# Iterative 1

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ROBEM I Let  $A_1 = B^{-1}C$  and  $A_2 = CB$  where C is a Hermitian matrix and B is a Hermitian Positive Definite matrix.

- 1. Are  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  Hermitian in general?
- 2. Show that  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are Hermitian (self-adjoint) with respect to the B-inner product.
- SOUTHON. 1. No, in fact  $A_1, A_2$  are Hermitian  $\iff BC = CB$ .
  - "  $\Longrightarrow$  ": Since  $A_1, A_2$  are Hermitian, we can obtain  $A_1^H = (B^{-1}C)^H = C^H(B^{-1})^H = C^H(B^H)^{-1} = B^{-1}C = A_1$ ,  $A_2^H = (CB)^H = B^HC^H = CB = A_2$ . Besides, since B, C are Hermitian, we get  $B^H = B, C^H = C$ . Thus,  $A_1^H = C^H(B^H)^{-1} = CB^{-1} = B^{-1}C, A_2^H = BC = CB$ .
  - "  $\Leftarrow$  ":According to the statement above, we can get  $A_1^H = CB^{-1}, A_2^H = CB$ . Since BC = CB, we can get  $CB^{-1} = B^{-1}C$ . Thus,  $A_1^H = CB^{-1} = B^{-1}C = A_1, A_2^H = BC = CB$ .
  - 2. First, we need to prove B-inner product is well-defined. We define B-inner product as below. Let  $\langle x,y\rangle:=y^HBx, \forall x,y\in\mathbb{C}^n$ , where  $B,C\in\mathbb{C}^n$ .
    - $\forall x_1, x_2, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\langle \lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2, y \rangle = y^H B(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2) = \lambda_1 y^H B x_1 + \lambda_2 y^H B x_2 = \lambda_1 \langle x_1, y \rangle + \lambda_2 \langle x_2, y \rangle$ .
    - $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n, \langle y, x \rangle = x^H B y = (y^T B^T \overline{x})^T = \overline{(y^H B^H x)^T} = \overline{y^H B^H x} = \overline{y^H B x} = \overline{\langle x, y \rangle}, \text{ since } B \text{ is Hermitian.}$
    - $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n \setminus \{0\}, \langle x, x \rangle = x^H B x > 0$ , since B is Positive Definite.

Next, we will prove  $A_1, A_2$  are self-adjoint under B-inner product.

- $A_1$  is self-adjoint:  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\langle A_1 x, y \rangle = y^H B A_1 x = y^H B (B^{-1}C) x = y^H C x$ .  $\langle x, A_1 y \rangle = (A_1 y)^H B x = y^H A_1^H B x = y^H C B^{-1} B x = y^H C x$ . Thus,  $\langle A_1 x, y \rangle = \langle x, A_1 y \rangle$ .
- $A_2$  is self-adjoint:  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n, \langle A_2 x, y \rangle = y^H B A_2 x = y^H B (CB) x$ .  $\langle x, A_2 y \rangle = (A_2 y)^H B x = y^H A_2^H B x = y^H B C B x$ . Thus,  $\langle A_2 x, y \rangle = \langle x, A_2 y \rangle$ .

Lemma 1. If a normal matrix is triangular, then it is a diagonal matrix.

## ROBEM II

- 1. Let a matrix A be such that  $A^H = p(A)$ , where p is a polynomial. Show that A is normal.
- 2. Given a diagonal complex matrix D, show that there exists a polynomial of degree < n such that  $\overline{D} = p(D)$ .
- 3. Use 2 to show that a normal matrix satisfies  $A^H = p(A)$  for a certain polynomial of p of degree < n.
- 4. As an application, use 3 to provide an alternative proof of lemma 1.
- SOUTION. 1. Let matrix A satisfy  $A^H = p(A)$ , where  $p(x) := \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i, a_i \in \mathbb{C}, 0 \le i \le n$ . Then  $p(A) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i A^i$ . So  $A^H A = (\sum_{i=0}^n a_i A^i) A = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i A^{i+1} = A(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i A^i) = Ap(A) = AA^H$ .
  - 2. Assume  $D = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n), \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}, 1 \leq i \leq n$ . First, we need to prove  $\forall f$  is a polynomial,  $f(D) = \operatorname{diag}(f(\lambda_1), \dots, f(\lambda_n))$ . Assuming  $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, a_i \in \mathbb{C}, 0 \leq i \leq m$ , we get  $f(D) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i D^i = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1^i, \dots, \lambda_n^i) = \sum_{i=0}^m \operatorname{diag}(a_i \lambda_1^i, \dots, a_i \lambda_n^i) = \operatorname{diag}(\sum_{i=0}^m a_i \lambda_1^i, \dots, \sum_{i=0}^m a_i \lambda_n^i) = \operatorname{diag}(f(\lambda_1), \dots, f(\lambda_n))$ .

Next, since  $\overline{D} = \operatorname{diag}(\overline{\lambda_1}, \dots, \overline{\lambda_n})$  and we need to find a polynomial p(x) with degree < n satisfying  $\overline{D} = \operatorname{diag}(\overline{\lambda_1}, \dots, \overline{\lambda_n}) = \operatorname{diag}(p(\lambda_1), \dots, p(\lambda_n))$ , we can turn to find a polynomial p(x) satisfying  $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $\overline{\lambda_i} = p(\lambda_i)$  with degree < n. By Lagrange interpolation method, let

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{\lambda_i} \prod_{1 \le i \le n, i \ne i} \frac{x - \lambda_j}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} =: \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{\lambda_i} L_i(x).$$

Since  $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $L_i(\lambda_i) = \prod_{1 \leq j \leq n, i \neq j} \frac{\lambda_i - \lambda_j}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} = 1$ ,  $\forall k \neq i, 1 \leq k \leq n$ ,

$$L_{i}(\lambda_{k}) = \prod_{1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i} \frac{\lambda_{k} - \lambda_{j}}{\lambda_{i} - \lambda_{j}}$$

$$= \prod_{1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i, k} \left(\frac{\lambda_{k} - \lambda_{j}}{\lambda_{i} - \lambda_{j}}\right) \frac{\lambda_{k} - \lambda_{k}}{\lambda_{i} - \lambda_{j}}$$

$$= 0$$

we can get  $p(\lambda_i) = \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{\lambda_k} L_k(\lambda_i) = \sum_{1 \le k \le n, k \ne i} \overline{\lambda_k} L_k(\lambda_i) + \overline{\lambda_i} L_i(\lambda_i) = \overline{\lambda_i}$ . Besides, since  $\forall 1 \le i \le n$ ,  $\deg(L_i(x)) \le n-1$ , we can know that  $\deg(p(x)) = \max\{\deg(L_i(x)) : 1 \le i \le n\} \le n-1 < n$ . Therefore, p(x) is what we want.

3. First, for preparation, we will prove the lemma below:

Lemma 2. V is an n-dimension linear space on  $\mathbb{C}$ , A is a linear operator on V, then  $\exists v \in V \setminus \{0\}, ||v|| = 1, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  satisfying  $Av = \lambda v$ .

证明. Let p(x) = |A - xI|, then  $p(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ , deg p = n. Since  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed, we can get  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $p(\lambda) = 0$ . Thus, the linear function  $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$  has nonzero solution w. Let  $v := \frac{w}{\|w\|}$ , then  $0 = (A - \lambda I)w = (A - \lambda I)(\|w\|v)$ . Therefore,  $Av = \lambda v$ .

Next, we will prove A is an n-dimension normal matrix, then  $\exists U$  such that  $U^HU=I$  and  $U^HAU=\Lambda$ , where  $\Lambda$  is diagonal. According to lemma 2,  $\exists v_1, \lambda_1$  satisfies  $||v_1||=1, Av_1=\lambda_1v_1$ . Consider  $W_1:=span\{v_1\}, V_1:=\{x\in\mathbb{C}^n:\langle x,v\rangle=0, \forall v\in W_1\}$ . Then  $\dim V_1=n-1$ . Since A is normal,  $AA^H=A^HA$ , we can get  $AA^Hv_1=A^HAv_1=\lambda_1A^Hv_1$ . Thus,  $A^Hv_1\in W_1$ . Otherwise,  $A^Hv_1=kv_1+w$ ,  $k\in\mathbb{C}, w\in V_1\setminus\{0\}$ . Then  $A(A^Hv_1)=A(kv_1+w)=\lambda_1(kv_1)+Aw=\lambda_1(kv_1+w)$ . So  $Aw=\lambda_1w$ . That means  $w\in W_1$ . Then  $\langle w,w\rangle=0$ , contradiction. So  $\forall v\in V_1, \langle Av,v_1\rangle=\langle v,A^Hv_1\rangle=0$ . Thus,  $Av\in V_1$ . Let  $A_1:=A|_{V_1}:V_1\to V_1$  is a linear operator. By lemma 2, we can obtain  $v_2\in V_1$  is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue  $\lambda_2$ . We can repeat the process until  $\dim V_n=0$ , which means A has n different unit eigenvectors orthogonal to each other, noted as  $\{v_1,\cdots,v_n\}$ . Let  $U=(v_1,\cdots,v_n)$ , then  $U^HU=I$ ,  $U^HAU=\mathrm{diag}(\lambda_1,\cdots,\lambda_n)=:D$ .

Finally, let p(x) taken in the same way when solving 2, so  $\deg p \leq n-1 < n$ . Then we will prove  $A^H = p(A)$ . So by 2, we can get  $\overline{U^HAU} = \overline{D} = p(D) = p(U^HAU)$ . Since  $U^HU = UU^H = I$ , we can get that  $p(U^HAU) = U^Hp(A)U$ . Besides,  $\overline{U^HAU} = (U^T\overline{AU})^T = U^HA^HU$ . Thus,  $U^HA^HU = U^Hp(A)U$ . Therefore,  $A^H = p(A)$ .

4. Let A be normal and triangular. Without loss of generality, we can assume A is upper triangular. By 3, we can get  $\exists p$  is a polynomial such that  $A^H = p(A)$ . Since p(A) is upper triangular,  $A^H$  is lower triangular, we can know  $A^H$  is diagonal. Therefore, A is diagonal.

ROBEM III Let A be an M-matrix and u, v are two nonnegative vectors such that  $v^T A^{-1} u < 1$ . Show that  $A - uv^T$  is an M-matrix.

SOUTION. Actually, we can re-definite M-matrix. First, we will prove A is M-matrix  $\iff$   $a_{ij} \leq 0, i \neq j, i, j = 1, \cdots, n$  and  $A^{-1} \geq 0$ . "  $\implies$  ": Obviously true. Only need to prove "  $\iff$  ": Since  $A^{-1}$  exists, we can get A is nonsigular. Since  $A^{-1}A = I$ , we can get  $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n, \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{ki} = 1$ , where  $A = (a_{ij}), A^{-1} = (b_{ij})$ . Since  $a_{ik} \leq 0, k \neq i, b_{ik} \geq 0, k \neq i$ , we can obtain that  $a_{ik}b_{ik} \leq 0, k \neq i$ . Thus, we can get  $\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{ik} = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n, k \neq i} a_{ik}b_{ik} + a_{ii}b_{ii} = 1$ , so  $1 - \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n, k \neq i} a_{ik}b_{ik} = a_{ii}b_{ii} \geq 1$ . Since  $b_{ii} \geq 0$  and  $a_{ii}b_{ii} \geq 1$ , we can get  $b_{ii} > 0$  and  $a_{ii} > 0$ . Next, we will prove  $(A - u^T)^{-1} = A^{-1} + \frac{A^{-1}uv^TA^{-1}}{1 - v^TA^{-1}u}$ . Since  $A - uv^T = A(I - A^{-1}uv^T)$ , we can

consider the inverse of  $I - A^{-1}uv^T$  first. We can formally compute the inverse of  $(I - A^{-1}uv^T)$ :

$$(I - A^{-1}uv^{T})^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (A^{-1}uv^{T})^{k}$$

$$= I + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (A^{-1}uv^{T})(v^{T}A^{-1}u)^{k-1}$$

$$= I + (A^{-1}uv^{T}) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (v^{T}A^{-1}u)^{k-1}$$

$$= I + \frac{A^{-1}uv^{T}}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u}$$

So we need to prove  $(I + \frac{A^{-1}uv^T}{1-v^TA^{-1}u})A^{-1}$  is the inverse of  $A - uv^T$ .

$$(A - uv^{T})(A^{-1} + \frac{A^{-1}uv^{T}A^{-1}}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u})$$

$$= AA^{-1} - uv^{T}A^{-1} + \frac{1}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u}(AA^{-1}uv^{T}A^{-1} - uv^{T}A^{-1}uv^{T}A^{-1})$$

$$= I - uv^{T}A^{-1} + \frac{1}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u}(uv^{T}A^{-1} - uv^{T}A^{-1}uv^{T}A^{-1})$$

$$= I + \frac{1}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u}((-uv^{T}A^{-1}) + uv^{T}A^{-1}v^{T}A^{-1}u + uv^{T}A^{-1} - uv^{T}A^{-1}uv^{T}A^{-1})$$

$$= I + \frac{1}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u}(uv^{T}A^{-1}v^{T}A^{-1}u - u(v^{T}A^{-1}u)v^{T}A^{-1})$$

$$= I + \frac{1}{1 - v^{T}A^{-1}u}(uv^{T}A^{-1}v^{T}A^{-1}u - uv^{T}A^{-1}(v^{T}A^{-1}u))$$

$$= I$$

Last, by the statement in the first part, only need to prove  $(A - uv^T)^{-1} \ge 0$  and  $c_{ij} \le 0, i \ne 0$ 

 $j, i, j = 1, \dots, n$  to show  $A - uv^T$  is M-matrix, where  $(A - uv^T) = (c_{ij})$ . Since  $(A - uv^T)^{-1} = A^{-1} + \frac{A^{-1}uv^TA^{-1}}{1 - v^TA^{-1}}, v^TA^{-1}u < 1$ , then  $1 - v^TA^{-1}u > 0$ . Since  $A^{-1}, u, v^T \ge 0$ , we can get  $A^{-1}uv^TA^{-1} \ge 0$ . Thus,  $\frac{A^{-1}uv^TA^{-1}}{1 - v^TA^{-1}u} \ge 0$ . Therefore,  $(A - uv^T) \ge 0$ . Besides,  $c_{ij} = a_{ij} - u_i v_j$ , where  $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)^T$ ,  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)^T$ . Since  $a_{ij} \leq 0, i \neq j, u_i, v_j \geq 0$ , we can  $get a_{ij} - u_i v_j \le 0, i \ne j.$ 

### BOBEM IV

• Consider two matrices A and B of dimension  $n \times n$ , whose diagonal elements are all nonzeros. Let  $E_X$  denote the set of edges in the adjacency graph of a matrix X (that is the set of pairs (i,j) such  $X_{ij} \neq 0$ , then show that

$$E_{AB}\supset E_A\cup E_B$$

• Given extreme examples when  $|E_{AB}| = n^2$  while  $E_A \cup E_B$  is of order n. What practical implications does this have on ways to store products of sparse matrices? (Is this better to store AB or pairs A, B separately? Consider both the computation cost for performing matrix-vector products and the cost of memory.)

- SOUTION. 1. According to the definition of  $E_X$ , we can get that  $E_X := \{(i,j) : x_{ij} \neq 0, X = (x_{ij})\}$ . Since A, B satisfy diagonal elements are all nonzeros, we can get  $E_A \cap E_B \supset \{(i,i) : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ . Assume  $A = (a_{ij}), B = (b_{ij}),$  so  $\forall (i,j) \in E_A, \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj} \geq a_{ij}b_{jj},$  where  $a_{ij}b_{jj} \neq 0$ . So  $(i,j) \in E_{AB}$ . Thus,  $E_A \subset E_{AB}$ . In the same way, we can prove  $E_B \subset E_{AB}$ .
  - 2. Let  $A = (a_{ij}), B = (b_{ij}),$  where  $a_{ii} = 1, a_{i1} = 1, a_{ij} = 0, j \neq i, 1 \leq i, j \leq n, b_{ii} = 1, b_{1j} = 1, b_{ij} = 0, i \neq 1, j = 1, \dots, n$ . Then  $AB = (c_{ij}),$  where  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} \geq a_{i1} b_{1j} = 1, \forall i, j = 1, \dots, n$ . Then  $|E_A \cup E_B| = 4n 2 \sim O(n),$  while  $|E_{AB}| = n^2$ .

This example shows that the product of two sparse matrices can become dense —a phenomenon known as fill-in. Therefore, it is usually better to store the sparse factors A and B rather than the product AB itself, unless the product is used repeatedly and storage cost is not a concern. In practice, one often computes ABx by performing Bv followed by A(Bv), saving both memory and time in large-scale computations.

ROBEM V You are given an 8 matrix which has the following pattern:

- Show the adjacency graph of A;
- Find the Cuthill Mc Kee ordering for the matrix (break ties by giving priority to the node with lowest index). Show the graph of the matrix permuted according to the Cuthill-Mc Kee ordering.
- What is the Reverse Cuthill Mc Kee ordering for this case? Show the matrix reordered according to the reverse Cuthill Mc Kee ordering.
- Find a multicoloring of the graph using the greedy multicolor algorithm. What is the minimum number of colors required for multicoloring the graph?
- Consider the variation of the Cuthill Mc Kee ordering in which the first level consists  $L_0$  several vertices instead on only one vertex. Find the Cuthill Mc Kee ordering with this variant with the starting level  $L_0 = \{1, 8\}$ .

SOLTON. 1. These adjacency edges are as followed:

$$E_X := \{(1,2), (1,8), (2,1), (2,3), (2,6), (2,7), (3,2), (3,4), (3,6), (4,3), (4,5), (5,4), (5,6), (6,3), (6,2), (6,2),$$

And the adjacency graph of A is figure 1:

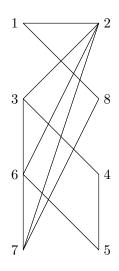


图 1: adjacency graph

2. The CMK order is 1, 8, 7, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. The matrix graph after permuting according to CMK ordering is as below:

3. The reverse CMK order is 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 7, 8, 1. The matrix graph after permuting according to

reverse CMK ordering are as following:

4. A multicoloring graph is figure 2: The minimum number of colors required is 3.

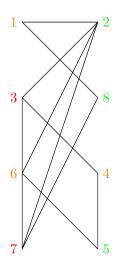


图 2: multicoloring graph

5. The variant CMK order with starting level  $L_0$  is 1, 8, 7, 2, 3, 6, 4, 5.