $r_{ij}$  is *upper-triangular* if  $r_{ij} = 0$  for  $i > j$ . By considering what space is spanned by the first  $n$  columns of  $R$  and using (1.8), show that if  $R$  is a nonsingular  $m \times m$  upper-triangular matrix, then  $R^{-1}$  is also upper-triangular. (The analogous result also holds for lower-triangular matrices.)

$$e_j = \sum_{i=1}^m z_{ij} a_i. \quad (1.8)$$

$$(\Rightarrow) \quad \vec{e}_j = A \vec{z}_j, \quad Z = A^{-1}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} e_1 & \cdots & e_m \end{array} \right] = I = AZ = AA^{-1}$$

$$\text{Here: } A = R = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Let  $Z = R^{-1}$ . We want to prove that  $Z$  is upper triangular.

Let  $\vec{z}_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$  be the columns of  $Z$ .

Since  $R$  is rectangular  $\Rightarrow \det R = \prod_{i=1}^n r_{ii}$

$\Rightarrow$  all  $r_{ii}$   $1 \leq i \leq n$  are non-zero, otherwise  $Z$  would not exist.

$$\Rightarrow \vec{e}_1 = r_{11} \vec{z}_1 \Rightarrow \vec{z}_1 = r_{11}^{-1} \vec{e}_1 \quad (1)$$

$$z_{ic} = 0, \quad i > 1$$

$$z_{1k} \neq 0, \quad i = 1$$

We can continue with induction from here:

$$\vec{e}_{i+1} = \sum_{j=1}^n \vec{z}_j r_{j,i+1} = \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} \vec{z}_j r_{j,i+1}$$

Because  $r_{j,i+1} = 0$  for  $j > i+1$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^i \vec{z}_j r_{j,i+1} + \vec{z}_{i+1} r_{i+1,i+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{z}_{i+1} = \vec{r}_{(i+1)(i+1)}^{-1} \left( \vec{e}_{i+1} - \sum_{j=1}^i \vec{z}_j r_{j,i+1} \right)$$

$\vec{e}_{i+1,k} = \delta_{i+1,k}$

$(1) \Rightarrow \vec{z}_{jk} = 0$   
 for  $k > j$   
 $\vec{z}_{jk} \neq 0$   
 for  $k \leq j$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{z}_{i+1,k} = 0 \text{ for } k > i+1$$

$$\neq 0 \text{ for } k \leq i+1$$

□



**1.4.** Let  $f_1, \dots, f_8$  be a set of functions defined on the interval  $[1, 8]$  with the property that for any numbers  $d_1, \dots, d_8$ , there exists a set of coefficients  $c_1, \dots, c_8$  such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^8 c_j f_j(i) = d_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, 8.$$

(a) Show by appealing to the theorems of this lecture that  $d_1, \dots, d_8$  determine  $c_1, \dots, c_8$  uniquely.

(b) Let  $A$  be the  $8 \times 8$  matrix representing the linear mapping from data  $d_1, \dots, d_8$  to coefficients  $c_1, \dots, c_8$ . What is the  $i, j$  entry of  $A^{-1}$ ?

It's not clearly stated, but I think it's mentioned somewhere in the book that the default field is  $\mathbb{C}$ , so:

$$f_i : [1, 8] \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad i = 1, \dots, 8$$

Let  $F \in \mathbb{C}^{8 \times 8}$  be the matrix

$$\text{with } F_{ij} = f_j(i)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^8 c_j f_j(i) = d_i \Leftrightarrow F \vec{c} = \vec{d}$$

$$\text{with } \vec{c}, \vec{d} \in \mathbb{C}^8$$

a) We know that  $\vec{c}$  exist for any  $\vec{d}$ .  
Therefore  $\text{range}(F) = \mathbb{C}^8$ .

$\Leftrightarrow$  which means  $F^{-1}$  exists (Theorem 1.3)

Therefore  $\vec{c} = F^{-1} \vec{d}$  is unique.  $\square$

Being strict:  $\text{range}(F) = \mathbb{C}^8 \Leftrightarrow \vec{d}$  is unique.

b)

$$A\vec{d} = \vec{c} \quad \text{for any } c \in \mathbb{C}^8$$

$$\Rightarrow A\vec{d} = A \underbrace{F\vec{c}}_{\vec{d} \text{ by definition}} = \vec{c} \Rightarrow A = F^{-1}$$

Since  $A^{-1} = F$  :  $A^{-1}_{ij} = F_{ij} = f_j(i)$

**2.1.** Show that if a matrix  $A$  is both triangular and unitary, then it is diagonal.

**2.2.** The Pythagorean theorem asserts that for a set of  $n$  orthogonal vectors  $\{x_i\}$ ,

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i\|^2.$$

(a) Prove this in the case  $n = 2$  by an explicit computation of  $\|x_1 + x_2\|^2$ .

(b) Show that this computation also establishes the general case, by induction.


**2.3.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be hermitian. An eigenvector of  $A$  is a nonzero vector  $x \in \mathbb{C}^m$  such that  $Ax = \lambda x$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ , the corresponding eigenvalue.

(a) Prove that all eigenvalues of  $A$  are real.

(b) Prove that if  $x$  and  $y$  are eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues, then  $x$  and  $y$  are orthogonal.

2.1 If  $A$  is upper triangular, then  $A^{-1}$  is also upper triangular.  
(Proof given by 1.3)

If  $A$  is lower triangular, then  $A^{-1}$  is also lower triangular  
(Proof analogous to 1.3)


$\Rightarrow$  Since  $A$  is unitary it  must be diagonal. □

2.2 a) For  $n=2$ :  $x_i \in \mathbb{C}^m$

$$\sum_{i=1}^2 \|\vec{x}_i\|^2 = \|\vec{x}_1\|^2 + \|\vec{x}_2\|^2$$

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^2 \vec{x}_i \right\|^2 = \|\vec{x}_1 + \vec{x}_2\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m (x_{1,i} + x_{2,i})^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m (x_{1,i}^2 + x_{2,i}^2) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^m x_{1,i} x_{2,i} = \|\vec{x}_1\|^2 + \|\vec{x}_2\|^2 + 2x_1^* x_2$$

$= 0$  because orthogonal set 

$$\rightarrow = \sum_{i=1}^2 \|\vec{x}_i\|^2 \quad \square$$

b)

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \vec{x}_i \right\|^2 = \left\| \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \vec{x}_i}_{:= \vec{a}} + \vec{x}_{n+1} \right\|^2$$

$\vec{a}$  is a sum of vectors all perpendicular to  $\vec{x}_{n+1} \Rightarrow \vec{a}$  is perpendicular to  $\vec{x}_{n+1} : \vec{a}^* \vec{x}_{n+1} = 0$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (\vec{a}_i^* + x_{n+1,i}) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_{n+1,i} = \|\vec{a}\|^2 + \|\vec{x}_{n+1}\|^2 + 2 \vec{a}^* \vec{x}_{n+1}$$

$$= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{x}_i \right\|^2 + \|\vec{x}_{n+1}\|^2$$

Induction step assuming  $\left\| \sum_{i=1}^j \vec{x}_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^j \|\vec{x}_i\|^2$  for  $1 \leq j \leq n$

$$\stackrel{!}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\vec{x}_i\|^2 + \|\vec{x}_{n+1}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \|\vec{x}_i\|^2 \quad \square$$

**2.3.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be hermitian. An eigenvector of  $A$  is a nonzero vector  $x \in \mathbb{C}^m$  such that  $Ax = \lambda x$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ , the corresponding eigenvalue.

(a) Prove that all eigenvalues of  $A$  are real.

(b) Prove that if  $x$  and  $y$  are eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues, then  $x$  and  $y$  are orthogonal.

a) That's a good one. Quantum Mechanics would have a serious problem if that wasn't true!

$A$  is hermitian

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda \|\vec{x}\|^2 &= \lambda \vec{x}^* \vec{x} = \vec{x}^* (\lambda x) = \vec{x}^* A \vec{x} \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} \vec{x}^* A^* \vec{x} = (A \vec{x})^* \vec{x} \\ &= \lambda^* \vec{x}^* \vec{x} = \lambda^* \|\vec{x}\|^2\end{aligned}$$

$\vec{x}$  is an eigenvector  $\Rightarrow \|\vec{x}\|^2 \neq 0$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^* = \lambda$$

$\Leftrightarrow \lambda$  is real  $\square$

b)

Let's say  $A \vec{x}_i = \lambda_i \vec{x}_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$

Then for  $i \neq j$ :

$A^* = A$

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_j \vec{x}_i^* \vec{x}_j &= \vec{x}_i^* (A \vec{x}_j) = (\vec{x}_i^* A) \vec{x}_j \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} (\vec{x}_i^* A^*) \vec{x}_j \\ &= (A \vec{x}_i)^* \vec{x}_j = (\lambda_i \vec{x}_i)^* \vec{x}_j \stackrel{a)}{=} \lambda_i \vec{x}_i^* \vec{x}_j\end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $\vec{x}_i^* \vec{x}_j = 0$  because  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$  for  $i \neq j$

$\square$



**2.5.** Let  $S \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  be skew-hermitian, i.e.,  $S^* = -S$ .

(a) Show by using Exercise 2.1 that the eigenvalues of  $S$  are pure imaginary. 2.3

(b) Show that  $I - S$  is nonsingular. not 2.1

(c) Show that the matrix  $Q = (I - S)^{-1}(I + S)$ , known as the Cayley transform of  $S$ , is unitary. (This is a matrix analogue of a linear fractional transformation  $(1 + s)/(1 - s)$ , which maps the left half of the complex  $s$ -plane conformally onto the unit disk.)

a)  $S^* = -S = i^2 S \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{i} S^* = i S \Leftrightarrow (i S)^* = i S$

$\Rightarrow i S$  is hermitian

2.3  $\Rightarrow i S$  has only real eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$   
 $\Rightarrow$  all eigenvalues  $i \lambda_i$  of  $i S$  are pure imaginary  $\square$

b) If  $I - S$  is non-singular, then  
 $\text{null}(I - S) = \{\vec{0}\}$

So  $(I - S)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$  can only be true for  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ .

Prove that  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ :

$$(I - S)\vec{x} = \vec{0} \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} = S\vec{x}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow S\vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}, \lambda = 1$$

We know from a) that  $\lambda = 1$  is not possible  $\Rightarrow \vec{x} = \vec{0} \square$

Alternative without using a)

$$\vec{x}^* \vec{x} = (S\vec{x})^* \vec{x} = \vec{x}^* S^* \vec{x} \stackrel{S^* = -S}{=} -\vec{x}^* S \vec{x} = -\vec{x}^* \vec{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{x} = \vec{0} \square$$

(c) Show that the matrix  $Q = (I - S)^{-1}(I + S)$ , known as the *Cayley transform* of  $S$ , is unitary. (This is a matrix analogue of a linear fractional transformation  $(1 + s)/(1 - s)$ , which maps the left half of the complex  $s$ -plane conformally onto the unit disk.)

$$c) \quad Q^* = (I + S)^* \left( (I - S)^{-1} \right)^*$$

non-singular  $\Rightarrow \left( (I - S)^{-1} \right)^* = \left( (I - S)^* \right)^{-1}$

$$= (I + S)^* \left( (I - S)^* \right)^{-1}$$

notation used in text book

$$\Rightarrow Q^* Q = (I + S)^* (I - S)^{-*} \cdot (I - S)^{-1} (I + S)$$

$$= (I + S^*) \left( (I - S) (I - S)^* \right)^{-1} (I + S)$$

$s^* = -s$

$$= (I - S) \left( (I - S) (I + S) \right)^{-1} (I + S)$$

$$= (I - S) (I - S^2)^{-1} (I + S) \cdot \underbrace{(I - S) (I - S)^{-1}}_{= I}$$

$= (I - S^2)$

$= I$

$$= (I - S) (I - S)^{-1} = I \quad \square$$

**2.6.** If  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  are  $m$ -vectors, the matrix  $A = I + \vec{u}\vec{v}^*$  is known as a rank-one perturbation of the identity. <sup>a)</sup> Show that if  $A$  is nonsingular, then its inverse has the form  $A^{-1} = I + \alpha \vec{u}\vec{v}^*$  for some scalar  $\alpha$ , and give an expression for  $\alpha$ .

b) For what  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  is  $A$  singular? If it is singular, what is  $\text{null}(A)$ ?

a) If  $A$  is non-singular, then  $A^{-1}$  exists and vice versa. So we only have to show that  $AA^{-1} = I$

$$AA^{-1} = (I + \vec{u}\vec{v}^*)(I + \alpha \vec{u}\vec{v}^*) = I + \vec{u}\vec{v}^* + \alpha \vec{u}\vec{v}^* + \underbrace{\alpha \vec{u}\vec{v}^* \vec{u}\vec{v}^*}_{\text{scalar}}$$

guess:  $\alpha = -\frac{1}{1 + \vec{v}^* \vec{u}}$

$$\Rightarrow AA^{-1} = I + \vec{u}\vec{v}^* - \frac{\vec{u}\vec{v}^*}{1 + \vec{v}^* \vec{u}} - \frac{\vec{u}\vec{v}^* \cdot \vec{v}^* \vec{u}}{1 + \vec{v}^* \vec{u}}$$

$$= I + \vec{u}\vec{v}^* - \frac{\vec{u}\vec{v}^* (I + \vec{v}^* \vec{u})}{1 + \vec{v}^* \vec{u}} = I \quad \square$$

b) Again we use  $A$  non singular  $\Leftrightarrow \text{null } A = \{\vec{0}\}$

So if  $A$  is singular, there must exist at least one  $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$  such that

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{x} + \vec{u}\vec{v}^* \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{x} = - \underbrace{\vec{v}^* \vec{x}}_{\text{scalar}} \vec{u} \quad \text{so far / proper bra-ket notation, it's so much easier to see this...}$$

$$|\vec{x}\rangle = -\langle \vec{v} | \vec{x} \rangle |\vec{u}\rangle$$

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That means:  $\vec{x} = \beta \vec{u}$  ,  $\beta \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$

$$\Rightarrow A\vec{x} = \beta \vec{u} + \vec{u}(\vec{v}^* \beta \vec{u}) = \beta \vec{u}(1 + \vec{v}^* \vec{u}) = \vec{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v}^* \vec{u} = -1 \Rightarrow A \text{ is singular } \square$$

In that case:

$$\text{null}(A) = \{ \beta \vec{u} \mid \beta \in \mathbb{C} \}$$