

## 1 Question 1 - Book 20.1

We will use a proof by induction to show that  $A$  has a LU factorization if for each  $k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq m$ , the upper-left  $k \times k$  block is nonsingular. The  $k = 1$  portion of the proof is the trivial case as  $A_{1:1,1:1} = L_{1:1,1:1}U_{1:1,1:1}$ . We assume the following is true:  $A_{1:k,1:k} = L_{1:k,1:k}U_{1:k,1:k}$  for  $k \leq m$ .

We want to prove the case  $k = m + 1$ . For this, we see that

$$A_{1:m+1,1:m+1} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{1:m,1:m} & 0 \\ x_m & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U_{1:m,1:m} & y_m \\ 0 & u_{m+1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

We allude to ideas illustrated in part b of question 2 to see that the  $x_m, y_m$ , and  $u_{m+1}$  is shorthand notation for  $x_m = (a_{m+1,1} \cdots a_{m+1,m})U_{1:m,1:m}^{-1}$ ,

$$y_m = L_{1:m,1:m}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,m+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m,m+1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

and  $u_{m+1} = -x_m y_m$ . Since the  $\det(A_{1:m+1,1:m+1}) = \det(U_{1:m,1:m})u_{m+1} \neq 0$ ,  $u_{m+1} \neq 0$  and the LU decomposition is unique.

## 2 Question 2 - Book 20.3

### 2.1 part a

So if i understand this question correct, we can simply multiply the LHS out, block by block. So the 1,1 block on the right hand side should be equivalent to  $IA_{11}$ . The 1,2 block on the RHS should be equal to  $IA_{12}$ . The 2,1 block will be equivalent to  $-A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{11} + IA_{21} = 0$ , since  $A_{11}^{-1}A_{11} = I$ . And finally the 2,2 block with be equal to  $-A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12} + IA_{22}$ .

### 2.2 part b

After n steps of Gaussian elimination,  $A$  has been factorized such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U_{11} & U_{21} \\ 0 & U_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

If we expand this out, we get a linear system of equations:  $L_{11}U_{11} = A_{11}$ ,  $L_{11}U_{12} = A_{12}$ ,  $L_{21}U_{11} = A_{21}$ , and  $L_{21}U_{12} + U_{22} = A_{22}$ . Solving the third equation for  $L_{21}$ , we see that  $L_{21} = A_{21}U_{11}^{-1}$ , and solving the second equation we see that  $U_{12} = L_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$ . Using this information to solve the fourth equation we see that:

$$U_{22} = A_{22} - L_{21}U_{12} = A_{22} - A_{21}U_{11}^{-1}L_{11}^{-1}A_{12} = A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12} \quad (4)$$

where we have used the fact that  $A_{11}^{-1} = U_{11}^{-1}L_{11}^{-1}$

## 3 Question 3 - Book 21.6

We know that Gaussian elimination has the following effect on matrix  $A$ :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} - \frac{A_{21}}{a_{11}}A_{12} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

In order to avoid row swapping, we need to show that elimination creates submatrices that are diagonally dominant. I will try using a proof by induction for this. So when the dimension is  $k = 1$  of these submatrices, this is trivial as each block is already inherently diagonal. We assume that the result of elimination yields diagonally dominant submatrices for  $k < n$ . We then need to show that this is also true for any matrix  $A$  of dimension  $n$ . We see that

$$\sum_{j \neq k} |(A_{22} - \frac{A_{21}}{a_{11}} A_{21})_{jk}| \leq \sum_{j \neq k} |(A_{22})_{jk}| + \sum_{j \neq k} |\frac{1}{a_{11}} (A_{21})_j (A_{12})_k| \quad (6)$$

Furthermore, we note that we have assumed already the diagonal elements of  $A$  are dominant. We use this idea to write

$$\sum_{j \neq k} |(A_{22})_{jk}| < |(A_{22})_{kk}| - |(A_{12})_k| \quad (7)$$

and

$$\sum_{j \neq k} |(A_{21})_j| < |a_{11}| - |(A_{21})_k| \quad (8)$$

Inserting these relations into our original equation we see that

$$\sum_{j \neq k} |(A_{22} - \frac{A_{21}}{a_{11}} A_{21})_{jk}| < |(A_{22})_{kk}| - |(A_{12})_k| + \frac{|(A_{12})_k|}{|a_{11}|} \left( |a_{11}| - |(A_{21})_k| \right) \leq |(A_{22})_{kk}| - \frac{(A_{21})_k (A_{12})_k}{a_{11}} \quad (9)$$

where we finally arrive at the desired result that  $\sum_{j \neq k} |(A_{22} - \frac{A_{21}}{a_{11}} A_{21})_{jk}| \leq \left| \left( (A_{22}) - \frac{(A_{21})(A_{12})}{a_{11}} \right)_{kk} \right|$

**Goal:** Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , guess vector  $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and number of iterations  $m$ , find a tridiagonal  $T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  such that  $T = V^* A V$ . Diagonalize  $T$  (hopefully of smaller dimension than  $A$ ) to approximate an extremal eigenvalue of  $A$ .

$$\omega'_1 = A v_1 \quad (10)$$

$$\alpha_1 = \omega'^*_1 v_1 \quad (11)$$

$$\omega_1 = \omega'_1 - \alpha_1 v_1 \quad (12)$$

$$\beta_j = ||\omega_{j-1}|| \quad (13)$$

$$\beta_j \neq 0 \rightarrow v_1 = \frac{\omega_{j-1}}{\beta_j} \quad (14)$$

$$\omega'_j = A v_j \quad (15)$$

$$\alpha_j = \omega'^*_j v_j \quad (16)$$

$$\omega_j = \omega'_j - \alpha_j v_j - \beta_j v_{j-1} \quad (17)$$

$$V = (v_1 \quad v_2 \quad \cdots \quad v_m) \quad (18)$$

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \beta_2 & \alpha_2 & \beta_3 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (19)$$

**Proof:** Suppose  $A$  is Hermitian,  $\lambda$  is an extremal eigenvalue of  $A$  we are searching for, a factorization  $V^*AV = T$  has been found, and  $Tx = \lambda x$ . Given the corresponding eigenvector of  $A$ ,  $y = Vx$ ,

$$Ay = (VTV^*)y = (VTV^*)(Vx) = V(Tx) = \lambda(Vx) = \lambda y \quad (20)$$

So by diagonalizing  $T$ , we effectively find the eigenvalues of  $A$ .

**Application:** Use Rayleigh quotient and  $y \neq 0$  to generate  $v_k$  such that

$$r(y) = \frac{y^T A y}{y^T y} \rightarrow m_k = \min_{y \neq 0} \frac{x^T (V_k^T A V_k) x}{x^T x} = \min_{\|x\|_2=1} r(V_k x) \geq \lambda_n(A) \quad (21)$$

where  $m_k$  is an increasingly better approximation to  $\lambda$  upon successive iteration. Equating columns  $k$  of  $AQ = QT$  and using a little algebra, we see that for iteration  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$

$$Av_k = \beta_{k-1}v_{k-1} + \alpha_k v_k + \beta_k v_{k+1} \quad (22)$$

Projecting this on to  $v_k$  and using the fact that the columns of  $V$  are orthonormal shows that  $\alpha_k = v_k^T A v_k$ ,  $\beta_k = v_{k+1}^T A v_k$  for scalars  $\alpha, \beta$ .

**Implementation:** If choose a random starting  $r_0 = v_0$ , we can define a vector  $r_k = (A - \alpha_k I)v_k - \beta_{k-1}v_{k-1}$  where  $v_{k+1} = \beta_k^{-1}r_k$  and  $\beta_k = \|r_k\|_2$ . We iterate this up to  $n$  times, or until  $r_k = 0$ . This implies that our signal for convergence is when  $AV_k - V_kT_k = r_k e_k^T$  or  $\beta_k = 0$ . In the limit  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\alpha_k = v_k^T A^k v_k \approx \lambda$ .