

2) In conjugate gradient method, we successively find

$$t_k = \frac{\langle r^{(k-1)}, r^{(k-1)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(k)}, Av^{(k)} \rangle}$$

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} + t_k v^{(k)}$$

$$r^{(k)} = r^{(k-1)} - t_k A v^{(k)}$$

$$\beta_k = \frac{\langle r^{(k)}, r^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle r^{(k-1)}, r^{(k-1)} \rangle}$$

$$v^{(k+1)} = r^{(k)} + \beta_k v^{(k)}$$

starting with  $r^{(0)} = b - Ax^{(0)}$   
and  $v^{(1)} = r^{(0)}$

a)  $v^{(1)} = r^{(0)} = b - Ax^{(0)}$  and  $r^{(1)} = r^{(0)} - t_1 A v^{(1)} =$   
 $= r^{(0)} - \frac{\langle r^{(0)}, r^{(0)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(1)}, A v^{(1)} \rangle} \cdot A v^{(1)} = r^{(0)} - \frac{\langle v^{(1)}, v^{(1)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(1)}, A v^{(1)} \rangle} A v^{(1)}$

This gives  $\langle r^{(1)}, v^{(1)} \rangle = \langle v^{(1)}, r^{(1)} \rangle =$

$$= \langle v^{(1)}, r^{(0)} - \frac{\langle v^{(1)}, v^{(1)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(1)}, A v^{(1)} \rangle} A v^{(1)} \rangle = \langle v^{(1)}, r^{(0)} \rangle -$$

$$- \frac{\langle r^{(0)}, r^{(0)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(1)}, A v^{(1)} \rangle} \cdot \langle v^{(1)}, A v^{(1)} \rangle = \langle v^{(1)}, r^{(0)} \rangle -$$

$$- \langle r^{(0)}, r^{(0)} \rangle = 0 \text{ since } v^{(1)} = r^{(0)}$$

We know that  $v^{(1)} = r^{(0)} \Rightarrow$  Hence,  $\boxed{\langle r^{(1)}, v^{(1)} \rangle = 0}$

b) Let's assume that  $\langle r^{(k)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = 0$  for each  $k \leq p$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k \Rightarrow \langle r^{(p+1)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = \langle r^{(p)} - \frac{\langle r^{(p)}, r^{(p)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(p+1)}, A v^{(p+1)} \rangle} A v^{(p+1)}, v^{(j)} \rangle$

$$= \left\langle r^{(p)} - \frac{\langle r^{(p)}, r^{(p)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(p+1)}, A v^{(p+1)} \rangle} \cdot A v^{(p+1)}, v^{(j)} \right\rangle =$$

$$= \langle r^{(p)}, v^{(j)} \rangle - \frac{\langle r^{(p)}, r^{(p)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(p+1)}, A v^{(p+1)} \rangle} \cdot \langle A v^{(p+1)}, v^{(j)} \rangle$$

Since  $\langle v^{(i)}, A v^{(j)} \rangle = 0$  if  $i \neq j$  for  $A$ -orthogonal set of vectors and  $\langle r^{(p)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = 0$  from definition for each  $k \leq p$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k \Rightarrow$  we find that

$$\langle r^{(p+1)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = 0 - \frac{\langle r^{(p)}, r^{(p)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(p+1)}, A v^{(p+1)} \rangle} \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\langle r^{(p+1)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = 0} \quad \forall$$

c) Now,  $\langle r^{(p+1)}, v^{(p+1)} \rangle = \langle r^{(p)} - \frac{\langle r^{(p)}, r^{(p)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(p+1)}, A v^{(p+1)} \rangle} A v^{(p+1)}, v^{(p+1)} \rangle$

$$= \left\langle r^{(p)} - \frac{\langle r^{(p)}, r^{(p)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(p+1)}, A v^{(p+1)} \rangle} \cdot A v^{(p+1)}, v^{(p+1)} \right\rangle$$



$$\langle r^{(P+1)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle - \frac{\langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle \cdot \langle Av^{(P+1)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(P+1)}, Av^{(P+1)} \rangle}$$

$$= \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle - \frac{\langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle \cdot \langle v^{(P+1)}, Av^{(P+1)} \rangle}{\langle v^{(P+1)}, Av^{(P+1)} \rangle}$$

$$= \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle - \langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} - r^{(P)} \rangle$$

Since  $v^{(P+1)} = r^{(P)} + g_P v^{(P)} \Rightarrow v^{(P+1)} - r^{(P)} = g_P v^{(P)}$

and  $\langle r^{(P+1)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, g_P \cdot v^{(P)} \rangle$  or just

$$\langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} + g_P v^{(P)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle$$

$$+ g_P \cdot \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle \text{ since we know}$$

$\langle r^{(k)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = 0$  was true for each  $k \leq P, j = 1, 2, \dots, k$

In particular,  $\langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P)} \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle =$

$\langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle$  and  $\langle r^{(P+1)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle = \langle r^{(P)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle$

$-\langle r^{(P)}, r^{(P)} \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\langle r^{(P+1)}, v^{(P+1)} \rangle = 0} \forall$

Hence, from the Mathematical Induction, we get  $\langle r^{(k)}, v^{(j)} \rangle = 0$  for each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$   $\square \checkmark$



1) Q) From Theorem 5 in Section 7.2, we know that if  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\Rightarrow \rho(A) \leq \|A\|$  for any natural norm  $\|\cdot\| \Rightarrow$  since  $\rho(A) = \max |\lambda|$  where  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A \Rightarrow$  for  $\forall \lambda$ -eigenvalue of  $A$ ,

$$|\lambda| \leq \rho(A) \leq \|A\|$$

$\forall \lambda$ -eigenvalue of  $A \Rightarrow 0 \leq |\lambda| \leq \|A\|$  for any natural

norm  $\|\cdot\|$  Since we know that if  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\det A = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$ , where  $\lambda_i$ -eigenvalues of  $A$

(proof is based on the consideration of  $\rho(0)$ ) We can imply  $\rho(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$

$A$ -singular  $\Leftrightarrow \lambda=0$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$

As  $\|\cdot\|$  is any natural norm, then  $\|\cdot\|$  is semi-multiplicative; that is,  $\|A^T A\| \leq \|A^T\| \cdot \|A\|$

$A$ -nonsingular  $\Rightarrow A^T A$  is also nonsingular (consider  $A^T A x = 0$ ; here,  $Ax$ -an element in the range of  $A$ , is in the null space of  $A^T$ . However, null space of  $A^T$  and the range of  $A$  are orthogonal complements, so  $Ax = 0 \checkmark$ ) (since  $A^T A$ -square matrix  $\Rightarrow A^T A$  is invertible)



$A^T A$  is also symmetric ( $B = A^T A \Rightarrow B^T = (A^T A)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A = B$ ) Thus,  $A^T A \rightarrow$  symmetric, nonsingular

Considering  $A^T A$  to be positive semidefinite, we know for any conforming  $V$ , it follows that  $V^T A^T A V = |AV|^2 \geq 0 \Rightarrow$  thus, the eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  are all non-negative (we can actually prove this directly

by looking at  $A^T A V = \lambda V \Rightarrow 0 \leq |AV|^2 = \lambda |V|^2$ )

If  $A^T A$  has an eigenvalue equal to zero, then its determinant will be zero (rule mentioned in previous page)

or  $A^T A$  will be singular; however, this is impossible  $\boxtimes$

All eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  are positive  $\boxtimes$

$\lambda$ -eigenvalue of  $A^T A \Rightarrow 0 < \lambda$   $\boxtimes$  Since we proved in the previous page that

$\forall \lambda$ -eigenvalue of  $A^T A \Rightarrow |\lambda| \leq \|A^T A\|$  for any norm  $\|\cdot\|$

Then,  $\lambda > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda \leq \|A^T A\| \leq \|A^T\| \cdot \|A\|$  becomes true

Hence,  $\lambda$ -eigenvalue of  $A^T A \Rightarrow 0 < \lambda \leq \|A^T\| \cdot \|A\|$   $\boxtimes$

(Note: There exist  $x$  such that  $A^T A x = \lambda x$  and  $\|x\| = 1$   
 $0 < \lambda = \| \lambda x \| = \| A^T A x \| \leq \| A^T A \| \cdot \| x \| = \| A^T A \| \leq \| A^T \| \cdot \| A \|$ )



C) For  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , we know  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho(A^T A)}$  and for any natural norm  $\|\cdot\| \Rightarrow \rho(A) \leq \|A\|$  for each  $m \times m$  matrix  $A$

Then,  $\rho(A^T A) \leq \|A^T A\| \leq \|A^T\| \cdot \|A\|$  (as discussed earlier)

$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho(A^T A)} \leq \sqrt{\|A^T\| \cdot \|A\|}$  Since we mentioned  $\rho(A) \leq \|A\|$  for any natural norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , then we could get  $\rho(A^T A) \leq \|A^T A\|_\infty \leq \|A^T\|_\infty \cdot \|A\|_\infty$  since we know  $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|B\|$  for any natural matrix norm

Thus,  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho(A^T A)} \leq \sqrt{\|A^T\|_\infty \cdot \|A\|_\infty}$

Claim:  $\|A^T\|_\infty = \|A\|_1$

Pf: From definition,  $\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}|$  where

$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}|$  means

we just look at the sums of absolute values of elements in each column and take largest

Moreover, from Theorem 4 at 7.2  $\Rightarrow$  If  $A = (a_{ij})$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\|A\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$



Simply put,  $\|A\|_\infty$  tells us to look at the sums of absolute values of elements in each row and take the biggest value.

From these definitions, we can easily observe that

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \|A^T\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq q \leq n} \sum_{p=1}^n |a_{pq}|$$

However, this is indeed the exact definition of  $\|A\|_1 \rightarrow \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}|$  where

$$A = (a_{ij}) \text{ is } n \times n \text{ matrix} \Rightarrow \text{So, } \boxed{\|A^T\|_\infty = \|A\|_1} \text{ is true}$$

for any  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  ✓

$$\|A\|_2 \leq \sqrt{\|A^T\|_\infty \cdot \|A\|_\infty} = \sqrt{\|A\|_1 \cdot \|A\|_\infty}$$

Since  $A$ -nonsingular,  $A^{-1}$  exist and doing the exact same application for  $A^{-1}$  yields ( $\|A\|_2 > 0, \|A^{-1}\|_2 > 0$ )

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 \leq \sqrt{\|A^{-1}\|_1 \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_\infty} \quad \text{Multiplying the last 2 inequalities (since LHS are all } > 0 \text{)}$$

$$0 \leq \|A\|_2 \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_2 = K_2(A) \leq \sqrt{(\|A\|_1 \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_1)(\|A\|_\infty \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_\infty)}$$

$$= \sqrt{K_1(A) \cdot K_\infty(A)} \quad \text{Hence, } \boxed{K_2(A) \leq \sqrt{K_1(A) K_\infty(A)}} \quad \square$$



b) Considering the eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  of  $A$ , we know that  $\rho(A) = \max |\lambda_j|$  from the definition. From the statement.

Take the set of eigenvalues of matrix  $A^T A$ , where  $\lambda_1$ -smallest,  $\lambda_n$ -largest (set of eigenvalues is  $\{\lambda_i\}$ )

From part a), we proved  $\lambda_i > 0$  and since  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho(A^T A)}$  where  $\rho(A^T A)$  is equal to the  $\max |\lambda_i|$   $\Rightarrow$  since  $\lambda_i > 0$ , it is sufficient to mention  $\lambda_i$ -eigenvalue of  $A^T A$  ( $\lambda_1$ -smallest,  $\lambda_n$ -max)

$\max \lambda_i = \lambda_n$  from the statement given above  $\lambda_i$ -eigenvalue of  $A^T A$

So,  $\rho(A^T A) = \lambda_n$  and  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_n}$  Note that we can easily see

$A^T A$  and  $A A^T$  have the same eigenvalues Considering that the

given matrix  $A$  is nonsingular, it means  $A^{-1}$  exists and

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho((A^{-1})^T \cdot A^{-1})} = \sqrt{\rho((A^T)^{-1} \cdot A^{-1})} =$$

$= \sqrt{\rho((A A^T)^{-1})}$  where we used the fact that if square matrix  $A$  is invertible  $\Rightarrow (A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$  and the relation  $(A B)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$  for invertible matrices  $A, B$



$A$ -nonsingular  $\Rightarrow A^T$ -invertible  $\checkmark$  and  $\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho([AA^T]^{-1})}$

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \sqrt{\rho([AA^T]^{-1})}$$

From the general rule,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &\text{-eigenvalue of } B \Rightarrow \\ \frac{1}{\lambda} &\text{-eigenvalue of } B^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$AA^T \rightarrow$  eigenvalues are exactly same with those of  $A^T A$  and  $(AA^T)^{-1} \rightarrow$  eigenvalues of this matrix will be the collection  $\left\{ \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \right\}$  where  $\frac{1}{\lambda_1}$  - largest of them (all  $\lambda_i$ 's are positive) and  $\frac{1}{\lambda_n}$  - smallest of them. Thus,  $\rho([AA^T]^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\lambda_1}$

with  $\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}}$   $\star$  Therefore,  $K_2(A) = \|A\|_2 \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_2$

$$= \sqrt{\lambda_n} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}} = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1}}$$

In conclusion,  $K_2(A) = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1}}$   $\star$   $\boxed{\vee}$   $\oplus$