

**A FIRST COURSE**  
**IN**  
**NUMERICAL ANALYSIS**



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**NUMERICAL ANALYSIS**  
**MAT4001 Notebook**

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**Prof. Yutian Li**

*The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shenzhen*



香港中文大學(深圳)

The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shenzhen



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# Notations and Conventions

$\mathbb{R}^n$	$n$ -dimensional real space
$\mathbb{C}^n$	$n$ -dimensional complex space
$\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$	set of all $m \times n$ real-valued matrices
$\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$	set of all $m \times n$ complex-valued matrices
$x_i$	$i$ th entry of column vector $\mathbf{x}$
$a_{ij}$	$(i, j)$ th entry of matrix $\mathbf{A}$
$\mathbf{a}_i$	$i$ th column of matrix $\mathbf{A}$
$\mathbf{a}_i^T$	$i$ th row of matrix $\mathbf{A}$
$\mathbb{S}^n$	set of all $n \times n$ real symmetric matrices, i.e., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all $i, j$
$\mathbb{H}^n$	set of all $n \times n$ complex Hermitian matrices, i.e., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $\bar{a}_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all $i, j$
$\mathbf{A}^T$	transpose of $\mathbf{A}$ , i.e, $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^T$ means $b_{ji} = a_{ij}$ for all $i, j$
$\mathbf{A}^H$	Hermitian transpose of $\mathbf{A}$ , i.e, $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^H$ means $b_{ji} = \bar{a}_{ij}$ for all $i, j$
$\text{trace}(\mathbf{A})$	sum of diagonal entries of square matrix $\mathbf{A}$
$\mathbf{1}$	A vector with all 1 entries
$\mathbf{0}$	either a vector of all zeros, or a matrix of all zeros
$\mathbf{e}_i$	a unit vector with the nonzero element at the $i$ th entry
$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$	the column space of $\mathbf{A}$
$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$	the row space of $\mathbf{A}$
$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$	the null space of $\mathbf{A}$
$\text{Proj}_{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{A})$	the projection of $\mathbf{A}$ onto the set $\mathcal{M}$



# Chapter 1

## Week1

### 1.1. Wednesday

#### 1.1.1. Introduction to Imaginary System

**Definition 1.1** [Complex Number] A complex number  $z$  is a pair of real numbers:

$$z = (x, y),$$

where  $x$  is the **real** part and  $y$  is the **imaginary part** of  $z$ , denoted as

$$\operatorname{Re} z = x \quad \operatorname{Im} z = y$$

**R** Note that the complex multiplication does not correspond to any standard vector operation. However,  $(\mathbb{C}, +)$  and  $(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$  forms a field:

$$(z_1 + z_2) + z_3 = z_1 + (z_2 + z_3)$$

$$z_1 + z_2 = z_2 + z_1$$

$$z + 0 = 0 + z = z$$

$$z + (-z) = (-z) + z = 0$$

There is no other Euclidean space that can form a field.

**Proposition 1.1**  $zz' = 0$  if and only if  $z = 0$  or  $z' = 0$ .

*Proof.* Rewrite the product as a linear system

$$\begin{pmatrix} x & -y \\ y & x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and discuss the determinant of the coefficient matrix. ■

**Solving quadratic equation with one unknown.** We can apply the imaginary number to solve the quadratic equations. For example, to solve  $z^2 - 2z + 2 = 0$ , the first method is to substitute  $z$  with  $x + iy$ ; the second method is to simplify it into standard form to solve it.

**Definition 1.2** If  $z \neq 0$ , then  $z^{-1}$  is the complex number satisfying  $z \cdot z^{-1} = 1$ . ■

Suppose  $z = (x, y)$  and  $z^{-1} = (u, v)$ . After simplification, we derive

$$\begin{cases} xu - yv = 1 \\ xv + yu = 0 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} u = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \\ v = \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 1.3** [Division] The division between complex numbers is defined as:

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = z_1 \cdot z_2^{-1}, \text{ when } z_2 \neq 0$$

■ **Example 1.1**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{3-4i}{1+i} &= (3-4i) \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}i \right) = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{7}{2}i \\ \frac{10}{(1+i)(2+i)(3+i)} &= \frac{10}{(1+3i)(3+i)} = \frac{10}{10i} = \frac{1}{i} = -i \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.4** [Complex Conjugate] The complex number  $x - iy$  is called the **complex conjugate** of  $z = x + iy$ , which is denoted by  $\bar{z}$ . ■

The following properties hold for complex conjugate:

$$\overline{z_1 \pm z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \pm \bar{z}_2, \quad \overline{z_1 z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \bar{z}_2, \quad \overline{\frac{z_1}{z_2}} = \frac{\bar{z}_1}{\bar{z}_2}$$

$$\operatorname{Re} z = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \quad \operatorname{Im} z = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$$

### 1.1.2. Algebraic and geometric properties

**Definition 1.5** [Algebraic Region]

1. The complex plane: the  $z$ -plane, i.e.,  $\mathbb{C}$
2. Vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :  $(x, y) = x + iy = z \in \mathbb{C}$
3. Modulus of  $z$ :

$$|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{distance to the origin}$$

Note that

$$|z| = 0 \iff z = 0, \quad |z_1 - z_2| = 0 \iff z_1 = z_2$$

**Definition 1.6** [Circle in plane] A circle with center  $z_0$  and radius  $R$  is defined as follows in  $\mathbb{C}$ :

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| = R\}$$

**Proposition 1.2** Complex roots of polynomials with real coefficients appear in conjugate pairs.

*Proof.* Given  $P(z_0) = 0$ , we derive

$$P(z_0) = \overline{P(z_0)} = 0.$$

■

Note that a polynomial with real coefficients of degree 3 must have at least one real root.

**Conjugate Product.** Note that the conjugate product leads to the square of modulus:

$$z \cdot \bar{z} = |z|^2 \iff (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 + y^2$$

Such a property can be used to simplify quotient of two complex numbers:

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{z_1 \bar{z}_2}{|z_2|^2} = \frac{x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2 + (y_1 x_2 - x_1 y_2)i}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

■ **Example 1.2**

$$\frac{-1 + 3i}{2 - i} = \frac{(-1 + 3i)(2 + i)}{(2 - i)(2 + i)} = \frac{-5 + 5i}{5} = -1 + i$$

$$|z_1 + z_2|^2 + |z_1 - z_2|^2 = 2(|z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2)$$

■

We can use conjugate to show the **triangle inequality**:

**Proposition 1.3 — Triangle Inequality.**  $|z_1 + z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
|z_1 + z_2|^2 &= (z_1 + z_2)\overline{(z_1 + z_2)} \\
&= |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 + z_1\bar{z}_2 + \overline{z_1z_2} \\
&= |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(z_1\bar{z}_2) \\
&\leq |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 + 2|z_1\bar{z}_2| \\
&= |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 + 2|z_1z_2| = (|z_1| + |z_2|)^2.
\end{aligned}$$

■

**Corollary 1.1**     1.  $||z_1| - |z_2|| \leq |z_1 \pm z_2|$ .  
 2. If  $|z| \leq 1$ , then  $|z^2 + z + 1| \leq 3$

*Proof.*     1. Note that

$$|z_1| = |z_1 \pm z_2 \mp z_2| \leq |z_1 \pm z_2| + |z_2| \implies |z_1| - |z_2| \leq |z_1 \pm z_2|$$

Similarly,  $|z_2| - |z_1| \leq |z_1 \pm z_2|$ .

2.

$$|z^2 + z + 1| \leq |z^2| + |z + 1| \leq |z|^2 + |z| + 1 \leq 1 + 1 + 1 = 3.$$

■

**Proposition 1.4** — **Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.** If  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  and  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  are complex numbers, then

$$\left[ \sum_{k=1}^n z_k w_k \right]^2 \leq \left[ \sum_{k=1}^n |z_k|^2 \right] \left[ \sum_{k=1}^n |w_k|^2 \right]$$

### 1.1.3. Polar and exponential forms

**Definition 1.7** [Polar Form] The polar form of a nonzero complex number  $z$  is:

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

where  $(r, \theta)$  is the polar coordinates of  $(x, y)$ .

$$(r, \theta) \implies (x, y) : \begin{cases} x = r \cos \theta \\ y = r \sin \theta \end{cases}$$

$$(x, y) \implies (r, \theta) : \begin{cases} r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\theta$  is said to be the **argument** of  $z$ , i.e.,  $\theta = \arg z$ . The argument is not unique, i.e.,

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = r(\cos(\theta + 2\pi) + i \sin(\theta + 2\pi))$$

If given an argument of  $z$ , then we form the set of arguments of  $z$ :

$$\{\theta + 2n\pi \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

**Definition 1.8** [Principal Value] The principal value of  $\arg z$ , denoted by  $\text{Arg} z$ , is the unique value of  $\arg z$  such that  $-\pi < \arg z \leq \pi$


- **Example 1.3**
1.  $\text{Arg} z = \pi$  implies  $z = r(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi) = -r < 0$ , which is a negative real number.
  2.  $\text{Arg} z = 0$  implies  $z = r(\cos 0 + i \sin 0) = r > 0$  which is a positive real number.
  3.  $\text{Arg} z = -\frac{\pi}{2}$  implies  $z = r(\cos(-\frac{\pi}{2}) + i \sin(-\frac{\pi}{2})) = -ri$
  4.  $\text{Arg} z = \frac{\pi}{2}$  implies  $z = ri$
  5. Particularly,  $\pm i = \cos(\pm \frac{\pi}{2}) + i \sin(\pm \frac{\pi}{2})$



**Product in polar form.** Given  $z_i = r_i(\cos\theta_i + i\sin\theta_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , we can compute its product:

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 z_2 &= r_1 r_2 (\cos\theta_1 \cos\theta_2 - \sin\theta_1 \sin\theta_2 + i(\sin\theta_1 \cos\theta_2 + \cos\theta_1 \sin\theta_2)) \\ &= r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)) \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg z_1 + \arg z_2$ .

 Note that  $\text{Arg}(z_1 z_2) \neq \text{Arg} z_1 + \text{Arg} z_2$ . ( $\text{Arg}(z_1 z_2)$  should be restricted to be within the interval  $(-\pi, \pi]$ )

**Inverse in Polar form.** Given  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$ , we aim to find the inverse such that  $z z^{-1} = 1$ . Hence,  $z^{-1} = \frac{1}{r}(\cos(-\theta) + i\sin(-\theta))$ .

If we obtain the inverse, we can compute the division  $\frac{z_1}{z_2}$ :

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = r_1(\cos\theta_1 + i\sin\theta_1) \frac{1}{r_2}(\cos(-\theta_2) + i\sin(-\theta_2)) = \frac{r_1}{r_2}(\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2))$$

Thus,  $\arg \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \arg z_1 - \arg z_2$ .

**Euler Identity.** The Euler Identity is given by:

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i\sin x$$

The proof requires Taylor's expansion.

**Exponential Form.** The exponential form of  $z$  in polar form is given by:

$$z = r e^{i\theta}$$

Then it is convenient to define product, inverse, and division:

$$\begin{aligned}(r_1 e^{i\theta_1}) \cdot (r_2 e^{i\theta_2}) &= r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)} \\ \frac{1}{r e^{i\theta}} &= \frac{1}{r} e^{i(-\theta)} \\ \frac{r_1 e^{i\theta_1}}{r_2 e^{i\theta_2}} &= \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}\end{aligned}$$

**Nonuniqueness.**  $z = r e^{i\theta} = r e^{i(\theta + 2n\pi)}$

**Equality.** Two complex numbers are equal means that:

$$r_1 e^{i\theta_1} = r_2 e^{i\theta_2} \iff \begin{cases} r_1 = r_2 \\ \theta_1 = \theta_2 + 2k\pi, k \in \mathbb{Z} \end{cases}$$

**Circle.** The circle centered at the origin with radius  $R$  can be described as:

$$|z| = R \iff z = R e^{i\theta}, \quad 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$$

The circle centered at  $z_0$  with radius  $R$  can be described as:

$$|z - z_0| = R \iff z = z_0 + R e^{i\theta}, \quad 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$$

**Neighborhood.** The  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of the point  $z_0$  is given by:

$$|z - z_0| < \epsilon$$

If delete the center, it is given by:

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \epsilon$$

## 1.2. Powers and Roots

**Powers.** The powers of  $z = re^{i\theta}$  is given by:

$$z^n = r^n e^{in\theta}$$

$$z^{-n} = r^{-n} e^{i(-n)\theta}$$

Thus we derive the **De Moivre's Formula**:

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = (e^{i\theta})^n = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta.$$

It is useful for computing powers that contains complex number. For example,

$$(1 + i)^n = (\sqrt{2}e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}})^n = 2^{n/2} e^{i\frac{n\pi}{4}}$$

### Proposition 1.5

$$\sin(n\theta) = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n}{2k+1} (-1)^k \cos^{n-2k-1} \theta \sin^{2k+1} \theta,$$

where  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  denotes the largest integer that not exceeds  $x$ .

**Solving high order equations.** The powers of complex can also be used to solve high order equations.

■ **Example 1.4** To solve the equation  $z^n = 1$ , we express  $z = re^{i\theta}$ . It follows that

$$(re^{i\theta})^n = 1e^{i0} \implies \begin{cases} r^n = 1 \\ n\theta = 2k\pi \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} r = 1 \\ \theta = \frac{2k\pi}{n} \end{cases}$$

Thus, the distinct  $n$ -th roots (of unity) are given by:

$$\exp(i\frac{2k\pi}{n}) = \cos \frac{2k\pi}{n} + i \sin \frac{2k\pi}{n}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

If we denote  $w_n = \exp(i\frac{2\pi}{n})$ , we derive the roots:

$$1, w_n, w_n^2, \dots, w_n^{n-1}.$$

**Roots of high order equations.** Suppose  $z_0 = r_0 e^{i\theta_0}$ , we aim to solve  $z^n = z_0$ :

$$r^n e^{in\theta} = r_0 e^{i\theta_0} \implies \begin{cases} r = r_0^{1/n} \\ \theta = \frac{\theta_0 + 2k\pi}{n} \end{cases}$$

Thus the distinct  $n$ th roots are given by:

$$r_0^{1/n} \exp(i\frac{\theta_0 + 2k\pi}{n}), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

If  $c$  is any particular  $n$ -th roots of  $z_0$ , then

$$(cw)^n = z_0 \implies c^n w^n = z_0 \implies w_n = 1.$$

Hence, the distinct  $n$ -th roots of  $z_0$  are

$$c, cw_n, cw_n^2, \dots, cw_n^{n-1}$$



- There are  $n$  of the  $n$ -th roots of a complex number, all the roots are equally spaced about a circle that is centered at origin with radius  $|z_0|^{1/n}$ .
- Let  $z_0^{1/n}$  denote the set of all  $n$ -th roots of  $z_0$ . If  $\theta_0 = \text{Arg} z_0$ , then

$$c_0 = r_0^{1/n} \exp(i\frac{\theta_0}{n})$$

is called the principal  $n$ -th root of  $z_0$ .

- The distinct  $n$ -th roots of  $z_0$  are:

$$c_0, c_0 w_n, c_0 w_n^2, \dots, c_0 w_n^{n-1},$$

or equivalently,

$$z_0^{1/n} = r_0^{1/n} \exp(i \frac{\theta_0 + 2k\pi}{n})$$

■ **Example 1.5** For  $z_0 = -8i$ , we write  $z_0 = 8e^{i(-\pi/2)}$ . It follows that

$$z_0^{1/3} = 2 \exp(i \frac{-\pi/2 + 2k\pi}{3}) = 2 \exp(-\frac{\pi}{6}i), 2 \exp(\frac{\pi}{2}i), 2 \exp(\frac{7\pi}{6}i)$$

