

1. Using Descartes' rule of signs, determine the number of real roots (both positive and negative) of the polynomials  $p_6(x) = x^6 - x - 1$  and  $p_4(x) = x^4 - x^3 - x^2 + x - 1$ .

**Solution:**

- For  $p_6(x) = x^6 - x - 1$ : ignoring zeros, the sign pattern of coefficients is  $+, -, -,$  so there is 1 sign change. Hence  $p_6$  has exactly 1 positive real root. For negative roots, consider  $p_6(-x) = x^6 + x - 1$  whose nonzero signs are  $+, +, -,$  giving 1 sign change, so  $p_6$  has exactly 1 negative real root (both counts are with multiplicity).
- For  $p_4(x) = x^4 - x^3 - x^2 + x - 1$ : signs  $+, -, -, +, -$  yield 3 sign changes, so the number of positive real roots is 3 or 1. Actually, it is 1. For negative roots,  $p_4(-x) = x^4 + x^3 - x^2 - x - 1$  has signs  $+, +, -, -, -$  with 1 sign change, so there is exactly 1 negative real root (counting multiplicity).

2. Define an iteration formula by

$$x_{n+1} = z_{n+1} - \frac{f(z_{n+1})}{f'(x_n)}, \quad z_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}.$$

Show that the order of convergence of  $\{x_n\}$  to  $\alpha$  is at least 3 .

Hint: Introduce the following two functions:

$$g(x) = h(x) - \frac{f(h(x))}{f'(x)}, \quad h(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$$

and take the required number of derivatives of  $g$  and use an appropriate theorem proved in class.

*Proof.* Let  $f \in C^3$  near a simple root  $\alpha$ , i.e.  $f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $f'(\alpha) \neq 0$ . Define

$$h(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}, \quad g(x) = h(x) - \frac{f(h(x))}{f'(x)}.$$

Then the iteration is  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$ . We will show  $g(\alpha) = \alpha$ ,  $g'(\alpha) = g''(\alpha) = 0$  (and generically  $g^{(3)}(\alpha) \neq 0$ ), so by the stated theorem the order is at least 3.

Set

$$A = f'(\alpha), \quad B = f''(\alpha), \quad C = f^{(3)}(\alpha), \quad e = x - \alpha.$$

Using Taylor expansions about  $\alpha$ ,

$$f(x) = Ae + \frac{B}{2}e^2 + \frac{C}{6}e^3 + O(e^4), \quad f'(x) = A + Be + \frac{C}{2}e^2 + O(e^3).$$

A straightforward series division gives

$$\frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} = e - \frac{B}{2A}e^2 + \left( -\frac{C}{3A} + \frac{B^2}{2A^2} \right)e^3 + O(e^4).$$

Hence the Newton map satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} h(x) &= x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} \\ &= \alpha + \frac{B}{2A}e^2 + \left( \frac{C}{3A} - \frac{B^2}{2A^2} \right)e^3 + O(e^4), \end{aligned}$$

so

$$h(x) - \alpha = c_2 e^2 + c_3 e^3 + O(e^4), \quad c_2 = \frac{B}{2A}, \quad c_3 = \frac{C}{3A} - \frac{B^2}{2A^2}.$$

Next, expand  $f(h(x))$  and divide by  $f'(x)$ :

$$f(h(x)) = A(h(x) - \alpha) + \frac{B}{2}(h(x) - \alpha)^2 + O(e^5) = A(c_2 e^2 + c_3 e^3) + O(e^4),$$

and

$$\frac{f(h(x))}{f'(x)} = \frac{A(c_2 e^2 + c_3 e^3)}{A + Be + \frac{C}{2}e^2 + O(e^3)} = c_2 e^2 + \left( c_3 - \frac{B}{A}c_2 \right)e^3 + O(e^4).$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) - \alpha &= (h(x) - \alpha) - \frac{f(h(x))}{f'(x)} \\ &= \frac{B}{A}c_2 e^3 + O(e^4) = \frac{B^2}{2A^2}e^3 + O(e^4). \end{aligned}$$

This implies

$$g(\alpha) = \alpha, \quad g'(\alpha) = g''(\alpha) = 0, \quad g^{(3)}(\alpha) = 3! \cdot \frac{B^2}{2A^2} = \frac{3B^2}{A^2} \quad (B \neq 0).$$

By the supplied fixed-point theorem, the iteration  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$  has order at least 3 (and exactly 3 if  $f''(\alpha) \neq 0$ ; if  $f''(\alpha) = 0$  the order is higher).  $\square$

3. There is another modification of Newton's method, similar to the secant method, but using a different approximation of the derivative  $f'(\xi_n)$ . Define

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{D(x_n)}, \quad D(x_n) = \frac{f(x_n + f(x_n)) - f(x_n)}{f(x_n)}.$$

This one-point method is called Steffenson's method. Assuming  $f'(\alpha) \neq 0$ , show that this is a second-order method.

Hint: Write the iteration as  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$ . Use  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)h(x)$  with  $h(\alpha) \neq 0$ , and then compute the formula for  $g(x)$  in terms of  $h(x)$ . Having done so, take the required number of derivatives of  $g$  and use an appropriate theorem proved in class.

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha$  be a simple root of  $f$ , so  $f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $f'(\alpha) \neq 0$ . Write

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha)h(x), \quad h \in C^2 \text{ near } \alpha, \quad h(\alpha) =: h_0 \neq 0.$$

Define the Steffensen iteration  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$  with

$$g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{D(x)}, \quad D(x) = \frac{f(x + f(x)) - f(x)}{f(x)}.$$

First express  $g$  in terms of  $h$ . Using  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)h(x)$ ,

$$f(x + f(x)) = ((x - \alpha) + f(x)) h(x + f(x)) = (x - \alpha)(1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)).$$

Hence

$$D(x) = \frac{(x - \alpha)(1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)) - (x - \alpha)h(x)}{(x - \alpha)h(x)} = \frac{(1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)) - h(x)}{h(x)}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{f(x)}{D(x)} = \frac{(x - \alpha)h(x)}{\frac{(1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)) - h(x)}{h(x)}} = (x - \alpha) \frac{h(x)^2}{(1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)) - h(x)}.$$

It follows that

$$g(x) - \alpha = (x - \alpha) \left[ 1 - \frac{h(x)^2}{(1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)) - h(x)} \right].$$

Set

$$Q(x) := 1 - \frac{N(x)}{M(x)}, \quad N(x) := h(x)^2, \quad M(x) := (1 + h(x))h(x + f(x)) - h(x),$$

so that  $g(x) - \alpha = (x - \alpha)Q(x)$ .

**Step 1:**  $g'(\alpha) = 0$ . Since  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , we have  $x + f(x) \rightarrow \alpha$  as  $x \rightarrow \alpha$ , hence

$$N(\alpha) = h_0^2, \quad M(\alpha) = (1 + h_0)h_0 - h_0 = h_0^2,$$

and thus  $Q(\alpha) = 1 - \frac{N(\alpha)}{M(\alpha)} = 0$ . Consequently,

$$g'(\alpha) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \alpha} \frac{g(x) - \alpha}{x - \alpha} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \alpha} Q(x) = Q(\alpha) = 0.$$

**Step 2:**  $g''(\alpha) = 2 \frac{h'(\alpha)}{h(\alpha)} (1 + h(\alpha))$ . Since  $g(x) - \alpha = (x - \alpha)Q(x)$ , we have  $g'(\alpha) = Q(\alpha) = 0$  and  $g''(\alpha) = 2Q'(\alpha)$ . Differentiate

$$Q(x) = 1 - \frac{N(x)}{M(x)} \Rightarrow Q'(x) = -\frac{N'(x)M(x) - N(x)M'(x)}{M(x)^2}.$$

Let  $h_1 := h'(\alpha)$ . Then  $N'(x) = 2h(x)h'(x)$ , so  $N'(\alpha) = 2h_0h_1$ . For  $M$ ,

$$M'(x) = h'(x)h(x + f(x)) + (1 + h(x))h'(x + f(x))(1 + f'(x)) - h'(x),$$

and since  $f'(x) = h(x) + (x - \alpha)h'(x)$ , we have  $f'(\alpha) = h_0$ . Passing to the limit  $x \rightarrow \alpha$  gives

$$M'(\alpha) = h_1 h_0 + (1 + h_0)h_1(1 + h_0) - h_1 = h_1(3h_0 + h_0^2).$$

Using  $N(\alpha) = M(\alpha) = h_0^2$ , we obtain

$$Q'(\alpha) = -\frac{(2h_0h_1)h_0^2 - h_0^2h_1(3h_0 + h_0^2)}{h_0^4} = \frac{h_1(1 + h_0)}{h_0}.$$

Therefore

$$g''(\alpha) = 2Q'(\alpha) = 2 \frac{h'(\alpha)}{h(\alpha)} (1 + h(\alpha)).$$

**Conclusion.** We have  $g \in C^2$  near  $\alpha$ ,  $g(\alpha) = \alpha$ ,  $g'(\alpha) = 0$ , and generically  $g''(\alpha) \neq 0$ . By the stated theorem (if  $g^{(k)}(\alpha) = 0$  for  $1 \leq k \leq p$  and  $g^{(p+1)}(\alpha) \neq 0$ , then the fixed-point iteration  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$  has order  $p + 1$ ), the iteration  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$  is of order 2. Hence Steffensen's method is (at least) second order.  $\square$

4. (a) Show that an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of an orthogonal matrix satisfies  $|\lambda| = 1$
- (b) Show that  $R_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$  is orthogonal. Find the eigenvalues of  $R_\theta$ .
- (c) A permutation matrix is a matrix whose elements are either 0 or 1, such that every row and column has precisely one nonzero element. Show that a permutation matrix is orthogonal. Give an example of a  $4 \times 4$  permutation matrix whose eigenvalues are  $\pm 1, \pm i$ .

**Solution:**

- (a) Let  $Q$  be orthogonal, so  $Q^T Q = I$ . If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue with eigenvector  $v \neq 0$ , then  $Qv = \lambda v$ . Taking conjugate transpose,  $v^* Q^T = \bar{\lambda} v^*$ . Hence

$$\bar{\lambda} \lambda v^* v = v^* Q^T Q v = v^* v.$$

Since  $v^* v = \|v\|_2^2 > 0$ , we get  $|\lambda|^2 = 1$ , i.e.,  $|\lambda| = 1$ .

- (b) Compute  $R_\theta^T R_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I$ , so  $R_\theta$  is orthogonal. And

$$\det(R_\theta - \lambda I) = (\cos \theta - \lambda)^2 + \sin^2 \theta = \lambda^2 - 2 \cos \theta \lambda + 1.$$

$$\text{Solving, } \lambda = \frac{2 \cos \theta \pm \sqrt{4 \cos^2 \theta - 4}}{2} = \cos \theta \pm i \sin \theta = e^{\pm i\theta}.$$

- (c) Let  $P$  be a permutation matrix. Each row has exactly one 1 (say in column  $\sigma(i)$ ), so row  $i$  is  $e_{\sigma(i)}^T$ , where  $e_j$  is the  $j$ -th standard basis vector. Then  $(P^T P)_{jk} = \sum_i p_{ij} p_{ik}$ . Since each row has only one 1, this sum equals 1 if  $j = k$  (that column's single 1) and 0 otherwise. Hence  $P^T P = I$ , so  $P$  is orthogonal.

For an example with eigenvalues  $\pm 1, \pm i$ , take the  $4 \times 4$  permutation matrix corresponding to the cyclic permutation  $(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4)$ :

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Its characteristic polynomial is  $\det(\lambda I - P) = \lambda^4 - 1$ , with roots  $\lambda = \pm 1, \pm i$ .

5. For each of the following matrices, determine whether it is normal, diagonalizable. For those which are diagonalizable, find the e-values and e-vectors.

- (a)  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ : normal (real symmetric); diagonalizable over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Eigenvalues 3, 1 with eigenvectors e.g.  $v_3 = (1, -1)^T$ ,  $v_1 = (1, 1)^T$ .
- (b)  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ : not normal; not diagonalizable. Single eigenvalue 2 (alg. mult. 2, geom. mult. 1); eigenspace  $\ker(A - 2I) = \{(0, y)^T\}$ , e.g.  $v = (0, 1)^T$ .
- (c)  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ : normal; diagonalizable over  $\mathbb{C}$  (not over  $\mathbb{R}$ ). Eigenvalues  $2 \pm i$  with eigenvectors  $v_{2+i} = (1, i)^T$ ,  $v_{2-i} = (1, -i)^T$ .
- (d)  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ : not normal; diagonalizable over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Eigenvalues 1, -1 with eigenvectors  $v_1 = (1, 0)^T$ ,  $v_{-1} = (1, 2)^T$ .

6. Prove the following assertions.

- (a)  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$  for any vector  $\mathbf{x}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$ . Since  $\|x\|_2^2 = \sum_i |x_i|^2 \geq \max_i |x_i|^2 = \|x\|_\infty^2$ , we get  $\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_2$ . Moreover,

$$\|x\|_2^2 = \sum_i |x_i|^2 \leq \left( \sum_i |x_i| \right)^2 = \|x\|_1^2,$$

hence  $\|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1$ . □

- (b) Given a vector norm  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ , the formula  $\|A\| = \sup_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}$  defines a matrix norm.

*Proof.* (i) Nonnegativity and definiteness: the ratio is  $\geq 0$ , so  $\|A\| \geq 0$ . If  $\|A\| = 0$ , then for every  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\|Ax\|/\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 0$ , hence  $Ax = 0$  for all  $x$ , so  $A = 0$ . (ii) Homogeneity:  $\|\alpha A\| = \sup_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|\alpha Ax\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} = |\alpha| \sup_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} = |\alpha| \|A\|$ . (iii) Triangle inequality:  $\|A + B\| = \sup_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|(A + B)x\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \sup_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\| + \|Bx\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$ . (iv) Submultiplicativity: for any  $y \neq 0$ , by the definition of  $\|A\|$  we have  $\|Ay\| \leq \|A\| \|y\|$ . Hence for any  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\frac{\|ABx\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \|A\| \frac{\|Bx\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \|A\| \|B\|$ . Taking supremum over  $x \neq 0$  gives  $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$ . Therefore this formula defines a matrix norm. (v) Consistency: for any  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\|Ax\|/\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|A\|$  by definition, so  $\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|\mathbf{x}\|$ . □

- (c)  $\|A\|_\infty = \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\|A\|_\infty := \sup_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_\infty}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty}$  with  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max_j |x_j|$ . For any  $x$ ,

$$\|Ax\|_\infty = \max_i \left| \sum_j a_{ij} x_j \right| \leq \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}| |x_j| \leq \left( \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}| \right) \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty,$$

hence  $\|A\|_\infty \leq \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|$ .

Then we only need to show

$$\frac{\|Ax\|_\infty}{\|x\|_\infty} \geq \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|, \quad \text{for some } x \neq 0.$$

Choose  $\hat{x}$  s.t.

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & a_{i^*j} \geq 0 \\ -1, & a_{i^*j} < 0 \end{cases}$$

Then  $\|\hat{x}\|_\infty = 1$ , we only need to show:

$$\|A\hat{x}\|_\infty \geq \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|.$$

Fix a row  $i^*$ , s.t.  $i^* \in \arg \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|$ . Then,

$$\|Ax\|_\infty \geq |(Ax)_{i^*}| = \left| \sum_j a_{i^*j} x_j \right| = \sum_j |a_{i^*j}| = \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|.$$

□