Numerical Linear Algebra: Homework #2

Due on September 2, 2022 at 10:00PM

Instructor: Professor Blake Barker Section 1

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Problem 2.2

The Pythagorean Theorem asserts that for a set of n orthogonal vectors $\{x_i\}$,

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

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

Proof. We begin by noting that by orthogonality, $x_i^*x_i=0$ for $i\neq j$. Thus,

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right\|^2 = \left\| x_1 + x_2 \right\|^2$$

$$= (x_1 + x_2)^* (x_1 + x_2)$$

$$= x_1^* x_1 + x_1^* x_2 + x_2^* x_1 + x_2^* x_2$$

$$= 1 + 0 + 0 + 1$$

$$= 1 + 1$$

$$= x_1^* x_1 + x_2^* x_2$$

$$= \left\| x_1 \right\|^2 + \left\| x_2 \right\|^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\| x_1 \right\|^2.$$

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

Proof. The base case for induction has been shown in Part (a). Note orthogonality is used to anhilate terms $x_i^*x_j$ for $i \neq j$ in (3) below. Now, suppose Equation (1) equation holds for k > 2. We now show, by induction, that this implies Equation (1) also holds for k + 1:

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} x_1 \right\|^2 = (x_1 + \dots + x_k + x_{k+1})^* (x_1 + \dots + x_k + x_{k+1})$$
 (2)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \|x_i\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{k+1}^* x_i + x_{k+1}^* x_{k+1}$$
(3)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \|x_i\|^2. \tag{4}$$

Problem 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.

Proof. We show this directly without using Exercises 2.1. Suppose $S \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ be skew-hermitian. Then

$$S^* = -S. (5)$$

Futher, suppose that λ is an eigenvalue of S with associated eigenvector x. Then, using Equation (5), we have

$$S^* = -S$$

$$S^*x = -Sx$$

$$S^*x = -\lambda x$$

$$x^*Sx = -\overline{\lambda}x^*x$$

$$x^*\lambda x = -\overline{\lambda}x^*x$$

$$\lambda \|x\| = -\overline{\lambda} \|x\|$$

$$\|x\| (\lambda + \overline{\lambda}) = 0$$

Since $x \neq 0$, it must be that $\lambda = -\overline{\lambda}$. If $\lambda = a + bi$, then we have

$$a + bi = -(a - bi)$$
$$a + bi = -a + bi$$

But this implies a = 0. Therefore, λ is pure imaginary, as was to be shown.

(b) Show that I - S is non-singular.

Proof. Suppose to the contrary that I-S is singular. Then there exists $x \in C^m$ such that $x \neq 0$, but (I-S)x = 0. Using this fact, we have

$$(I - S)x = 0$$
$$Ix - Sx = 0$$
$$x = Sx$$

But this means $\lambda = 1$ is an eigenvalue of S. By Part (a), this is a contradiction since all eigenvalues of S are pure imaginary. Therefore, I - S is non-singular.

(c) Show that the matrix $Q = (I - S)^{-1}(I + S)$, known as the Cayley transform of S, is unitary.

Proof. In this proof, we use the fact from Part (a) that $S^* = -S$. Note that by definition, a matrix A is unitary if $A^* = A^{-1}$. Thus, if Q is unitary, then $QQ^* = QQ^{-1} = I$. We prove this fact as follows.

$$QQ^* = (I - S)^{-1}(I + S)[(I - S)^{-1}(I + S)]^*$$

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

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

$$= (I - S)^{-1}(I - S + S - S^2)(I + S)^{-1}$$

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

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

$$= II$$

$$= I.$$

Problem 2.7

A Hadamard matrix is a matrix whose entries are all ± 1 and whose transpose is equal to its inverse times a constant factor. It is know that if A is a Hadamard matrix of dimension m > 2, then m is a multiple of 4. It is not know, however, whether there is a Hadamard matrix for every such m, though examples have been found for all cases $m \leq 424$.

Show that the following recursive description provides a Hadamard matrix of each dimension $m = 2^k, k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$:

$$H_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad H_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} H_k & H_k \\ H_k & -H_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof. We use repeatedly the property that, if A is a Hadamard matrix, then $A^T = aA^{-1}$ for some constant a. We prove the hypothesis by induction. As a base case, consider k = 0.

$$H_1 = \begin{bmatrix} H_0 & H_0 \\ H_0 & -H_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Here all entries are ± 1 as required. Moreover, we note that the columns of H_1 are linearly independent, which can be verified by taking the dot product of the columns to obtain 1-1=0. Factoring out a constant a=2 so that the columns are of unit length yields a constant times the unitary matrix $aQ=H_1$. By definition, Q unitary means $Q^*=Q^{-1}$. Since Q contains only real values, we have $Q^T=Q^{-1}$. Hence

$$aQ^T = H_1^T \Rightarrow aQ^{-1} = H_1^T.$$

But this implies that $aQ^{-1} = aH_1^{-1}$.

Now assume that the recurrence has been verified to produce Hadamard matrices for all $m \times m$ matrices for $m = 2^{k-1}$ for k > 1. Then considering k we have by way of the recurrence,

$$H_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} H_k & H_k \\ H_k & -H_k \end{bmatrix}$$

Since H_{k+1} is composed of linearly independent submatrices which are linearly independent, the columns of H_{k+1} are linearly independent. Thus we can apply the same procedure to show that $H_{k+1}^T = aH_{k+1}^{-1}$. That is, we can factor out a constant to obtain a unitary matrix whose transpose is the inverse to obtain $aQ^{-1} = aH_1^{-1} = H_1^T$. This fact combined with the fact that all entries of H_{k+1} are ± 1 , means that H_{k+1} is a Hadamard matrix of size $m = 2^{k+1}$. Therefore, for dimensions $m = 2^k$, $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, the recurrence produces Hadamard matrix.