

1. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ and $b = \begin{pmatrix} 14 \\ 18 \\ 20 \end{pmatrix}$. Obtain the LU decomposition of A and use it to solve the system $Ax = b$.

Solution: Let $A = LU$ with $L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{pmatrix}$. Then equating the entries of the matrix on both sides, by a simple calculation we find that

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & -24 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now let $y = Ux$. Then we first solve for $Ly = b$. A simple calculation leads to $y = \begin{pmatrix} 14 \\ -10 \\ -72 \end{pmatrix}$.

Then we solve for $Lx = y$ to get $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$. □

2. (i) Let a, b be column vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and consider the matrix $A = I + ab^t$. Show that $A^2 + \alpha A + \beta I = \mathcal{O}$

Solution: Note that if $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is orthogonal to b , then $Ax = x + ab^t x = x + \langle b, x \rangle a = x$. Since the orthogonal complement of b is of dimension $n-1$, it follows that the characteristic polynomial of A is of the form $(\lambda-1)^{n-1}(\lambda-r)$ for some real number r . Then it follows that A satisfies some second degree equation of the form $A^2 + \alpha A + \beta I = \mathcal{O}$. Therefore, when A^{-1} exists, $A^{-1} = -\frac{1}{\beta}(A + \alpha I)$.

(ii) Consider the $n \times n$ matrix

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & b & \dots & b \\ b & a & b & \dots & b \\ b & b & a & \dots & b \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b & b & b & \dots & a \end{pmatrix},$$

where a, b are real numbers such that $a \neq b$ and $a + (n-1)b \neq 0$. Solve the system $Bx = c$ for a given vector $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Solution: Note that $B = (a-b)B_1$, where $B_1 = \left[I + \frac{b}{a-b} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \dots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1) \right]$.

Then as in (i), $B_1^2 + \alpha B_1 + \beta I = \mathcal{O}$ with $\alpha = -(1 + a + (n-1)b)$ and $\beta = (a + (n-1)b)^2$. It is easy to see that B_1 is invertible and therefore $B_1^{-1} = -\frac{1}{\beta}(B_1 + \alpha I)$. Then $\frac{1}{a-b}B_1^{-1}c$ solves the equation $Bx = c$.

3. (a) Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Find a 4×3 matrix Q satisfying $Q^t Q = I_3$ and an upper triangular 3×3 matrix R with all diagonal elements positive such that $A = QR$.

Solution: Let $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Let $e_1 = \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}$, $\tilde{e}_2 = v_2 - \langle v_2, e_1 \rangle e_1$

and $e_2 = \frac{\tilde{e}_2}{\|\tilde{e}_2\|} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \end{pmatrix}$. $\tilde{e}_3 = v_3 - \langle v_3, e_1 \rangle e_1 - \langle v_3, e_2 \rangle e_2$ and $e_3 = \frac{\tilde{e}_3}{\|\tilde{e}_3\|} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}$. Then

if $Q = [e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3] = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}$, we have $Q^t Q = I_3$, since $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is an orthonormal set

of vectors. Now let $R = \begin{pmatrix} \langle v_1, e_1 \rangle & \langle v_2, e_1 \rangle & \langle v_3, e_1 \rangle \\ 0 & \langle v_2, e_2 \rangle & \langle v_3, e_2 \rangle \\ 0 & 0 & \langle v_3, e_3 \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$. Then it is

clear from the construction of e_1, e_2 and e_3 that $A = QR$, where Q and R are as described above.

(b) Suppose V is an inner product space over \mathbb{C} and P is a projection in V . If $\langle Px, x \rangle \leq \|x\|^2$ for all vectors $x \in V$, show that P is an orthogonal projection.

Solution: Let $x \in \text{Im}P$ and $y \in \text{Ker}P$. Then for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, we have

$$\langle P(x + \lambda y), x + \lambda y \rangle \leq \|x + \lambda y\|^2.$$

Since $x \in \text{Im}P$ and P is a projection we have $Px = x$. On the other hand since $y \in \text{Ker}P$, we have $P y = 0$. Hence from the above inequality it follows that

$$\|x\|^2 + \bar{\lambda} \langle x, y \rangle \leq \|x\|^2 + |\lambda|^2 \|y\|^2 + \lambda \langle y, x \rangle + \bar{\lambda} \langle x, y \rangle.$$

So we see that $\lambda \langle y, x \rangle$ has to be real. But since $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is arbitrary, it follows that $\langle y, x \rangle = 0$. Hence x is orthogonal to y . Since $x \in \text{Im}P$ and $y \in \text{Ker}P$ are arbitrary, it follows that P is an orthogonal projection.

4. Let u_1, u_2, v_1, v_2 be non-zero column vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and define $P = u_1 u_2^t + v_1 v_2^t$. Derive sufficient conditions on the given vectors so that P is a projection. Further, derive sufficient conditions on the given vectors so that P is an orthogonal projection.

Solution: Note that given any vector x , $Px = \langle u_2, x \rangle u_1 + \langle v_2, x \rangle v_1$. So $\text{Im}P$ is the subspace spanned by the vectors u_1 and v_1 . So if $Pu_1 = u_1$ and $Pv_1 = v_1$, then P is a projection. Now

$$Pu_1 = \langle u_2, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v_2, u_1 \rangle v_1$$

and

$$Pv_1 = \langle u_2, v_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v - 2, v_1 \rangle v_1.$$

Hence the sufficient conditions for P to be a projection are u_2, v_2 are in the orthogonal complement of the subspace spanned by the vectors u_1 and v_1 and $\langle u_2, u_1 \rangle = 1, \langle v_2, v_1 \rangle = 1$.

To do the second part we know that P is an orthogonal projection if and only if P^t is the same linear operator. Now $P^t = u_2u_1^t + v_2v_1^t$. Again writing the equations as above, a simple calculation shows that P^t is the same projection as P if $u_1 = u_2, v_1 = v_2$ and $\{u_1, v_1\}$ is an orthonormal set of vectors.

5. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Let $c = \min \|Ax - b\|$, where the minimum is taken over all the column vectors x in \mathbb{R}^3 . Determine c and obtain the solution x with least norm such that $c = \|Ax - b\|$.

Solution: $A = BC$, where $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Let $B^+ = (B^t B)^{-1} B^t = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $C^+ = C^t (C C^t)^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Let $A^+ = C^+ B^+ = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -4 & 1 \\ -4 & 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then we know that $AA^+A = A$ and A^+A is an orthogonal projection. $Ax - b = AA^+(Ax - b) + (I - AA^+)(Ax - b)$ and therefore,

$$\|Ax - b\|^2 = \|AA^+(Ax - b)\|^2 + \|(I - AA^+)(Ax - b)\|^2 = \|Ax - AA^+b\|^2 + \|b - AA^+b\|^2.$$

Therefore, $\|Ax - b\| \geq \|A(A^+b) - b\|$ with equality holds when $x = A^+b$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} c = \|A(A^+b) - b\| &= \left| \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -4 & 1 \\ -4 & 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \right| = \frac{1}{9} \sqrt{29}. \end{aligned}$$

Now let x be any solution of $Ax = c$. Then $x = A^+Ax + (x - A^+Ax)$. Which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\|^2 &= \|A^+Ax\|^2 + \|x - A^+Ax\|^2, \text{ since } A^+A \text{ is an orthogonal projection} \\ &= \|A^+AA^+b\|^2 + \|x - A^+AA^+b\|^2 = \|A^+b\|^2 + \|x - A^+b\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\|x\| \geq \|A^+b\|$, showing that $A^+b = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix}$ is the solution with least norm.

6. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$. Explain in detail why the limit $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A^k$ exists and find the limit.

Solution: We note that A is non-negative and A^2 is strictly positive, hence A is irreducible. By Calculating the characteristic polynomial of A we see that 1 is the dominant eigenvalue of A and A^t and the other eigenvalues are real and of modulus less than 1. Also $u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and

$v = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/9 \\ 4/9 \end{pmatrix}$ are the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalue 1 for A and A^t respectively and

$\langle u, v \rangle = 1$. It follows from $Au = u$, $A^t v = v$ and $\langle u, v \rangle = 1$ that $A^k(I - uv^t) = A^k - uv^t$ and $(I - uv^t)A^k = A^k - uv^t$. Let $B^k = A^k - uv^t$. Note that $Bu = 0$ and if $Bx = \lambda x$, $A(I - uv^t)x = \lambda x$. So $A(I - uv^t)^2 x = \lambda(I - uv^t)x$, which implies that $A(I - uv^t)x = \lambda(I - uv^t)x$. Hence $\sigma(B) \subset \sigma(A) \cup \{0\}$, where $\sigma(B)$ denotes the spectrum of B . Next we show that $1 \notin \sigma(B)$. Suppose there exists x such that $Bx = x$, $x \neq 0$, then $A(I - uv^t)x = (I - uv^t)x$, which implies that $(I - uv^t)x = cu$ for some constant c . Therefore, $x = c'u$ for some c' , which is a contradiction to the fact that $Bu = 0$. Hence $1 \notin \sigma(B)$. Hence the spectral radius of B is less than 1, so $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} B^k = 0$. Then it follows that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A^k = uv^t = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 2/9 & 4/9 \\ 1/3 & 2/9 & 4/9 \\ 1/3 & 2/9 & 4/9 \end{pmatrix}$$