

In these notes the concepts of circulants, τ and Toeplitz matrices, Hessenberg algebras and displacement decompositions, spaces of class \mathbb{V} and best least squares fits on such spaces, are introduced and investigated. As a consequence of the results presented, the choice of matrices involved in displacement decompositions, the choice of preconditioners in solving linear systems and the choice of Hessian approximations in quasi-Newton minimization methods, become possible in wider classes of low complexity matrix algebras.

The Fourier matrix, circulants, and fast discrete transforms

Consider the following $n \times n$ matrix

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \\ 1 & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let $\omega \in \mathbb{C}$. Note that

$$P_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \vdots \\ \omega^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega \\ \omega^2 \\ \vdots \\ \omega^{n-1} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \omega \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \vdots \\ \omega^{n-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

where the latter identity holds if $\omega^n = 1$. More in general, if $\omega^n = 1$, we have the following vectorial identities

$$P_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^j \\ \vdots \\ \omega^{(n-1)j} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega^j \\ \omega^{(n-1)j} \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \omega^j \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^j \\ \vdots \\ \omega^{(n-1)j} \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1,$$

or, equivalently, the following matrix identity

$$P_1 W = W D_{1\omega^{n-1}},$$

$$D_{1\omega^{n-1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \omega & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \omega^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^j & \omega^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{(n-1)j} & \omega^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proposition. If $\omega^n = 1$ and if $\omega^j \neq 1$ for $0 < j < n$, then $W^*W = nI$.

proof: since $|\omega| = 1$, $\bar{\omega} = \omega^{-1}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} [W^*W]_{ij} &= [\bar{W}W]_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n [\bar{W}]_{ik} [W]_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^n \bar{\omega}^{(i-1)(k-1)} \omega^{(k-1)(j-1)} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \omega^{(k-1)(j-i)} = \sum_{k=1}^n (\omega^{j-i})^{k-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $[W^*W]_{ij} = n$ if $i = j$, and $[W^*W]_{ij} = \frac{1-(\omega^{j-i})^n}{1-\omega^{j-i}} = 0$ if $i \neq j$ (note that the assumption $\omega^j \neq 1$ for $0 < j < n$ is essential in order to make $1 - \omega^{j-i} \neq 0$).

By the result of the above Proposition, we can say that the following (symmetric) Fourier matrix

$$F = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}W$$

is unitary, i.e. $F^*F = I$.

Exercise. Prove that $F^2 = JP_1$ where J is the permutation matrix $J\mathbf{e}_k = \mathbf{e}_{n+1-k}$, $k = 1, \dots, n$ (J is usually called anti-identity).

The matrix identity satisfied by P_1 and W can be of course rewritten in terms of F , $P_1F = FD_{1\omega^{n-1}}$, thus we obtain the equality

$$P_1 = FD_{1\omega^{n-1}}F^*$$

which states that the Fourier matrix diagonalizes the matrix P_1 , or, more precisely, that *the columns of the Fourier matrix form a system of n unitarily orthonormal eigenvectors for the matrix P_1 with corresponding eigenvalues $1, \omega, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$.*

But if F diagonalizes P_1 , then it diagonalizes all polynomials in P_1 :

$$\begin{aligned} P_1^{k-1} &= FD_{1\omega^{n-1}}^{k-1}F^*, \\ \sum_{k=1}^n a_k P_1^{k-1} &= F \sum_{k=1}^n a_k D_{1\omega^{n-1}}^{k-1} F^* \\ &= F \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k & & & \\ & \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \omega^{k-1} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \omega^{(n-1)(k-1)} \end{bmatrix} F^* \\ &= Fd(W\mathbf{a})F^* = \sqrt{n}Fd(F\mathbf{a})F^* \end{aligned}$$

where by $d(\mathbf{z})$ we mean the diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n .

Let us investigate the matrices P_1^{k-1} , $k = 1, \dots, n$, and the matrix $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k P_1^{k-1}$ in the case $n = 4$:

$$\begin{aligned} P_1^0 = I, P_1^1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, P_1^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, P_1^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\ P_1^4 &= P_1^3 P_1 = P_1^T P_1 = I = P_1^0, \\ \sum_{k=1}^4 a_k P_1^{k-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ a_4 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_3 & a_4 & a_1 & a_2 \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_1 \end{bmatrix} = \sqrt{4}Fd(F\mathbf{a})F^*, F = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \omega^3 \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \omega^6 \\ 1 & \omega^3 & \omega^6 & \omega^9 \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\omega^4 = 1, \omega^j \neq 1, 0 < j < 4 \ (\omega = e^{\pm i2\pi/4}).$$

Note that, for n generic, we have the identities $\mathbf{e}_1^T P_1^{k-1} = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, \dots, n$, and $P_1^n = I$ (prove them!). So, the set $C = \{p(P_1)\}$ of all polynomials in P_1

is spanned by the matrices $J_k = P_1^{k-1}$; the particular polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k J_k$ is simply denoted by $C(\mathbf{a})$. Note that $C(\mathbf{a})$ is the matrix of C with first row \mathbf{a}^T :

$$C(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k J_k = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & & a_{n-1} & a_n \\ a_n & a_1 & & & a_{n-1} \\ a_3 & & & & a_2 \\ a_2 & a_3 & & a_n & a_1 \end{bmatrix} = Fd(F^T \mathbf{a})d(F^T \mathbf{e}_1)^{-1}F^{-1}.$$

C is known as the space of circulant matrices.

Exercise. (i) Repeat all, starting from the $n \times n$ matrix

$$P_{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \\ -1 & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and arriving to the (-1) -circulant matrix whose first row is \mathbf{a}^T , $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{C}^n$:

$$C_{-1}(\mathbf{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & & a_{n-1} & a_n \\ -a_n & a_1 & & & a_{n-1} \\ -a_3 & & & & a_2 \\ -a_2 & -a_3 & & -a_n & a_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(ii) Let T be a Toeplitz $n \times n$ matrix, i.e. $T = (t_{i-j})_{i,j=1}^n$, for some $t_k \in \mathbb{C}$. Show that T can be written as the sum of a circulant and of a (-1) -circulant, that is, $T = C(\mathbf{a}) + C_{-1}(\mathbf{b})$, $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

Why circulant matrices can be interesting in the applications of linear algebra? The main reason is in the fact that the matrix-vector product $C(\mathbf{a})\mathbf{z}$ can be computed in at most $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations (whereas, usually, a matrix-vector product requires n^2 multiplications).

Proposition FFT. Given $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, the complexity of the matrix-vector product $F\mathbf{z}$ is at most $O(n \log_2 n)$. Such operation is called discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of \mathbf{z} . As a consequence, the matrix-vector product $C(\mathbf{a})\mathbf{z}$ is computable by two DFTs (after the preprocessing DFT $F\mathbf{a}$).

proof: since $\omega^{(i-1)(k-1)}$ is the (i, k) entry of W and z_k is the k entry of $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (W\mathbf{z})_i &= \sum_{k=1}^n \omega^{(i-1)(k-1)} z_k = \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega^{(i-1)(2j-2)} z_{2j-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega^{(i-1)(2j-1)} z_{2j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} (\omega^2)^{(i-1)(j-1)} z_{2j-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega^{(i-1)(2(j-1)+1)} z_{2j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} (\omega^2)^{(i-1)(j-1)} z_{2j-1} + \omega^{i-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} (\omega^2)^{(i-1)(j-1)} z_{2j}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that ω is in fact a function of n , i.e. the right notation for ω should be ω_n . Then $\omega^2 = \omega_n^2$ is such that $(\omega_n^2)^{n/2} = 1$ and $(\omega_n^2)^i \neq 1$ $0 < i < n/2$; in other words $\omega_n^2 = \omega_{n/2}$. So, we have the identities

$$(W_n \mathbf{z})_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega_{n/2}^{(i-1)(j-1)} z_{2j-1} + \omega_n^{i-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega_{n/2}^{(i-1)(j-1)} z_{2j}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (?)$$

It follows that, for $i = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2}$,

$$(W_n \mathbf{z})_i = (W_{n/2} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_3 \\ \vdots \\ z_{n-1} \end{bmatrix})_i + \omega_n^{i-1} (W_{n/2} \begin{bmatrix} z_2 \\ z_4 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix})_i.$$

Moreover, by setting $i = \frac{n}{2} + k$, $k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2}$, in (?), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} (W_n \mathbf{z})_{\frac{n}{2}+k} &= \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}(j-1)} \omega_{n/2}^{(k-1)(j-1)} z_{2j-1} + \omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}k-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}(j-1)} \omega_{n/2}^{(k-1)(j-1)} z_{2j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega_{n/2}^{(k-1)(j-1)} z_{2j-1} - \omega_n^{k-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \omega_{n/2}^{(k-1)(j-1)} z_{2j} \\ &= (W_{n/2} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_3 \\ \vdots \\ z_{n-1} \end{bmatrix})_k - \omega_n^{k-1} (W_{n/2} \begin{bmatrix} z_2 \\ z_4 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix})_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

($\omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}} = -1$; think $\omega = e^{\pm i 2\pi/n}$). Thus

$$W_n \mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} I & D_{1\omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}-1}} \\ I & -D_{1\omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}-1}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} W_{n/2} & 0 \\ 0 & W_{n/2} \end{bmatrix} Q \mathbf{z},$$

$$D_{1\omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}-1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \omega_n & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \omega_{n/2}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} & \\ & & & & \end{bmatrix}, \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & & & \\ 0 & 1 & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (??)$$

If c_n denotes the complexity of the matrix-vector product $F_n \mathbf{z}$, then, by the previous formula,

$$c_n \leq 2c_{n/2} + rn, \quad r \text{ constant.}$$

But this implies $c_n = O(n \log_2 n)$. The proof of the last assertion is left to the reader.

Of course, any time a $n \times n$ matrix U , well defined for all n , satisfies for n even an identity of the type

$$U_n = \begin{bmatrix} \text{sparse matrix} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{n/2} & 0 \\ 0 & U_{n/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{permutation matrix} \end{bmatrix},$$

the matrix-vector product $U_n \mathbf{z}$ can be computed in at most $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations. The above identity is verified for at least 10 matrices U , the Fourier transform and its (-1) version, and the eight Hartley-type transforms. Note, however, that there are also other 16 discrete transforms of complexity $O(n \log_2 n)$, sine-type and the cosine-type transforms. See [], [].

Exercise G. Prove that the $n \times n$ matrix $G = G_n$ defined by

$$G_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left(\cos \frac{(2i+1)(2j+1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2i+1)(2j+1)\pi}{2n} \right), \quad i, j = 0, \dots, n-1,$$

is symmetric, persymmetric, real, unitary, and satisfies the identity:

$$G_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} R_+ & R_- \\ -R_-J & R_+J \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} G_{n/2} & 0 \\ 0 & G_{n/2} \end{bmatrix} Q, \quad R_{\pm} = D_c \pm D_s J,$$

($J \frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ anti-identity) for some suitable $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ diagonal matrices D_c, D_s . Prove, moreover, that each row of G_n has at least a zero entry when $n = 2 + 4s$ (this is like to say, we will see, that the space $\{Gd(\mathbf{z})G : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$ is not a h -space for such values of n); and that, instead, for all other n , $[G_n]_{1k} \neq 0 \forall k$ (i.e., for all other n , the space $\{Gd(\mathbf{z})G : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$ is a 1-space).

Exercise. Prove that the space $C_{-1}^S + JC_{-1}^{SK}$, C_{-1}^S symmetric $n \times n$ (-1) -circulants, C_{-1}^{SK} skewsymmetric (-1) -circulants, is a commutative matrix algebra (a matrix A is skewsymmetric if $A^T = -A$).

The sine matrix and the (commutative) algebra of τ matrices

Consider the $n \times n$ matrix

$$P_0 + P_0^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

and set $J_1 = I$, and $J_2 = P_0 + P_0^T$. Note that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_1 = \mathbf{e}_1^T$, $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_2 = \mathbf{e}_2^T$. Moreover, since

$$(P_0 + P_0^T)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & & & \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & & & \\ & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & 2 & 0 \\ & & & & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & 1 & \\ & & & & & 1 & 0 \\ & & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + I,$$

we have $\mathbf{e}_1^T((P_0 + P_0^T)^2 - I) = [0010 \dots 0] = \mathbf{e}_3^T$. Set $J_3 = (P_0 + P_0^T)^2 - I = J_2(P_0 + P_0^T) - J_1$; then $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_3 = \mathbf{e}_3^T$.

More in general, set $J_{i+1} = J_i(P_0 + P_0^T) - J_{i-1}$, $i = 2, 3, \dots, n-1$. The matrix J_{i+1} is a polynomial in $P_0 + P_0^T$ of degree i with the property $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_{i+1} = \mathbf{e}_{i+1}^T$.

proof: assume $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_j = \mathbf{e}_j^T$, $j = 1, \dots, i$; then

$$\mathbf{e}_1^T J_{i+1} = \mathbf{e}_1^T (J_i(P_0 + P_0^T) - J_{i-1}) = (\mathbf{e}_i^T (P_0 + P_0^T)) - \mathbf{e}_{i-1}^T = (\mathbf{e}_{i-1}^T + \mathbf{e}_{i+1}^T) - \mathbf{e}_{i-1}^T = \mathbf{e}_{i+1}^T.$$

Since J_1, J_2, \dots, J_n are linearly independent, we can say that they span the set $\{p(P_0 + P_0^T)\}$ of all polynomials in the matrix $P_0 + P_0^T$ (use the Cayley-Hamilton theorem). We call such set τ . Note that the matrices of τ are determined once their first row is known; with the symbol $\tau(\mathbf{a})$ we denote the matrix of τ whose first row is \mathbf{a}^T , i.e. the matrix $\sum_k a_k J_k$.

Let us find a useful representation of τ and, in particular, of $\tau(\mathbf{a})$. First

observe that the following vectorial equalities hold:

$$\begin{bmatrix} & 1 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sin \frac{j\pi}{n+1} \\ \sin \frac{2j\pi}{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ \sin \frac{nj\pi}{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = 2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{n+1} \begin{bmatrix} \sin \frac{j\pi}{n+1} \\ \sin \frac{2j\pi}{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ \sin \frac{nj\pi}{n+1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n.$$

Such n equalities can be rewritten as a simple matrix identity $(P_0 + P_0^T)S = SD$ where S is the matrix

$$S_{ij} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{n+1}} \sin \frac{ij\pi}{n+1}, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n,$$

and D is the diagonal matrix with diagonal entries $D_{jj} = 2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{n+1}$. Note that the matrix S , called sine matrix, is real, symmetric and unitary (prove it!).

Remark. Let $F_{2(n+1)}$ be the Fourier matrix of order $2(n+1)$. Then the sine matrix S satisfies the following relation:

$$\mathbf{i}(I - F_{2(n+1)}^2)F_{2(n+1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}^T & 0 & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{0} & S & \mathbf{0} & -SJ \\ 0 & \mathbf{0}^T & 0 & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{0} & -JS & \mathbf{0} & JSJ \end{bmatrix}$$

(note that $F_{2(n+1)}^2$ is a permutation matrix). As a consequence, a sine transform can be computed by performing a discrete Fourier transform.

So, the columns of the sine matrix S form a system of unitarily orthonormal eigenvectors for the matrix $P_0 + P_0^T$. In other words, the unitary matrix S diagonalizes $P_0 + P_0^T$ and, of course, diagonalizes any polynomial in $P_0 + P_0^T$, i.e. any τ matrix:

$$P_0 + P_0^T = SDS, \quad (P_0 + P_0^T)^k = SD^kS, \\ \tau = \{p(P_0 + P_0^T)\} = \{\sum_{k=1}^n a_k (P_0 + P_0^T)^{k-1} : a_k \in \mathbb{C}\} = \{Sd(\mathbf{z})S : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}.$$

In particular, it is clear that the matrix of τ with first row \mathbf{a}^T is

$$\tau(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k J_k = Sd(S^T \mathbf{a})d(S^T \mathbf{e}_1)^{-1}S^{-1}.$$

The latter formula states that matrix-vector products involving τ matrices have complexity at most $O(n \log_2 n)$.

Proposition PC. Given $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ generic, we have

$$\{p(X)\} \subset \{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : AX = XA\}, \\ \dim(\{p(X)\}) \leq n \leq \dim\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : AX = XA\}$$

and if one equality holds then the other equality holds too. So, X is non derogatory if and only if $\dim(\{p(X)\}) = n = \dim\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : AX = XA\}$.

The above Proposition suggests the following further representation of the space τ :

$$\tau = \{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : A(P_0 + P_0^T) = (P_0 + P_0^T)A\}.$$

The fact that any matrix of τ must commute with $P_0 + P_0^T$ is equivalent to require that the following n^2 *cross-sum* conditions hold:

$$a_{i,j-1} + a_{i,j+1} = a_{i-1,j} + a_{i+1,j}, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n$$

where we have set $a_{0,j} = a_{n+1,j} = a_{i,0} = a_{i,n+1} = 0$, $i, j = 1, \dots, n$. We can use such conditions in order to write down the generic τ matrix whose first row is $[a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n]$. For example, for $n = 4$, we can say that

$$\tau(\mathbf{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ a_2 & a_1 + a_3 & a_2 + a_4 & a_3 \\ a_3 & a_2 + a_4 & a_1 + a_3 & a_2 \\ a_4 & a_3 & a_2 & a_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad J_1 = I, \quad J_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$J_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad J_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad J_2 - J_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

and so on.

Exercise. Prove that for n even the matrix J_2 is invertible, and, if possible, compute the inverse.

solution: We know that if J_2 is invertible, then $J_2^{-1} \in \tau$ (from the fact that J_2 commutes with $P_0 + P_0^T$ it follows that also J_2^{-1} commutes with $P_0 + P_0^T$!). Thus $J_2^{-1} = \tau(\mathbf{z})$ for some $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Note that the matrix identity $\tau(\mathbf{z})J_2 = I$ is equivalent to the vectorial identity $\mathbf{z}^T J_2 = \mathbf{e}_1^T$. So, for example, for $n = 4$ we have the condition

$$[z_1 \ z_2 \ z_3 \ z_4] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0],$$

which yields $z_1 = 0$, $z_2 = 1$, $z_3 = 0$, $z_4 = -1$, and thus

$$J_2^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = J_3 - J_4.$$

The proof for $n = 6, 8, \dots$ is left to the reader.

Exercise Ttau. Let T be a symmetric Toeplitz $n \times n$ matrix, i.e. $T = (t_{|i-j|})_{i,j=1}^n$, for some $t_k \in \mathbb{C}$. Show that $T = A + B$ where A is a τ matrix of order n and

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & R & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad R \in \tau, \quad R \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-2) \times (n-2)}.$$

Exercise. Write down rank one τ matrices (try first $n = 2$, $n = 3$, $n = 4$, $n = 5$, $n = 6, \dots$)

Hessenberg algebras

Let X be a lower Hessenberg 3×3 matrix

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & b_2 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We now show that the space of all polynomials in X is spanned by three matrices J_1, J_2, J_3 such that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, 2, 3$, provided that $X_{ii+1} \neq 0$, $i = 1, 2$.

As J_1 we take the identity, $J_1 = X^0 = I$. Let us define J_2 :

$$X - a_{11}I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b_1 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - a_{11} & b_2 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} - a_{11} \end{bmatrix},$$

$b_1 \neq 0 \Rightarrow$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{b_1}(X - a_{11}I) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ a_{21}/b_1 & (a_{22} - a_{11})/b_1 & b_2/b_1 \\ a_{31}/b_1 & a_{32}/b_1 & (a_{33} - a_{11})/b_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_2 = \mathbf{e}_2^T$. Then, let us define J_3 :

$$J_2^2 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{22}/b_1 & (a_{22} - a_{11})/b_1 & b_2/b_1 \\ & & \end{bmatrix},$$

$b_2 \neq 0 \Rightarrow$

$$J_3 = \frac{b_1}{b_2}(J_2^2 - \frac{a_{22}}{b_1}I - \frac{a_{22} - a_{11}}{b_1}J_2).$$

Note that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_3 = \mathbf{e}_3^T$. Finally, Cailey-Hamilton theorem yields the thesis, $\{p(X)\} = \text{Span}\{J_1, J_2, J_3\}$.

The following Proposition generalizes to a generic n the above remarks. For a detailed proof see [].

Proposition. Let X be a lower Hessenberg $n \times n$ matrix. Then the space H_X of all polynomials in X

$$H_X = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k X^{k-1} : \alpha_k \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

is spanned by n matrices J_1, \dots, J_n such that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, \dots, n$, provided that $X_{ii+1} \neq 0$, $i = 1, \dots, n-1$; in such case H_X is called Hessenberg algebra, and for any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ there is a unique matrix in H_X with first row \mathbf{a}^T which is denoted by $H_X(\mathbf{a})$, i.e. $H_X(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_k a_k J_k$.

Of course, by Proposition PC, any Hessenberg algebra H_X admits also the following representation

$$H_X = \{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : AX = XA\}.$$

Until now we have seen two examples of Hessenberg algebras, ξ -circulants $\xi \neq 0$ ($X = P_\xi$) and tau matrices ($X = P_0 + P_0^T$). Both can be simultaneously

diagonalized by a suitable matrix. An example of Hessenberg algebra whose matrices cannot be simultaneously diagonalized is H_{P_0} , the space of all upper triangular Toeplitz matrices. The matrix $H_{P_0}(\mathbf{a})$ is displayed here below

$$H_{P_0}(\mathbf{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & & & a_n \\ & a_1 & a_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & a_2 \\ & & & & a_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Even the matrix P_0 , i.e. the matrix generating the space, is not diagonalizable. (We shall see, however, that H_{P_0} can be embedded in the space of $2n \times 2n$ circulants, which are diagonalizable).

Note that when $X = P_0$ or, more in general, when $X = P_\xi$, the matrices J_k are simply the powers of X , i.e. $J_k = X^{k-1}$. For example, for $n = 3$

$$J_1 = I, J_2 = X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \xi & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, J_3 = X^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \xi & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \xi & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hessenberg algebras make up a subclass of commutative matrix algebras of the class of 1-spaces defined here below

Definition. $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be a 1-space if $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with J_k such that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, \dots, n$.

An example of 1-space \mathcal{L} which is not a Hessenberg algebra is the following

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} A & JB \\ JB & A \end{bmatrix} : A, B \frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2} \text{ circulants} \right\}.$$

One can easily prove that \mathcal{L} is a non commutative matrix algebra. An example of 1-space which is not a matrix algebra is the set of all $n \times n$ symmetric Toeplitz matrices (see the next section).

Toeplitz linear systems and displacement decompositions

A $n \times n$ Toeplitz matrix is a matrix of the form $T = (t_{i-j})_{i,j=1}^n$. In applications often one has to solve Toeplitz linear systems $T\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

For example, here below is a 3×3 Toeplitz matrix:

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} t_0 & t_{-1} & t_{-2} \\ t_1 & t_0 & t_{-1} \\ t_2 & t_1 & t_0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

An example of Toeplitz matrix T is the coefficient matrix of the linear system arising when solving, by finite differences or by finite elements, the boundary value differential problem $-u'' = f$, $u(a) = \alpha$, $u(b) = \beta$. In such case T is symmetric and its first row is $[2 \ -1 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0]$. Another example, important is applied probability, is $T = (t^{|i-j|})_{i,j=1}^n$ with $|t|$ ($t \in \mathbb{C}$) less than 1.

Exercise. The vector space of all $n \times n$ symmetric Toeplitz matrices is a 1-space, being $(t_{|i-j|})_{i,j=1}^n$ equal to the sum $\sum_{k=1}^n t_{k-1} J_k$ where the J_k are the symmetric

Toeplitz matrices with first row \mathbf{e}_k^T . Prove that such 1-space is not a matrix algebra.

In the framework of displacement theory it is possible to obtain some decompositions of T^{-1} involving matrices from Hessenberg algebras (or from more general commutative h -spaces) of the type

$$T^{-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\alpha} M_k N_k, \quad 2 \leq \alpha \leq 4.$$

Usually, the matrices M_k and N_k , appearing in such formulas, can be multiplied by a vector in $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations; thus fast direct solvers of Toeplitz linear system naturally arise. Here below there is one example of such formulas:

$$T^{-1} = L_1 U_1 + L_2 U_2. \quad (GS)$$

The L_j and U_j are suitable lower and upper triangular Toeplitz matrices, i.e. elements or transposed of elements from the Hessenberg algebra H_{P_0} .

Remark. By the Gohberg-Semencul formula (GS), if the L_j and U_j are known (a way to obtain them is indicated in []), then the matrix-vector product $T^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ can be computed in at most $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations. That is, assuming preprocessing on T , the complexity of the problem of solving any Toeplitz system $T\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is at most $O(n \log_2 n)$.

proof: it is enough to prove that any Toeplitz matrix (in particular the triangular ones) can be multiplied by a vector by means of a finite number of discrete Fourier transforms. The latter result is immediate if we observe that any $n \times n$ Toeplitz matrix can be embedded into a $(2n+k) \times (2n+k)$, $k \geq 0$, circulant matrix; for example, if $n = 3$ we have

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} t_0 & t_{-1} & t_{-2} \\ t_1 & t_0 & t_{-1} \\ t_2 & t_1 & t_0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} t_0 & t_{-1} & t_{-2} & & t_2 & t_1 \\ t_1 & t_0 & t_{-1} & t_{-2} & & t_2 \\ t_2 & t_1 & t_0 & t_{-1} & t_{-2} & \\ & t_2 & t_1 & t_0 & t_{-1} & t_{-2} \\ t_{-2} & & t_2 & t_1 & t_0 & t_{-1} \\ t_{-1} & t_{-2} & & t_2 & t_1 & t_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

($k = 0$). It is clear that the vector $T \cdot \mathbf{z}$ is the first part of the vector $C \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$.

The above representation (GS) for the inverse of a Toeplitz matrix, which can be very useful in order to solve Toeplitz linear systems efficiently [], follows from the *displacement decomposition* formula stated in the following theorem

Theorem DD. Let X be a lower Hessenberg $n \times n$ matrix. Assume that $X_{ij} = X_{i+1,j+1}$, $i, j = 1, \dots, n-1$ (X has Toeplitz structure), and that $b = X_{ii+1} \neq 0$, and consider the (commutative) Hessenberg algebra H_X generated by X (note that H_X is a 1-space).

Assume that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is such that $AX - XA = \sum_{m=1}^{\alpha} \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{y}_m^T$. Then

$$bA = - \sum_{m=1}^{\alpha} H_{P_0}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_m)^T H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) + bH_X(A^T \mathbf{e}_1) \quad (DD)$$

where, for $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $H_{P_0}(\mathbf{z})$ is the upper triangular Toeplitz matrix with first row \mathbf{z}^T , $H_X(\mathbf{z})$ is the matrix of H_X with first row \mathbf{z}^T , and $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}$ is the vector $[0 \ z_1 \ \cdots \ z_{n-1}]^T$.

Note: Besides DD several other displacement decompositions hold, which can be general like DD, i.e. representing generic matrices A , or specialized for centrosymmetric A (see []). Such decompositions yield formulas for the inverses of Toeplitz, Toeplitz plus Hankel, and Toeplitz plus Hankel-like matrices useful in order to solve Toeplitz plus Hankel-like linear systems. Recall that a Hankel matrix is nothing else a matrix of the form JT where T is Toeplitz (the well known Hilbert matrix is an example of Hankel matrix).

In order to prove Theorem DD, the following Lemma is fundamental.

Lemma []. Let \mathcal{L} be a commutative 1-space of $n \times n$ matrices, i.e. $\mathcal{L} = \{\sum_k \alpha_k J_k : \alpha_k \in \mathbb{C}\}$, with $J_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $J_k J_s = J_s J_k$. Let X be an element of \mathcal{L} , and assume that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is such that $AX - XA = \mathbf{xy}^T$. Then $\mathbf{x}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y})^T = \mathbf{0}^T$.

proof: note that the equality $J_k J_s = J_s J_k$ implies $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k J_s = \mathbf{e}_1^T J_s J_k$, $\mathbf{e}_k^T J_s = \mathbf{e}_s^T J_k \ \forall s, k$, thus

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{e}_r &= \mathbf{x}^T (\sum_k y_k J_k)^T \mathbf{e}_r = \mathbf{x}^T \sum_k y_k J_k^T \mathbf{e}_r \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T \sum_k y_k J_r^T \mathbf{e}_k = \mathbf{x}^T J_r^T \sum_k y_k \mathbf{e}_k \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T J_r^T \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i,j} x_i y_j [J_r^T]_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i,j} x_i y_j [J_r]_{ji} = \sum_{i,j} [AX - XA]_{ij} [J_r]_{ji} \\ &= \sum_i [(AX - XA) J_r]_{ii} = \sum_i [(AJ_r)X - X(AJ_r)]_{ii} \\ &= \text{tr}((AJ_r)X) - \text{tr}(X(AJ_r)) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

(recall that the two matrices MN and NM , $M, N \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, have the same characteristic polynomial, even if (in case $\det(M) = \det(N) = 0$) MN and NM might be not similar each other).

We now report a draft of the proof of Theorem DD (for a more detailed proof see []). In order to obtain the equality (DD), which is of the type

$$bA = E + bH_X(A^T \mathbf{e}_1),$$

it is enough to prove that

$$EX - XE = (bA)X - X(bA), \quad (***)$$

and to observe that the first row of E is null. In fact, the above equality implies $(bA - E)X - X(bA - E) = 0$, and thus $bA - E \in H_X$. The Lemma, applied for $\mathcal{L} = H_X$, is fundamental in proving (***)

A matrix algebra which is not a 1-space: the class of spaces in \mathbb{V}

Remember that a matrix A is said symmetric if $A^T = A$ ($a_{ji} = a_{ij}$), skewsymmetric if $A^T = -A$ ($a_{ji} = -a_{ij}$) and persymmetric if $A^T = JAJ$ ($a_{ji} = a_{n+1-i, n+1-j}$).

Consider a 6×6 symmetric (-1) -circulant matrix $A \in C_{-1}^S$,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & 0 & -a_2 & -a_1 \\ a_1 & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & 0 & -a_2 \\ a_2 & a_1 & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & a_1 & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ -a_2 & 0 & a_2 & a_1 & a_0 & a_1 \\ -a_1 & -a_2 & 0 & a_2 & a_1 & a_0 \end{bmatrix},$$

a 6×6 skewsymmetric (-1) -circulant matrix $B \in C_{-1}^{SK}$, and the matrix JB ,

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_2 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & -b_2 & -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad JB = \begin{bmatrix} -b_1 & -b_2 & -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 \\ -b_2 & -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 & b_1 \\ -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ -b_1 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_2 \\ 0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_2 & b_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The vector space γ of all matrices of the type $A + JB$ has dimension equal to 6 (recall that $\dim(A + JB) = \dim(A) + \dim(JB) - \dim(A \cap JB)$).

We now show that there is not a basis $\{J_k\}$ for γ such that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$, i.e. γ is not a 1-space. Note that

$$\mathbf{e}_1^T(A + JB) = [(a_0 - b_1)(a_1 - b_2)(a_2 - b_3)(-b_2)(-a_2 - b_1)(-a_1)],$$

so, the equality $\mathbf{e}_1^T(A + JB) = \mathbf{e}_2^T$ is satisfied if and only if

$$a_0 - b_1 = 0, \quad a_1 - b_2 = 1, \quad a_2 - b_3 = 0, \quad -b_2 = 0, \quad -a_2 - b_1 = 0, \quad -a_1 = 0.$$

Since we have both the conditions $b_2 = 0$ and $b_2 = -1$, a matrix $J_2 \in \gamma$ such that $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_2 = \mathbf{e}_2^T$ cannot exist.

However, there exists a basis $\{J_k\}$ of γ satisfying the equalities $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$. For example, a matrix $J_2 \in \gamma$ with the property $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T J_2 = \mathbf{e}_2^T$ is obtained as follows. Note that

$$\mathbf{e}_6^T(A + JB) = [(-a_1)(-a_2 + b_1)(b_2)(a_2 + b_3)(a_1 + b_2)(a_0 + b_1)],$$

so, for the sum of the first and of the sixth rows of $A + JB$, we obtain the formula

$$\begin{aligned} & (\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T(A + JB) \\ &= [(a_0 - b_1 - a_1)(a_1 - b_2 - a_2 + b_1)(a_2 - b_3 + b_2)(-b_2 + a_2 + b_3)(-a_2 - b_1 + a_1 + b_2)(-a_1 + a_0 + b_1)]. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the condition $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T(A + JB) = \mathbf{e}_2^T$ is satisfied if and only if the following system of equations has solution

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 - b_1 - a_1 &= 0, & a_1 - b_2 - a_2 + b_1 &= 1, \\ a_2 - b_3 + b_2 &= 0, & -b_2 + a_2 + b_3 &= 0, \\ -a_2 - b_1 + a_1 + b_2 &= 0, & -a_1 + a_0 + b_1 &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

and such system has the unique solution $a_0 = a_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $a_2 = 0$, $b_2 = b_3 = -\frac{1}{2}$,

$b_1 = 0$. The matrix $J_2 \in \gamma$ such that $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T J_2 = \mathbf{e}_2^T$ is displayed here below:

$$J_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Analogously, one obtains the other J_k such that $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$:

$$J_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad J_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix},$$

$(a_1 = a_2 = 0, a_0 = \frac{1}{2}, b_2 = b_3 = -\frac{1}{2}, b_1 = -\frac{1}{2}), (a_0 = a_1 = a_2 = \frac{1}{2}, b_1 = b_2 = 0, b_3 = -\frac{1}{2}),$

$$J_4 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad J_5 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix},$$

$(a_0 = a_1 = a_2 = \frac{1}{2}, b_1 = b_2 = 0, b_3 = \frac{1}{2}), (a_0 = a_1 = \frac{1}{2}, a_2 = 0, b_2 = b_3 = \frac{1}{2}, b_1 = 0),$

$$J_6 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$(a_1 = a_2 = 0, a_0 = \frac{1}{2}, b_1 = b_2 = b_3 = \frac{1}{2}).$

Of course $\gamma = \text{Span}\{J_1, J_2, J_3, J_4, J_5, J_6\}$ (the J_k are linearly independent!). The matrix $\sum_k a_k J_k$ is denoted by $\gamma(\mathbf{a})$. Note that $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T \gamma(\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{a}^T$, so $\gamma(\mathbf{a})$ is called the matrix of γ whose $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)$ -row is \mathbf{a}^T .

More in general, one can easily prove that the set $\gamma = C_{-1}^S + JC_{-1}^{SK}, C_{-1}^S$ $n \times n$ symmetric (-1) -circulants, C_{-1}^{SK} $n \times n$ skewsymmetric (-1) -circulants, is a vector space of dimension n , and is a commutative matrix algebra. Moreover, it is a 1-space if and only if n is one of the integers $\{3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, \dots\}$; for the remaining values of n , i.e. for $n = 2 + 4s$ $s \in \mathbb{Z}$, no row of a matrix $A + JB$ of γ determines $A + JB$, that is, there is no index h for which there exists a basis $\{J_k\}$ of γ with the property $\mathbf{e}_h^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$. Instead, for all n the sum of the first and of the n th row of $A + JB$ determines $A + JB$, i.e. there exists a basis $\{J_k\}$ of γ with the property $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_n)^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$.

The matrices of γ can be simultaneously diagonalized by a fast discrete transform. More precisely, for any value of n the following equality holds:

$$\gamma = \{Gd(\mathbf{z})G^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\},$$

$$G_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left(\cos \frac{(2i-1)(2j-1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2i-1)(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \right), \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n$$

(see []). Note that the matrix G is real, symmetric, persymmetric and unitary. The fact that the matrix-vector product $G\mathbf{z}$ can be computed in at most $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations follows from the representation of G_n , $G_n := G$, stated in Exercise G.

Note that for $n = 6$ the matrix G has ten zeros among its entries, and that these zeros are positioned as follows:

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} & & & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus each of the vectors $G^T \mathbf{e}_k$, $k = 1, \dots, 6$, has at least one zero entry, i.e. the matrix $d(G^T \mathbf{e}_k)^{-1}$ is never well defined. The latter assertion is yet true whenever $n = 2 + 4s$ $s \in \mathbb{Z}$. In other words, γ can be represented as

$$\gamma = \{Gd(G^T \mathbf{z})d(G^T \mathbf{e}_k)^{-1}G^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}.$$

if and only $n \neq 2 + 4s$ $s \in \mathbb{Z}$ (for such n one can choose $k = 1$).

However, as one may guess from the above discussion (detailed, for $n = 6$), it can be easily shown that $[G^T(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_n)]_k \neq 0 \forall k$ and $\forall n$. So, we have the following representation for γ

$$\gamma = \{Gd(G^T \mathbf{z})d(G^T(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_n))^{-1}G^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$$

valid for all n (also for $n = 2 + 4s$ where $d(G^T \mathbf{e}_k)$ are not invertible). The latter formula confirms the fact that the matrices of γ are uniquely defined by the sum of their 1st and n th rows; in particular, since the sum of the first and of the n th row of the matrix $Gd(G^T \mathbf{a})d(G^T(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_n))^{-1}G^{-1}$ is equal to \mathbf{a}^T , we can say that such matrix is exactly the matrix $\gamma(\mathbf{a})$ (already defined above for $n = 6$), i.e. the matrix of γ whose $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_n)$ -row is \mathbf{a}^T .

It is now natural to introduce a class of spaces which include (besides the 1-spaces, like the Hessenberg algebras) also spaces like the algebra γ .

Definition. A subset \mathcal{L} of $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be a space in \mathbb{V} , if $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Given $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, the matrix $\sum_k z_k J_k \in \mathcal{L}$ is denoted by $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$. Since $\mathbf{v}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{z}^T$, $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$ is called the matrix of \mathcal{L} whose \mathbf{v} -row is \mathbf{z}^T .

Example. $\mathcal{L} = sdM = \{Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$ is in \mathbb{V} since

$$\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}, \quad J_k = Md(M^T \mathbf{e}_k)d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1},$$

for any vector \mathbf{v} such that $[M^T \mathbf{v}]_i \neq 0 \forall i$, and

$$\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{v}^T Md(M^T \mathbf{e}_k)d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1} = \mathbf{e}_k^T Md(M^T \mathbf{v})d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1} = \mathbf{e}_k^T.$$

Note that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}) = Md(M^T \mathbf{z})d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1}$.

A matrix $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be non derogatory if the condition $p(X) = 0$, p polynomial, implies $\partial p \geq n$. Note that by the Cailey-Hamilton theorem the characteristic polynomial of X is null in X . So, X is non derogatory if and only if the set $\{p(X)\}$ of all polynomials in X has dimension n . In [] it is stated the following result, which proves that \mathbb{V} is a wide class of spaces of matrices.

Theorem ND. Let X be a $n \times n$ matrix with complex entries. Then X is non derogatory if and only if $\{p(X)\} := \{p(X) : p \text{ polynomials}\}$ is in \mathbb{V} .

The Proposition here below collects several properties of the spaces in \mathbb{V} . They will be used (in the next section) in order to prove important properties of the best least squares fit in \mathcal{L} of a matrix A , holding for all spaces \mathcal{L} of a particular subclass of \mathbb{V} .

Proposition \mathbb{V} (properties of spaces in \mathbb{V}). Let \mathcal{L} be a space in \mathbb{V} , i.e. $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

(1) If $X \in \mathcal{L}$ and $\mathbf{v}^T X = \mathbf{0}^T$, then $X = 0$, thus $\mathbf{v}^T X = \mathbf{v}^T Y$, $X, Y \in \mathcal{L}$, implies $X = Y$

proof: $\mathbf{0}^T = \mathbf{v}^T X = \mathbf{v}^T \sum_k \alpha_k J_k = \sum_k \alpha_k \mathbf{e}_k^T = [\alpha_1 \ \dots \ \alpha_n] \Rightarrow \alpha_k = 0 \ \forall k$.

(2) If $J_i X \in \mathcal{L}$, $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, then $J_i X = \sum_k [X]_{ik} J_k$

proof: there exist α_k such that $J_i X = \sum_k \alpha_k J_k$; multiplying the latter identity by \mathbf{v}^T we have

$$\mathbf{e}_i^T X = \mathbf{v}^T J_i X = \sum_k \alpha_k \mathbf{e}_k^T = [\alpha_1 \ \dots \ \alpha_n]$$

which implies $\alpha_k = [X]_{ik}$.

(3) Let $P_k \in \mathbb{C}^n$ be defined by $\mathbf{e}_s^T P_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T J_s$ (note that $\mathbf{e}_k^T = \mathbf{v}^T J_k = \sum_i v_i \mathbf{e}_i^T J_k = \sum_i v_i \mathbf{e}_k^T P_i = \mathbf{e}_k^T \sum_i v_i P_i$, and thus $\sum_k v_k P_k = I$). Then the following assertions are equivalent:

(i) \mathcal{L} is closed under matrix multiplication

(ii) $J_i J_j = \sum_k [J_j]_{ik} J_k \ \forall i, j$

(iii) $P_r J_j = J_j P_r \ \forall r, j$

(iv) $P_k P_r = \sum_i [P_r]_{ki} P_i$

proof: The implication (i) \Rightarrow (ii) follows from (2) for $X = J_j$. The opposite implication is obvious. The fact that conditions (ii) and (iii) are equivalent follows by taking the (r, s) entry of the equality in (ii):

$$\mathbf{e}_i^T P_r J_j \mathbf{e}_s = \mathbf{e}_r^T J_i J_j \mathbf{e}_s = \sum_k [J_j]_{ik} [J_k]_{rs} = \sum_k [J_j]_{ik} [P_r]_{ks} = [J_j P_r]_{is}.$$

The fact that conditions (iii) and (iv) are equivalent follows from the identities:

$$[P_k P_r]_{ms} = [J_m P_r]_{ks} = [P_r J_m]_{ks} = [J_k J_m]_{rs} = \sum_i [J_k]_{ri} [J_m]_{is} = \sum_i [P_r]_{ki} [P_i]_{ms}.$$

(3.5) If $I \in \mathcal{L}$, then $\sum_i v_i J_i = I$ and $\mathbf{v}^T P_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, i.e. also the space $\text{Span}\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ is in \mathbb{V} (with the same \mathbf{v})

proof: both I and $\sum_i v_i J_i$ have \mathbf{v}^T as \mathbf{v} -row, and both, by assumption, are in \mathcal{L} , so they must be equal; moreover, we have

$$\mathbf{v}^T P_k = \sum_i v_i \mathbf{e}_i^T P_k = \sum_i v_i \mathbf{e}_k^T J_i = \mathbf{e}_k^T \sum_i v_i J_i = \mathbf{e}_k^T.$$

(4) If \mathcal{L} is closed under matrix multiplication, then

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})^T \mathbf{z}') = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}') \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}), \quad \forall \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

proof: since \mathcal{L} is closed, the matrix $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}') \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$ is in \mathcal{L} ; moreover, its \mathbf{v} -row is $\mathbf{z}'^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$; the thesis follows from the fact that also $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})^T \mathbf{z}')$ is the matrix of \mathcal{L} whose \mathbf{v} -row is $\mathbf{z}'^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$.

(5) Assume $I \in \mathcal{L}$ and \mathcal{L} closed under matrix multiplication. Then $X \in \mathcal{L}$ is non singular if and only if $\exists \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $\mathbf{z}^T X = \mathbf{v}^T$; in this case $X^{-1} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$

proof: by inspecting the k th row of the matrix $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})X$, and applying properties (3) and (3.5), we obtain the identities

$$\mathbf{e}_k^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})X = \mathbf{e}_k^T \sum_s z_s J_s X = \sum_s z_s \mathbf{e}_s^T P_k X = \mathbf{z}^T P_k X = \mathbf{z}^T X P_k = \mathbf{v}^T P_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T,$$

or, equivalently, the equality $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})X = I$, which implies that X is non singular and $X^{-1} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$.

The best least squares fit to A in $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

Given a subspace $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and a $n \times n$ matrix A , it is well defined \mathcal{L}_A , the projection on \mathcal{L} of A . In the following theorem we state some assumptions on \mathcal{L} (in particular we consider n -dimensional subspaces of $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$) which assure that \mathcal{L}_A is hermitian whenever A is, and that the eigenvalues of \mathcal{L}_A are bounded by those of A . Such assumptions imply that $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{V}$.

Theorem \mathcal{L}_A . Assumptions:

$\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $I \in \mathcal{L}$, $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with J_k such that

$$J_i^H J_j = \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{[J_k]_{ij}} J_k, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n. \quad (*)$$

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$.

$\mathcal{L}_A \in \mathcal{L}$, $\|A - \mathcal{L}_A\|_F \leq \|A - X\|_F$, $\forall X \in \mathcal{L}$ (such matrix \mathcal{L}_A is well defined since $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is a Hilbert space with respect the norm $\|\cdot\|_F$ induced by the inner product $(A, B)_F = \sum_{ij} \overline{a_{ij}} b_{ij}$ and \mathcal{L} is a subspace of $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$).

Thesis: If $A = A^H$, then $\mathcal{L}_A = \mathcal{L}_A^H$ and $\min \lambda(A) \leq \lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) \leq \max \lambda(A)$.

Note: if A is real symmetric, then \mathcal{L}_A is in general hermitian; it is real symmetric under the further condition that \mathcal{L} is spanned by real matrices (prove it!).

Note: we shall see that the hypotheses of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A are satisfied by spaces of the type $\{Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$ if $M^H M$ is diagonal and its diagonal entries are positive; however, the same hypotheses can be satisfied also by non commutative spaces (we shall see an example, for others see []), so also in the latter cases we can say that the conclusions of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A hold.

Applications of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A . If the conditions of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A are satisfied, then \mathcal{L}_A is positive definite (i.e. $\mathcal{L}_A = \mathcal{L}_A^H$ and $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n \mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{z}^H \mathcal{L}_A \mathbf{z}$ positive) whenever A is positive definite. So, in order to solve the linear system

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}, \quad A \text{ positive definite}$$

we can solve the equivalent system

$$\mathcal{L}_A^{-1} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathcal{L}_A^{-1} \mathbf{b}$$

whose coefficient matrix has real and positive eigenvalues, often better distributed than those of A (this results, for example when solving $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ iteratively, in less iterations).

Moreover, if the conditions of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A are satisfied and \mathcal{L} is spanned by real matrices, then \mathcal{L}_A is real positive definite (i.e. $\mathcal{L}_A = \mathcal{L}_A^T$, $\mathcal{L}_A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, and $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n \mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{z}^H \mathcal{L}_A \mathbf{z}$ positive) whenever A is real positive definite. That is, the following implications hold

$$\begin{aligned} B_k \text{ real positive definite} &\Rightarrow \\ \mathcal{L}_{B_k} \text{ real positive definite} &\Rightarrow \\ \varphi(\mathcal{L}_{B_k}, \mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{y}_k) \text{ real positive definite} &\Rightarrow \\ \mathcal{L}_{\varphi(\mathcal{L}_{B_k}, \mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{y}_k)} \text{ real positive definite} & \end{aligned}$$

(provided $\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k$ is positive), and thus both the S and NS LQN search directions,

$$\mathbf{d}_{k+1} = -\varphi(\mathcal{L}_{B_k}, \mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{y}_k)^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{d}_{k+1} = -\mathcal{L}_{\varphi(\mathcal{L}_{B_k}, \mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{y}_k)}^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}),$$

are well defined descent directions in \mathbf{x}_{k+1} for the function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (see [] for the definitions of B_k , \mathbf{s}_k , \mathbf{y}_k , φ , S and NS LQN).

proof (of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A): The matrix $\mathcal{L}_A = \sum_s \alpha_s J_s$ is uniquely defined by the following condition

$$(X, A - \mathcal{L}_A)_F = 0, \quad X \in \mathcal{L}$$

or, equivalently, by the n conditions $(J_k, A - \sum_s \alpha_s J_s)_F = 0$, $k = 1, \dots, n$, which can be rewritten as follows

$$\sum_{s=1}^n (J_k, J_s)_F \alpha_s = (J_k, A)_F, \quad k = 1, \dots, n.$$

In other words we have the formula

$$\mathcal{L}_A = \sum_s [B^{-1} \mathbf{c}]_s J_s, \quad B_{ks} = (J_k, J_s)_F, \quad c_k = (J_k, A)_F, \quad k, s = 1, \dots, n.$$

Remark. B is positive definite, i.e. $B = B^*$ and $\mathbf{z}^H B \mathbf{z} > 0 \forall \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n \mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0}$.

proof: $\overline{B_{ks}} = \overline{(J_k, J_s)_F} = (J_s, J_k)_F = B_{sk}$, that is, B is a hermitian matrix. Moreover, since $0 < (\sum_s z_s J_s, \sum_s z_s J_s)_F = \sum_{k,s} \overline{z_k} z_s (J_k, J_s)_F = \mathbf{z}^H B \mathbf{z}$ whenever $\mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0}$, the matrix B is also positive definite.

Remark. Let $v_k \in \mathbb{C}$ be such that $I = \sum_k v_k J_k$ (such v_k exist because $I \in \mathcal{L}$). Then the vector \mathbf{v} whose entries are the v_k satisfies the equalities $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, thus $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{V}$ and all results stated for spaces in \mathbb{V} hold for our space \mathcal{L} .

proof: Multiply (*) by $\overline{v_i}$ and sum on i :

$$\overline{v_i} J_i^H J_j = \sum_k \overline{v_i} [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} J_k, \quad J_j = \sum_k \left(\sum_i \overline{v_i} [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} \right) J_k = \sum_k (\mathbf{v}^H \overline{J_k} \mathbf{e}_j) J_k.$$

This implies $\mathbf{v}^H \overline{J_k} \mathbf{e}_j = 0$ if $k \neq j$ and $\mathbf{v}^H \overline{J_k} \mathbf{e}_j = 1$ if $k = j$, i.e. $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$.

As an immediate consequence of the above two Remarks, we have that \mathcal{L}_A is the matrix of \mathcal{L} whose \mathbf{v} -row is $(B^{-1} \mathbf{c})^T$,

$$\mathcal{L}_A = \sum_s [B^{-1} \mathbf{c}]_s J_s = \mathcal{L}(B^{-1} \mathbf{c}),$$

and, moreover,

$$\mathcal{L}_A = \mathcal{L}(B^{-1} \mathbf{c}) = \mathcal{L}((B^H)^{-1} \mathbf{c}) = \mathcal{L}((\overline{B}^{-1})^T \mathbf{c}).$$

Remark. \mathcal{L} is closed under conjugate transposition.

proof: multiply (*) by v_j and sum on j :

$$J_i^H v_j J_j = \sum_k v_j [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} J_k, \quad J_i^H = \sum_k \left(\sum_j v_j [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} \right) J_k \Rightarrow J_i^H \in \mathcal{L}.$$

The latter Remark yields part of the thesis of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A , because it implies that $\mathcal{L}_A^H \in \mathcal{L}$, and this fact together with the equalities

$$\|A - \mathcal{L}_A\|_F = \|A^H - \mathcal{L}_A^H\|_F = \|A - \mathcal{L}_A^H\|_F$$

(remember that our A is hermitian!) and the unicity of the best approximation of A , yield the identity $\mathcal{L}_A = \mathcal{L}_A^H$. In other words, under our conditions on \mathcal{L} the projection on \mathcal{L} of a hermitian matrix is hermitian too.

Remark. \mathcal{L} is closed under matrix multiplication (\mathcal{L} is a matrix algebra).

proof: the set $\{J_i^H\}$ forms an alternative basis for \mathcal{L} (prove it!), thus there exist $z_i^{(s)} \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $J_s = \sum_i z_i^{(s)} J_i^H$. Multiply (*) by $z_i^{(s)}$ and sum on i ,

$$z_i^{(s)} J_i^H J_j = \sum_k z_i^{(s)} [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} J_k, \quad J_s J_j = \sum_k \left(\sum_i z_i^{(s)} [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} \right) J_k,$$

to observe that $J_s J_j \in \mathcal{L}$.

Remark. $\overline{B} = \sum_k \overline{\text{tr}(J_k)} J_k$, thus $\overline{B} \in \mathcal{L}$, and, since \overline{B} is non singular (it is positive definite!), by the result \forall (5) also the matrix \overline{B}^{-1} is in \mathcal{L} .

proof: by equality (*) we have:

$$\begin{aligned} B_{ij} &= (J_i, J_j)_F = \sum_{r,t} \overline{[J_i]_{rt}} [J_j]_{rt} = \sum_{r,t} [J_i^H]_{tr} [J_j]_{rt} \\ &= \sum_t [J_i^H J_j]_{tt} = \sum_t \sum_k [\overline{J_k}]_{ij} [J_k]_{tt} = \sum_k \text{tr}(J_k) [\overline{J_k}]_{ij}. \end{aligned}$$

The latter two Remarks, together with \forall (4), let us rewrite again \mathcal{L}_A as follows

$$\mathcal{L}_A = \dots = \mathcal{L}((\overline{B}^{-1})^T \mathbf{c}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c}) \overline{B}^{-1}.$$

Now note that there exists a hermitian matrix M such that $M^2 = \overline{B}^{-1}$, and that the matrices \mathcal{L}_A and $M \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c}) M$ have the same eigenvalues (by the last

representation of \mathcal{L}_A they are similar!). So, if $\lambda(\mathcal{L}_A)$ is the generic eigenvalue of \mathcal{L}_A , then there exists $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1$ such that

$$\lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) = \mathbf{x}^H M \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c}) M \mathbf{x} = (M \mathbf{x})^H \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c}) (M \mathbf{x}).$$

Remark. If $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, then $\mathbf{z}^H \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{z} = \sum_k (P_k^H \mathbf{z})^H A (P_k^H \mathbf{z})$.

proof: here again equality (*) is fundamental:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}^H \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{z} &= \mathbf{z}^H (\sum_k (J_k, A)_F J_k) \mathbf{z} \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \overline{z_i} z_j \sum_{r,t=1}^n a_{rt} \sum_k \overline{[J_k]_{ij}} [J_k]_{rt} \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \overline{z_i} z_j \sum_{r,t=1}^n a_{rt} \overline{[J_i^H J_j]_{rt}} \\ &= \sum_{r,t=1}^n a_{rt} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \overline{z_i} z_j \sum_k \overline{[J_i^H]_{rk}} [J_j]_{kt} \\ &= \sum_k \sum_{r,t} a_{rt} (\sum_i z_i [P_k^H]_{ri}) (\sum_j z_j [P_k^H]_{tj}) \\ &= \sum_k \sum_{r,t} a_{rt} \overline{(P_k^H \mathbf{z})_r} (P_k^H \mathbf{z})_t. \end{aligned}$$

By the above Remark we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) &= \sum_k (P_k^H M \mathbf{x})^H A (P_k^H M \mathbf{x}) \leq \max \lambda(A) \sum_k (P_k^H M \mathbf{x})^H (P_k^H M \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \max \lambda(A) \mathbf{x}^H M (\sum_k P_k P_k^H) M \mathbf{x}. \end{aligned}$$

But the matrix in the brackets is nothing else the matrix \overline{B} :

Remark. $\overline{B} = \sum_k P_k P_k^H$

proof:

$$B_{ij} = (J_i, J_j)_F = \sum_{r,s} \overline{[J_i]_{rs}} [J_j]_{rs} = \sum_{r,s} \overline{[P_r]_{is}} [P_r]_{js} = \sum_{r,s} \overline{[P_r]_{is}} [P_r^T]_{sj} = \sum_r \overline{[P_r P_r^T]_{ij}}.$$

We can now conclude one of the inequalities (stated in Theorem \mathcal{L}_A) satisfied by the eigenvalues of A and \mathcal{L}_A :

$$\lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) \leq \max \lambda(A) \mathbf{x}^H M M^{-2} M \mathbf{x} = \max \lambda(A) \mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{x} = \max \lambda(A).$$

Analogously, one can prove that $\lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) \geq \min \lambda(A)$. \square

Exercise DG. Prove that the *dihedral group* space

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} X & JY \\ JY & X \end{bmatrix} : X, Y \frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2} \text{ circulants} \right\}$$

satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A , i.e. $I \in \mathcal{L}$, $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span} \{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with J_k linearly independent such that

$$J_i^H J_j = \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{[J_k]_{ij}} J_k, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n.$$

Thus, the projection \mathcal{L}_A on \mathcal{L} is hermitian and such that $\min \lambda(A) \leq \lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) \leq \max \lambda(A)$ whenever A is hermitian. Note that \mathcal{L} is not commutative.

Proposition cV (properties of commutative spaces in \mathbb{V}) [mitia]. Let \mathcal{L} be a space in \mathbb{V} , i.e. $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span} \{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Assume that \mathcal{L} is commutative. Then

(1) $\mathbf{e}_i^T J_j = \mathbf{e}_j^T J_i, \forall i, j$, and thus $J_k = P_k$

proof: $J_i J_j = J_j J_i \Rightarrow \mathbf{v}^T J_i J_j = \mathbf{v}^T J_j J_i$, and the definition $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ yields the thesis.

(2) $\mathbf{z}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}') = \mathbf{z}'^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$

proof: by (1) we have

$$\mathbf{z}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}') = \sum_i z_i \mathbf{e}_i^T \sum_k z'_k J_k = \sum_i z_i \sum_k z'_k \mathbf{e}_k^T J_i = \sum_k z'_k \mathbf{e}_k^T \sum_i z_i J_i.$$

(3) $I = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{v}) \in \mathcal{L}$

proof: note that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{v}) = \sum v_i J_i \in \mathcal{L}$ and $\mathbf{e}_k^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{v}) = \sum_i v_i \mathbf{e}_i^T J_k = \mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, so $I = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{v}) \in \mathcal{L}$.

(4) \mathcal{L} is closed under matrix multiplication

proof: from (1) we have that $J_k = P_k$, thus $P_k J_s = J_k J_s = J_s J_k = J_s P_k$, which is one of the necessary and sufficient conditions for the multiplicative closure.

Example of commutative $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{V}$. Let M be a non singular $n \times n$ matrix with complex entries, and set $\mathcal{L} = sdM = \{Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$. Note that $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{V}$, in fact if \mathbf{v} is any vector such that $[M^T \mathbf{v}]_k \neq 0, \forall k$, then the matrices $J_k = Md(M^T \mathbf{e}_k)d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1}$ satisfy the identities $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ and span \mathcal{L} . We have, for \mathcal{L} , the following alternative representation:

$$\mathcal{L} = \{Md(M^T \mathbf{z})d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}.$$

It is clear that the matrix of \mathcal{L} whose \mathbf{v} -row is \mathbf{z}^T is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}) = Md(M^T \mathbf{z})d(M^T \mathbf{v})^{-1}M^{-1}.$$

Obviously, \mathcal{L} is commutative.

Proposition ch \mathbb{V} (properties of commutative, closed under conjugate transposition spaces in \mathbb{V}) [stefano]. Let \mathcal{L} be a space in \mathbb{V} , i.e. $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Assume that \mathcal{L} is commutative and closed under conjugate transposition. Then, besides the above c \mathbb{V} (1),(2),(3),(4), we have

$$J_i^H J_j = \sum_k \overline{[J_k]_{ij}} J_k, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n$$

proof: since $J_i^H \in \mathcal{L}$ and \mathcal{L} is commutative, one has $J_i^H J_j = J_j J_i^H$; since \mathcal{L} is closed under matrix multiplication and $J_i^H \in \mathcal{L}$, one has that $J_j J_i^H \in \mathcal{L}$; by \mathbb{V} (2), it follows that

$$J_i^H J_j = J_j J_i^H = \sum_k [J_i^H]_{jk} J_k = \sum_k \overline{[J_i]_{kj}} J_k = \sum_k \overline{[J_k]_{ij}} J_k,$$

where in the latter identity we have used property c \mathbb{V} (1).

Example of commutative, closed under conjugate transposition $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{V}$. Let M be a non singular $n \times n$ matrix with complex entries, and set $\mathcal{L} = sdM = \{Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$. We already know that \mathcal{L} is a space in \mathbb{V} which is commutative. We want to prove that \mathcal{L} is closed under conjugate transposition if and only if $M^H M$ is diagonal with positive diagonal entries. Moreover, in

such case there is a diagonal matrix $d(\mathbf{w})$ $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $\tilde{M} = Md(\mathbf{w})$ is unitary and $\mathcal{L} = \{\tilde{M}d(\mathbf{z})\tilde{M}^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$.

One implication is easy: assume $M^H M = D$, D_{ii} positive $\forall i$, $D_{ij} = 0$ $i \neq j$; then

$$(Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1})^H = (M^H)^{-1}d(\bar{\mathbf{z}})M^H = MD^{-1}d(\bar{\mathbf{z}})DM^{-1} = Md(\bar{\mathbf{z}})M^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}.$$

Now assume that \mathcal{L} is closed under conjugate transposition. Thus, for any $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ there exists $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $(Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1})^H = Md(\mathbf{w})M^{-1}$. But this implies

$$d(\bar{\mathbf{z}})C = Cd(\mathbf{w}), \quad C = M^H M,$$

or, equivalently, $c_{ij}\bar{z}_i = c_{ij}w_j$. Assume the z_i distinct. Then the identities $c_{i1}\bar{z}_i = c_{i1}w_1$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, imply $c_{i1} = 0$ for all i except one of them, say i_1 (otherwise, $c_{i1} \neq 0$ and $c_{k1} \neq 0$, $i \neq k$, would imply $w_1 = \bar{z}_i = \bar{z}_k$!). Analogously, the identities $c_{i2}\bar{z}_i = c_{i2}w_2$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, imply $c_{i2} = 0$ for all i except one of them, say i_2 , and such i_2 must be different from i_1 otherwise C would be singular. Proceeding in this way one concludes that

$$C = DR, \quad D \text{ diagonal, } R \text{ permutation.}$$

The fact that C is hermitian implies that the permutation matrix R must be symmetric. The fact that the diagonal entries of C cannot be zero implies that R is the identity. Finally, the fact that C is positive definite implies that D_{ii} are real and positive. Let us prove the last assertion. For $\tilde{M} = Md(\mathbf{w})$ we have

$$\tilde{M}^H \tilde{M} = d(\bar{\mathbf{w}})M^H Md(\mathbf{w}) = d(\bar{\mathbf{w}})Dd(\mathbf{w}).$$

Choose $|w_i| = 1/\sqrt{D_{ii}}$; then $\tilde{M}^H \tilde{M} = I$ and, for any $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1} = Md(\mathbf{w})d(\mathbf{z})d(\mathbf{w})^{-1}M^{-1} = \tilde{M}d(\mathbf{z})\tilde{M}^{-1} = \tilde{M}d(\mathbf{z})\tilde{M}^H$.

Question. Find an example of \mathcal{L} satisfying the assumptions of Proposition chV which is not of the type $\{Md(\mathbf{z})M^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$, $M^H M$ diagonal with positive diagonal entries.

Remark. If $\mathcal{L} = \{Ud(\mathbf{z})U^* : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n\}$ where U is a unitary matrix, then the thesis of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A can be proved very simply as follows. Since $\forall \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$$\|A - Ud(\mathbf{z})U^*\|_F = \|U^*AU - d(\mathbf{z})\|_F,$$

it is clear that $\|A - Ud(\mathbf{z})U^*\|_F$ is minimum for $z_i = (U^*AU)_{ii}$. So, the following formula for \mathcal{L}_A holds

$$\mathcal{L}_A = U \text{diag}((U^*AU)_{ii})U^*$$

from which it immediately follows the assertion: $A = A^* \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}_A$ hermitian and $\min \lambda(A) \leq \lambda(\mathcal{L}_A) \leq \max \lambda(A)$. As an application compute $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^T}$, $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

Other remarks/exercises on spaces in \mathbb{V}

Exercise. Prove that there are (besides I) infinite matrices in the algebra γ whose first row is \mathbf{e}_1^T .

Exercise. Consider the matrix in Exercise G. Prove that the sum of its first and last rows is a vector with all entries nonzero (i.e. γ is a space in \mathbb{V} with $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_n$)

proof: for $j = 1, \dots, n$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}
[G]_{1j} + [G]_{nj} &= \left(\cos \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \right) \\
&\quad + \left(\cos \frac{(2n-1)(2j-1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2n-1)(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \right) \\
&= \left(\cos \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \right) \\
&\quad + \left(\cos \left((2j-1)\pi - \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \right) + \sin \left((2j-1)\pi - \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \right) \right) \\
&= \cos \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \\
&\quad - \cos \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} + \sin \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} = 2 \sin \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2n} \neq 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Exercise. Prove that any n -dimensional space $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with the property $\mathbf{Ae}_j = \mathbf{0} \forall A \in \mathcal{L}$ cannot be in \mathbb{V} . (Suggestion: show that $J_j \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\mathbf{v}^T J_j = \mathbf{e}_j^T$ does not exist).

Exercise. Let \mathcal{L} be in \mathbb{V} and closed under matrix multiplication. Prove that

- (i) If the matrices in \mathcal{L} are symmetric, then \mathcal{L} is commutative
- (ii) If the matrices in \mathcal{L} are persymmetric, then \mathcal{L} is commutative

proof: by the assumptions on \mathcal{L} , we have, in the symmetric case,

$$J_s J_k = J_s^T J_k^T = (J_k J_s)^T = J_k J_s,$$

and, in the persymmetric case,

$$J_s J_k = J_s J J J_k = J J_s^T J_k^T J = J((J_k J_s)^T) J = J(J J_k J_s J) J = J_k J_s.$$

Question. And if we start from the more general definition $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span}\{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{u}_k$ for some $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u}_k \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $\mathbf{u}_k^H \mathbf{u}_s = 0$ $k \neq s$?

EXERCISE.

$$P_\xi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \\ \xi & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \xi \neq 0$$

(1) If $\rho^n = \xi$ and $\omega^n = 1$, then

$$P_\xi \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \rho \omega^j \\ \rho^{n-1} \omega^{(n-1)j} \end{bmatrix} = \rho \omega^j \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \rho \omega^j \\ \rho^{n-1} \omega^{(n-1)j} \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

Thus, if $W = (\omega^{ij})_{i,j=0}^{n-1}$ and $D_{1\rho^{n-1}} = \text{diag}(\rho^i, i = 0, \dots, n-1)$, then

$$P_\xi(D_{1\rho^{n-1}}W) = (D_{1\rho^{n-1}}W)\rho D_{1\omega^{n-1}}, \quad D_{1\omega^{n-1}} = \text{diag}(\omega^j, j = 0, \dots, n-1).$$

(2) If, moreover, $|\xi| = 1$ and $\omega^i \neq 1$ $0 < i < n$, then $U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}D_{1\rho^{n-1}}W$ is unitary and

$$\begin{aligned}
C_\xi &:= H_{P_\xi} = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n z_k P_\xi^{k-1} : z_k \in \mathbb{C} \right\} \\
&= \left\{ Ud(\mathbf{z})U^* : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n \right\} = \left\{ Ud(U^T \mathbf{z})d(U^T \mathbf{e}_1)^{-1}U^{-1} : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

The matrix $C_\xi(\mathbf{a}) := \sum_{k=1}^n a_k P_\xi^{k-1} = Ud(U^T \mathbf{a})d(U^T \mathbf{e}_1)^{-1}U^{-1}$ is the ξ -circulant matrix whose first row is \mathbf{a}^T :

$$C_\xi(\mathbf{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_{n-1} & a_n \\ \xi a_n & a_1 & & & \\ \xi a_3 & & & & a_2 \\ \xi a_2 & \xi a_3 & \dots & \xi a_n & a_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

EXERCISE.

Set $X = P_1 + P_1^T$.

1) Find a convenient representation for the set C^S of all polynomials in X , and deduce the dimension of C^S .

2) Prove that any matrix of the form $C_1 + JC_2$, C_1, C_2 circulants, J anti-identity, belongs to the space $\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : AX = XA\}$. Deduce a lower bound for the dimension of $\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : AX = XA\}$.

Repeat the exercise for $X = P_{-1} + P_{-1}^T$.

EXERCISE

1) Write precisely an algorithm that computes the matrix-vector product $T \cdot \mathbf{z}$, $T = (t_{i-j})_{i,j=1}^n$, in $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations.

2) Write an algorithm that computes the matrix-vector product $(T^{-1}) \cdot \mathbf{z}$ in $O(n \log_2 n)$ arithmetic operations (after preprocessing on T).

EXERCISE

Do exercise DG

EXERCISE Prove Theorem DD

EXERCISE Let T be a $n \times n$ Toeplitz matrix

1) Prove that $TP_0 - P_0T$ has rank at most 2, and write the Gohberg-Semencul formula for T^{-1}

2) Let H be a Hankel matrix, i.e. $H = (h_{i+j-2})_{i,j=1}^n$, and show that $(T + H)(P_0 + P_0^T) - (P_0 + P_0^T)(T + H)$ has rank at most 4

3) Write the matrix of the algebra τ whose first row is $[2 \ -1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0]$, and observe that it is a Toeplitz matrix. Call A such matrix and compute A^{-1} explicitly by using the fact that $A^{-1} \in \tau$ (so, it is sufficient to compute its first row). Is A^{-1} a Toeplitz matrix ?

4) Do exercise Ttau

EXERCISE Under the assumptions of Theorem \mathcal{L}_A

1) prove the last of the following identities

$$\mathcal{L}_A = \mathcal{L}(B^{-1}\mathbf{c}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c})\overline{B}^{-1} = \overline{B}^{-1}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{c})$$

(hint: find an expression of \overline{B} in terms of the matrices P_k , $\mathbf{e}_s^T P_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T J_s \forall s, k$)

2) prove that B is positive definite (besides hermitian)

EXERCISE (0) Let $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $\mathcal{L} = \text{Span} \{J_1, \dots, J_n\}$ with $\mathbf{v}^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$ for some vector \mathbf{v} (that is, $\mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{V}$). Assume that \mathcal{L} is closed under matrix multiplication, that $I \in \mathcal{L}$, and that $J_i^H = \alpha_i J_{t_i}$, $|\alpha_i| = 1 \forall i$, for some $t_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

(1) Prove that $J_i^H J_j = \sum_k \overline{[J_k]_{ij}} J_k$, $\forall i, j$.

(2) Assume that $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is a group with identity element 1. Prove that the space

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L} &= \{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : a_{ij} = a_{si, sj}, \forall i, j, s \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \\ &= \{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : a_{ij} = a_{1, i^{-1}j}, \forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}\end{aligned}$$

satisfies the assumptions (0). (Any space \mathcal{L} of this type is usually called *group matrix algebra*; for example, circulants and the \mathcal{L} in Exercise DG are group matrix algebras).

(3) Prove that the space \mathcal{L} spanned by the matrices $J_1 = I$,

$$J_2 = \begin{bmatrix} & 1 & & \\ 1 & & & \\ & & \mathbf{i} & \\ & -\mathbf{i} & & \end{bmatrix}, J_3 = \begin{bmatrix} & 1 & & \\ & & -\mathbf{i} & \\ 1 & & & \\ & \mathbf{i} & & \end{bmatrix}, J_4 = \begin{bmatrix} & & & 1 \\ & & \mathbf{i} & \\ & -\mathbf{i} & & \\ 1 & & & \end{bmatrix},$$

satisfies the assumptions (0). Prove that \mathcal{L} is not commutative.

EXERCISE Let T be a symmetric Toeplitz matrix.

(1) Compute the first row of C_T where C is the space of circulant matrices

(2) Compute the first row of τ_T where τ is the space of tau matrices

(3) Compute the first row of \mathcal{L}_T where \mathcal{L} is the space in the point (3) of the previous exercise (so, $n = 4$)

(4) Compute the vector $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T \gamma_T$ where γ is the space of all 6×6 gamma matrices (i.e. assume $n = 6$).

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Solving EXERCISES:

$C_{-1}^S + JC_{-1}^{SK}$ is a commutative matrix algebra. Assume $A_i \in C_{-1}^S$, $B_i \in C_{-1}^{SK}$. Note that A_i and B_i are also persymmetric. Then

$$\begin{aligned}(A_0 + JB_0)(A_1 + JB_1) &= A_0A_1 + A_0JB_1 + JB_0A_1 + JB_0JB_1 \\ &= A_0A_1 + JA_0B_1 + JB_0A_1 + B_0^T B_1.\end{aligned}$$

Since A_0A_1 is (-1) -circulant and $(A_0A_1)^T = A_1^T A_0^T = A_1A_0 = A_0A_1$, A_0B_1 is (-1) -circulant and $(A_0B_1)^T = B_1^T A_0^T = -B_1A_0 = -A_0B_1$ (C_{-1} is closed under matrix multiplication and is commutative), we have $A_0A_1 \in C_{-1}^S$ and $A_0B_1 \in C_{-1}^{SK}$.

Since $B_0^T B_1$ is (-1) -circulant and $(B_0^T B_1)^T = B_1^T B_0 = -B_1B_0 = -B_1(-B_0^T) = B_1B_0^T = B_0^T B_1$, B_0A_1 is (-1) -circulant and $(B_0A_1)^T = A_1^T B_0^T = -A_1B_0 =$

$-B_0A_1$ (C_{-1} is closed under transposition and matrix multiplication, and commutative), we have $B_0^T B_1 \in C_{-1}^S$ and $B_0A_1 \in C_{-1}^{SK}$.

Proof of Theorem DD.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left[\sum H_{P_0}(\mathbf{x}_m)^T H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \right] X - X \left[\sum H_{P_0}(\mathbf{x}_m)^T H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \right] \\
&= \sum [H_{P_0}(\mathbf{x}_m)^T X - X H_{P_0}(\mathbf{x}_m)^T] H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \\
&= b \sum [H_{P_0}(\cdot)^T P_0 - P_0 H_{P_0}(\cdot)^T] H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \\
&= b \sum \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & & \\ & (\mathbf{x}_m)_1 & \\ & & \end{array} \right] - \left[\begin{array}{ccc} (\mathbf{x}_m)_1 & & \\ & (\mathbf{x}_m)_{n-1} & (\mathbf{x}_m)_1 \\ & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \\
&= b \sum \left[\begin{array}{ccc} -(\mathbf{x}_m)_1 & & \\ & -(\mathbf{x}_m)_{n-1} & \\ & & 0 \end{array} \right] H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \\
&= b \sum (-\mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{e}_1^T + \mathbf{e}_n \mathbf{x}_m^T J) H_X(\mathbf{y}_m) \\
&= b \sum (-\mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{y}_m^T + \mathbf{e}_n \mathbf{x}_m^T H_X(\mathbf{y}_m)^T J) = \dots
\end{aligned}$$

Compute the first row of C_T . Let $J_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be the circulant matrices with first row \mathbf{e}_k^T , $k = 1, \dots, n$. Let us compute $(B^{-1}\mathbf{c})^T$ with respect to such basis (i.e. the first row of C_A) when A is a symmetric Toeplitz matrix. So, we have

$$A = T = \begin{bmatrix} t_0 & t_1 & & t_{n-1} \\ t_1 & t_0 & & \\ & & t_1 & \\ t_{n-1} & & t_1 & t_0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(J_1, A)_F &= nt_0, (J_2, A)_F = (n-1)t_1 + t_{n-1}, (J_3, A)_F = (n-2)t_2 + 2t_{n-2}, \\
(J_4, A)_F &= (n-3)t_3 + 3t_{n-3}, \dots, (J_n, A)_F = t_{n-1} + (n-1)t_1,
\end{aligned}$$

and thus

$$(J_k, A)_F = (n-k+1)t_{k-1} + (k-1)t_{n-k+1}, \quad k = 1, \dots, n.$$

Since $B = nI$, we have $B^{-1} = \frac{1}{n}I$, and

$$[B^{-1}\mathbf{c}]_k = \frac{1}{n}((n-k+1)t_{k-1} + (k-1)t_{n-k+1}), \quad k = 1, \dots, n.$$

Compute the first row of τ_T . Let $J_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be the τ matrices with first row \mathbf{e}_k^T , $k = 1, \dots, n$. Let us compute $(B^{-1}\mathbf{c})^T$ with respect to such basis (i.e. the first row of τ_A) when A is a symmetric Toeplitz matrix. So, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(J_1, A)_F &= nt_0, (J_2, A)_F = 2(n-1)t_1, (J_3, A)_F = (n-2)t_0 + 2(n-2)t_2, \\
(J_4, A)_F &= 2(n-3)t_1 + 2(n-3)t_3, (J_5, A)_F = (n-4)t_0 + 2(n-4)t_2 + 2(n-4)t_4.
\end{aligned}$$

One can guess that

$$(J_k, A)_F = (n-k+1)[\delta_{k,o}t_0 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{[k/2]} t_{k-2j+1}], \quad k = 1, \dots, n,$$

where $\delta_{k,o} = 1$ if k is odd and $\delta_{k,o} = 0$ if k is even. Since $B^{-1} = \frac{1}{2n+2}(3J_1 - J_3)$ (prove such formula!), we have

$$\begin{aligned}(B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_1 &= \frac{1}{2n+2}(3(J_1, A)_F - (J_3, A)_F), & (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_2 &= \frac{1}{2n+2}(2(J_2, A)_F - (J_4, A)_F), \\ (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_k &= \frac{1}{2n+2}(-(J_{k-2}, A)_F + 2(J_k, A)_F - (J_{k+2}, A)_F), \\ (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_{n-1} &= \frac{1}{2n+2}(-(J_{n-3}, A)_F + 2(J_{n-1}, A)_F), & (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_n &= \frac{1}{2n+2}(-(J_{n-2}, A)_F + 3(J_n, A)_F).\end{aligned}$$

It is not difficult to conclude that

$$\begin{aligned}(B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_1 &= \frac{1}{n+1}((n+1)t_0 - (n-2)t_2), \\ (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_k &= \frac{1}{n+1}((n-k+3)t_{k-1} - (n-k-1)t_{k+1}), \quad k = 2, \dots, n-1, \\ (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})_n &= \frac{1}{n+1}(3t_{n-1}).\end{aligned}$$

Compute the sum of the first row and of the last row of γ_T . We know that

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_T &= \sum_{k=1}^6 [B^{-1}\mathbf{c}]_k J_k = Gd(G^T B^{-1}\mathbf{c})d(G^T(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6))^{-1}G^{-1}, \\ (\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T \gamma_T &= (B^{-1}\mathbf{c})^T, \quad B_{ij} = (J_i, J_j)_F, \quad c_i = (J_i, T)_F,\end{aligned}$$

where the J_k are the matrices in γ with the property $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k = 1, \dots, 6$ (they have been written explicitly above). So, we have to compute the vector $B^{-1}\mathbf{c}$. Recall that we expect (from theory) that B, B^{-1} are matrices in γ :

$$B = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B^{-1} = \frac{1}{12} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 3t_0 \\ 3t_0 + 5t_1 - t_5 \\ 3t_0 + 5t_1 + 4t_2 - 2t_4 - t_5 \\ 3t_0 + 5t_1 + 4t_2 - 2t_4 - t_5 \\ 3t_0 + 5t_1 - t_5 \\ 3t_0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that B, B^{-1} are symmetric (-1) -circulant matrices, which is a stronger condition than the expected $B, B^{-1} \in \gamma$. Moreover, note that the vector \mathbf{c} is centrosymmetric; thus, since B^{-1} is centrosymmetric, i.e. $JB^{-1} = B^{-1}J$ (it is both symmetric and persymmetric!), the vector $B^{-1}\mathbf{c}$ is expected to be centrosymmetric. In fact, we have

$$\gamma_T(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6) = B^{-1}\mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{12} \begin{bmatrix} -6t_0 + 5t_1 + 4t_2 - 2t_4 - t_5 \\ 8t_2 - 4t_4 \\ 6t_0 + 5t_1 - 4t_2 + 2t_4 - t_5 \\ 6t_0 + 5t_1 - 4t_2 + 2t_4 - t_5 \\ 8t_2 - 4t_4 \\ -6t_0 + 5t_1 + 4t_2 - 2t_4 - t_5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that a γ matrix $A + JB$ with $(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T(A + JB)$ centrosymmetric must be in C_{-1}^S ; more precisely, the following implication holds:

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_6)^T(A + JB) &= [z_1 \ z_2 \ z_3 \ z_3 \ z_2 \ z_1] \\ \Rightarrow a_2 = z_3, \quad a_1 = z_2 + z_3, \quad a_0 = z_1 + z_2 + z_3, \quad b_i = 0 \ \forall i.\end{aligned}$$

In our case:

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{12}(6t_0+5t_1-4t_2+2t_4-t_5), a_1 = \frac{1}{12}(6t_0+5t_1+4t_2-2t_4-t_5), a_0 = \frac{1}{12}(10t_1+8t_2-4t_4-2t_5)$$

But γ_T should coincide with the T.Chan $(C_1)_T$! ... is there something wrong ?

An alternative preconditioner for Toeplitz systems?

Consider the $(n-2) \times (n-2)$ τ matrix with first row $[a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_{n-2}]$ and call it $\tau_{a_1 a_{n-2}}$. For example

$$n=5: \tau_{a_1 a_3} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_2 & a_1+a_3 & a_2 \\ a_3 & a_2 & a_1 \end{bmatrix}, n=6: \tau_{a_1 a_4} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ a_2 & a_1+a_3 & a_2+a_4 & a_3 \\ a_3 & a_2+a_4 & a_1+a_3 & a_2 \\ a_4 & a_3 & a_2 & a_1 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

Consider the $n \times n$ matrix

$$A_{a_1 a_{n-2}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}^T & 0 \\ \mathbf{0} & \tau_{a_1 a_{n-2}} & \mathbf{0} \\ 0 & \mathbf{0}^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

For example,

$$n=5: A_{a_1 a_3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & a_1+a_3 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & a_3 & a_2 & a_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, n=6: A_{a_1 a_4} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & a_1+a_3 & a_2+a_4 & a_3 & 0 \\ 0 & a_3 & a_2+a_4 & a_1+a_3 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & a_4 & a_3 & a_2 & a_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

We want to find $\tau_{A_{a_1 a_{n-2}}}$, i.e. the $n \times n$ τ matrix defined by the following minimization property

$$\|\tau_{A_{a_1 a_{n-2}}} - A_{a_1 a_{n-2}}\|_F = \min\{\|X - A_{a_1 a_{n-2}}\|_F : X \in \tau, X \ n \times n\}.$$

Let J_k be the $n \times n$ τ matrices defined by the conditions $\mathbf{e}_1^T J_k = \mathbf{e}_k^T$, $k=1, \dots, n$, and set $\tau_{A_{a_1 a_{n-2}}} = \tau(\mathbf{z}) := \sum_k z_k J_k$. We want to find \mathbf{z} . We know that if $B_{ij} = (J_i, J_j)_F$, $c_i = (J_i, A_{a_1 a_{n-2}})_F$, then $\mathbf{z} = B^{-1}\mathbf{c}$.

For example for $n=5$:

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 9 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, c = \begin{bmatrix} 3a_1+a_3 \\ 4a_2 \\ 3a_1+3a_3 \\ 4a_2 \\ 3a_3+a_1 \end{bmatrix}, B^{-1} = \frac{1}{12} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{z} = B^{-1}\mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 3a_1 \\ 2a_2 \\ a_1+a_3 \\ 2a_2 \\ 3a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$n = 6$:

Since $B_{ij} = (J_i, J_j)$ and $B \in \tau$, one can easily obtain the first row of B and write down B :

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 0 & 6 & 0 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 & 12 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 12 & 0 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 6 & 0 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, c = \begin{bmatrix} 4a_2 + 2a_3 \\ 6a_2 + 2a_4 \\ 6a_3 + 4a_1 \\ 6a_2 + 4a_4 \\ 6a_3 + 2a_1 \\ 4a_4 + 2a_2 \end{bmatrix}, B^{-1} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 6 + 2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{z} = B^{-1}\mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 4a_1 \\ 3a_2 \\ a_1 + 2a_3 \\ 2a_2 + a_4 \\ 3a_3 \\ 4a_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise. Prove that

$$B^{-1} = \frac{1}{2n+2}(3J_1 - J_3)$$

(first find B and \mathbf{w} such that $\mathbf{w}^T B = \mathbf{e}_1^T$, then $B^{-1} = \tau(\mathbf{w})$).

By observing the \mathbf{z} obtained for $n = 5$, $n = 6$ (see above), and in the cases $n = 7$ and $n = 8$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}^T &= \frac{1}{8}[5a_1 \ 4a_2 \ a_1 + 3a_3 \ 2a_2 + 2a_4 \ 3a_3 + a_5 \ 4a_4 \ 5a_5], \\ \mathbf{z}^T &= \frac{1}{9}[6a_1 \ 5a_2 \ a_1 + 4a_3 \ 2a_2 + 3a_4 \ 3a_3 + 2a_5 \ 4a_4 + a_6 \ 5a_5 \ 6a_6], \end{aligned}$$

one can conjecture a formula for \mathbf{z} in case n is generic:

Exercise. Prove that $\tau_{A_{a_1 a_{n-2}}} = \tau(\mathbf{z})$ with

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}^T &= \frac{1}{n+1} \left[[0 \ 0 \ a_1 \ 2a_2 \ \cdots \ (n-4)a_{n-4} \ (n-3)a_{n-3} \ (n-2)a_{n-2}] \right. \\ &\quad \left. + [(n-2)a_1 \ (n-3)a_2 \ (n-4)a_3 \ \cdots \ 2a_{n-3} \ a_{n-2} \ 0 \ 0] \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (**)$$

APPLICATION. Let $T = (t_{|i-j|})_{i,j=1}^n$ be a symmetric Toeplitz matrix. It is easy to realize that

$$T = \tau_{t_0 t_{n-1}} - A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}, \quad A_{t_2 t_{n-1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}^T & 0 \\ \mathbf{0} & \tau_{t_2 t_{n-1}} & \mathbf{0} \\ 0 & \mathbf{0}^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

From the equality

$$T = \tau_{t_0 t_{n-1}} - \tau_{A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}} + \tau_{A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}} - A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}$$

follows the inequality:

$$\|T - \tau_T\|_F \leq \|\tau_{A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}} - A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}\|_F = \|T - (\tau_{t_0 t_{n-1}} - \tau_{A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}})\|_F.$$

However, the τ matrix $\tau_{t_0 t_{n-1}} - \tau_{A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}}$ could be for some reasons (...) a preconditioner for T better than τ_T . Note that $\tau_{A_{t_2 t_{n-1}}} = \tau(\mathbf{z})$ where \mathbf{z}^T is like in (**) but with a_i replaced by t_{i+1} , $i = 1, \dots, n-2$.

Displacement decompositions.

Let \mathcal{L} be in \mathbb{V} , and X a matrix in \mathcal{L} . Assume that \mathcal{L} is commutative.

Denote by $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$ the matrix of \mathcal{L} whose \mathbf{v} -row is \mathbf{z}^T , and assume that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})^T Q = \tilde{Q} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z})$, $\forall \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$. (For example, the latter condition is satisfied with $Q = \tilde{Q} = I$ if \mathcal{L} is symmetric, or with $Q = \tilde{Q} = J$ if \mathcal{L} is persymmetric).

Assume $AX - XA = \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{y}_m^T$. Then

$$\sum_m \mathbf{x}_m^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m)^T = \mathbf{0}^T$$

($\sum_m \mathbf{x}_m^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m)^T \mathbf{e}_k = \dots = 0$), and thus

$$\begin{aligned} AX - XA &= \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{y}_m^T \\ &= \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{v}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \\ &= \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \\ &= \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\ &= \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} - \mathbf{b} \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m)^T Q \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\ &= \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} - \mathbf{b} \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{Q} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\ &= \sum_m (\mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T - \mathbf{b} \mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{Q}) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\ &= \sum_m (\mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T - \mathbf{b} \mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{Q}) \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{T^{-1}} \mathbf{y}_m) \end{aligned}$$

(\mathbf{w} must be chosen such that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ is non singular; it can be simply chosen equal to \mathbf{v} so that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = I$).

We want to find Z_m ($Z_m = R_m + E_m$) such that

$$Z_m X - X Z_m = \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T - \mathbf{b} \mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{Q} \quad (*)$$

so that $A - \sum_m Z_m \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{T^{-1}} \mathbf{y}_m)$ must be a matrix commuting with X

Note that the left hand side in (*) has zero trace. Thus, if \mathcal{L} is symmetric, since $\tilde{Q} = I$, then \mathbf{b} must be chosen equal to \mathbf{w} (otherwise the right hand side may have nonzero trace). If \mathcal{L} is persymmetric, since $\tilde{Q} = J$, then \mathbf{b} must be chosen equal to $J\mathbf{w}$ (for the same reason).

Symmetric case:

$$Z_m X - X Z_m = \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T - \mathbf{w} \mathbf{x}_m^T.$$

...

Persymmetric case:

$$Z_m X - X Z_m = \mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{w}^T - J \mathbf{w} \mathbf{x}_m^T J.$$

...

NOTE: Assume moreover \mathcal{L} both symmetric and persymmetric. Then we

have also

$$\begin{aligned}
JAJX - XJAJ &= JAXJ - JXAJ = J(AX - XA)J \\
&= \sum_m J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{y}_m^T J \\
&= \sum_m J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{v}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) J \\
&= \sum_m J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) J \\
&= \sum_m J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\
&= \sum_m J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} - \mathbf{c} \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m^T \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) S \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\
&= \sum_m J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} - \mathbf{c} \sum_m \mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{S} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\
&= \sum_m (J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J - \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{S}) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_m) \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \\
&= \sum_m (J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J - \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{S}) \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_m)
\end{aligned}$$

By summing this result with the previous one, we obtain

$$(A+JAJ)X - X(A+JAJ) = \sum_m (\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T + J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J - \mathbf{b}\mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{Q} - \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{S}) \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_m)$$

(\mathbf{w} must be chosen such that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ is non singular; it can be simply chosen equal to \mathbf{v} so that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = I$).

We want to find Z_m ($Z_m = R_m + E_m$) such that

$$Z_m X - X Z_m = \mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T + J\mathbf{x}_m\mathbf{w}^T J - \mathbf{b}\mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{Q} - \mathbf{c}\mathbf{x}_m^T \tilde{S} \quad (*')$$

(see page 209 of DiF,Zell, LAA 268 (1998) for a matrix Z_m satisfying (*')) so that $A+JAJ - \sum_m Z_m \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_m)$ must be a matrix commuting with X Note that if A is centrosymmetric, i.e. $A=JAJ$, (as in the case of A =symmetric Toeplitz matrix), then one can conclude that $2A - \sum_m Z_m \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_m)$ must be a matrix commuting with X , from which we have a representation for A ...

Note that the left hand side in (*) has zero trace. Thus, if $S = \tilde{S} = I$ then $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{w}$ and $Q = \tilde{Q}$ can be chosen either equal to I (in such case $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{w}$) or equal to J (in such case $\mathbf{b} = J\mathbf{w}$). If $S = \tilde{S} = J$ then $\mathbf{c} = J\mathbf{w}$ and $Q = \tilde{Q}$ can be chosen either equal to I (in such case $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{w}$) or equal to J (in such case $\mathbf{b} = J\mathbf{w}$). Compare with page 209 of DiF,Zell, LAA 268 (1998).

Displacement decompositions involving spaces in \mathbb{V}

1) Look for $\tau = \tau_1(\mathbf{z})$ matrices of rank one.

2) Verify if there exist \mathbf{v} such that $\tau_{\mathbf{v}}(A^T \mathbf{v}) = \tau_1(A^T \mathbf{v}) \tau_1(\mathbf{v})^{-1} = \tau_1(\mathbf{z})$ with \mathbf{z} as in 1), and such that $\tau_1(\mathbf{v})$ is non singular (or equivalently that τ is a in \mathbb{V} for such \mathbf{v}).

3) Find a displacement decomposition of the type

$$A = \square + \tau_{\mathbf{v}}(A^T \mathbf{v}), \quad \mathbf{v}^T \square = \mathbf{0}^T$$

where \mathbf{v} is as in 2) (so that $\tau_{\mathbf{v}}(A^T \mathbf{v})$ has rank 1 !). Attempt:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{v}^T \sum_{m=1}^{\alpha} Z_m \mathcal{L}_m &= \sum_{m=1}^{\alpha} (\mathbf{v}^T Z_m) \mathcal{L}_m = \sum_{m=1}^{\alpha} \left(\mathbf{v}^T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{v_1} [\dots 1m] \\ \frac{1}{v_2} [\dots 2m] \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{v_n} [\dots nm] \end{bmatrix} \right) \mathcal{L}_m \\
&= [\dots 1m] + [\dots 2m] + \dots + [\dots nm] = \mathbf{x}_m^T
\end{aligned}$$

τ matrices of rank 1

First observe that the entry $(1,1)$ of a non null τ matrix A of rank 1 must be nonzero. In fact, if $A_{11} = 0$, then also $A_{12} = 0$ because $A_{12} \neq 0$ would imply $A_{21} \neq 0$ (A is symmetric!) and so A would have rank at least 2. Thus $A_{11} = 0$ implies $A_{12} = 0$ and, by symmetry, $A_{21} = 0$. But then also A_{13} must be zero because $A_{13} \neq 0$ would imply $A_{31} \neq 0$ and so A would have rank at least 2. Going on one proves that the first row and column of A must be null, so A itself must be the null matrix.

A faster proof is the following: if $A \in \tau$, $A = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T$ and $A_{11} = 0$, then $u_1v_1 = 0$, and thus either u_1 or v_1 must be zero; but $u_1 = 0$ ($v_1=0$) implies $\mathbf{e}_1^T A = \mathbf{0}^T$ ($A\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{0}$), that is, $A = 0$ since $A \in \tau$.

n odd:

τ matrices A of rank one for $n = 3$: since A is in τ , is symmetric, is per-symmetric, and its second column is a multiple of its first column, it must be (unless a multiplier) of the type

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 + \beta \\ \beta & \alpha \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha^2 = 1 + \beta, \quad \alpha\beta = \alpha.$$

We have two possible alternatives, $\alpha = 0$, $\beta = -1$, and $\beta = 1$, $\alpha = \pm\sqrt{2}$ ($\alpha^2 - 2 = 0$):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pm\sqrt{2} & 1 \\ \pm\sqrt{2} & 2 & \pm\sqrt{2} \\ 1 & \pm\sqrt{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So, there are three 3×3 rank one τ matrices. Note that they are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ or, equivalently, the three vectors that define them are orthogonal.

τ matrices A of rank one for $n = 5$: since A is in τ , is symmetric, is per-symmetric, and its second column is a multiple of its first column, it must be (unless a multiplier) of the type

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 + \beta \\ \beta & \alpha + \gamma \\ \gamma & \beta + \delta \\ \delta & \gamma \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha^2 = 1 + \beta, \quad \alpha\beta = \alpha + \gamma, \quad \alpha\gamma = \beta + \delta, \quad \alpha\delta = \gamma.$$

First observe that $\delta \neq 0$ since $\delta = 0$ would imply $\gamma = \beta = 0$, $\alpha = 0$, $\beta = -1$. So, the conditions become

$$\delta\alpha^2 = \delta + \beta\delta, \quad \alpha\beta = \alpha + \alpha\delta, \quad \alpha^2\delta = \beta + \delta, \quad \alpha\delta = \gamma$$

The first and the third imply $\beta = \beta\delta$. We have two possible alternatives. For $\beta = 0$ we have the equation $\alpha^2 - 1 = 0$ and thus $\alpha = \pm 1$, $\beta = 0$, $\gamma = \mp 1$, $\delta = -1$. For $\beta \neq 0$ we have the equation $\alpha^3 - 3\alpha = 0$ and thus either $\alpha = 0$,

$\delta = 1, \beta = -1, \gamma = 0$ or $\alpha = \pm\sqrt{3}, \delta = 1, \beta = 2, \gamma = \pm\sqrt{3}$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pm 1 & 0 \\ \pm 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \mp 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & \mp 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pm\sqrt{3} & 2 \\ \pm\sqrt{3} & 3 & \pm 2\sqrt{3} \\ 2 & \pm 2\sqrt{3} & 4 \\ \pm\sqrt{3} & 3 & \pm 2\sqrt{3} \\ 1 & \pm\sqrt{3} & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So, there are five 5×5 rank one τ matrices. Note that they are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ or, equivalently, the five vectors that define them are orthogonal.

τ matrices A of rank one for $n = 7$: since A is in τ , is symmetric, is per-symmetric, and its second column is a multiple of its first column, it must be (unless a multiplier) of the type

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 + \beta \\ \beta & \alpha + \gamma \\ \gamma & \beta + \delta \\ \delta & \gamma + \sigma \\ \sigma & \delta + \rho \\ \rho & \sigma \end{bmatrix}, \alpha^2 = 1 + \beta, \alpha\beta = \alpha + \gamma, \alpha\gamma = \beta + \delta, \alpha\delta = \gamma + \sigma, \alpha\sigma = \delta + \rho, \alpha\rho = \sigma.$$

First observe that $\rho \neq 0$ since $\rho = 0$ would imply $\sigma = \delta = \gamma = \beta = 0, \alpha = 0, \beta = -1$. So, the conditions become

$$\rho\alpha^2 = \rho + \beta\rho, \alpha\beta = \alpha + \gamma, \alpha\gamma = \beta + \delta, \alpha\delta = \gamma + \alpha\rho, \alpha^2\rho = \delta + \rho, \alpha\rho = \sigma$$

The second implies $\gamma = \alpha(\beta - 1)$. The first and the fifth imply $\delta = \beta\rho$. So that the third and the fourth become $\alpha\gamma = \beta(1 + \rho), \alpha\rho(\beta - 1) = \gamma$. It follows that $\alpha\rho(\beta - 1) = \alpha(\beta - 1)$.

We have three possible alternatives. For $\alpha = 0$ we have $\alpha = 0, \beta = -1, \gamma = 0, \delta = 1, \sigma = 0, \rho = -1$. For $\beta = 1$ we have $\alpha = \pm\sqrt{2}, \beta = 1, \gamma = 0, \delta = -1, \sigma = \mp\sqrt{2}, \rho = -1$. For $\rho = 1$ we have $\alpha^2 = 2 \pm \sqrt{2}, \beta = 1 \pm \sqrt{2}, \gamma = \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2}), \delta = \beta, \sigma = \alpha, \rho = 1$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pm\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ \pm\sqrt{2} & 2 & \pm\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1 & \pm\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & \mp\sqrt{2} & -1 & 0 \\ \mp\sqrt{2} & -2 & \mp\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ -1 & \mp\sqrt{2} & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha & 1 \pm \sqrt{2} & \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2}) \\ \alpha & \alpha^2 & \alpha(1 \pm \sqrt{2}) & \alpha^2(\pm\sqrt{2}) \\ 1 \pm \sqrt{2} & \alpha(1 \pm \sqrt{2}) & 3 \pm 2\sqrt{2} & \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2} + 2) \\ \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2}) & \alpha^2(\pm\sqrt{2}) & \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2} + 2) & 2\alpha^2 \\ 1 \pm \sqrt{2} & \alpha(1 \pm \sqrt{2}) & 3 \pm 2\sqrt{2} & \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2} + 2) \\ \alpha & \alpha^2 & \alpha(1 \pm \sqrt{2}) & \alpha^2(\pm\sqrt{2}) \\ 1 & \alpha & 1 \pm \sqrt{2} & \alpha(\pm\sqrt{2}) \end{bmatrix}, \alpha^2 = 2 \pm \sqrt{2}.$$

So, there are seven 7×7 rank one τ matrices. Note that they are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ or, equivalently, the seven vectors that define them are orthogonal.

Another important remark. If $A \in \tau$ is such that $\mathbf{e}_2^T A = \alpha \mathbf{e}_1^T A$, then $\forall i$ there exist ξ_i such that $\mathbf{e}_i^T A = \xi_i \mathbf{e}_1^T A$. In other words, in order to make a τ matrix of rank one it is sufficient to impose that its second row (column) is a multiple of its first row (column).

proof: Let \mathbf{z}^T be the first row of A . Then $A = \tau(\mathbf{z})$. The proof is by induction on i :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{e}_i^T A &= \mathbf{e}_i^T \tau(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{z}^T \tau(\mathbf{e}_i) = \mathbf{z}^T (\tau(\mathbf{e}_{i-1})\tau(\mathbf{e}_2) - \tau(\mathbf{e}_{i-2})) \\ &= \mathbf{e}_{i-1}^T \tau(\mathbf{z})\tau(\mathbf{e}_2) - \mathbf{e}_{i-2}^T \tau(\mathbf{z}) = \xi_{i-1} \mathbf{z}^T \tau(\mathbf{e}_2) - \xi_{i-2} \mathbf{z}^T \\ &= \xi_{i-1} \xi_2 \mathbf{z}^T - \xi_{i-2} \mathbf{z}^T = (\xi_{i-1} \xi_2 - \xi_{i-2}) \mathbf{z}^T. \end{aligned}$$

So, $\xi_1 = 1$, $\xi_2 = \alpha$, $\xi_i = \xi_{i-1} \xi_2 - \xi_{i-2}$, $i = 3, \dots, n$.

n even:

$n = 2$:

Assume that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ is in τ . Then, since it is symmetric, is persymmetric, and its second column is a multiple of its first column, it must be (unless a multiplier) of the type

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha^2 = 1.$$

$$(1): \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \alpha - 1 = 0$$

$$(-1): \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \alpha + 1 = 0$$

So, there are two 2×2 rank one τ matrices. Note that they are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ or, equivalently, the two vectors that define them are orthogonal.

$n = 4$:

Assume that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{4 \times 4}$ is in τ . Then, since it is symmetric, is persymmetric, and its second column is a multiple of its first column, it must be (unless a multiplier) of the type

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha & & \\ \alpha & 1 + \beta & & \\ \beta & \alpha + \gamma & & \\ \gamma & \beta & & \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha^2 = 1 + \beta, \quad \alpha\beta = \alpha + \gamma, \quad \alpha\gamma = \beta.$$

Observe that $\gamma \neq 0$ since $\gamma = 0$ would imply $\alpha = \beta = 0$, $\beta = -1$. So, the conditions become $\gamma\alpha^2 = \gamma + \alpha\gamma^2$, $\alpha^2\gamma = \alpha + \gamma$, $\alpha\gamma = \beta$. They imply $\alpha\gamma^2 = \alpha$, and thus (since $\alpha \neq 0$) $\gamma^2 = 1$.

So, we have necessarily either $\gamma = 1, \beta = \alpha$ or $\gamma = -1, \beta = -\alpha$. Such cases will be referred respectively (1) and (-1):

$$(1) : \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha(\alpha) = 1 + \alpha, \text{ or}$$

$$g_2^+(\alpha) = \alpha(\alpha - 1) - 1 = \alpha^2 - \alpha - 1 = 0, \quad \alpha = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

($\alpha(\alpha)$ must be equal to $1 + \alpha$ by the cross-sum condition applied for $(i, j) = (2, 1)$)

$$(-1) : \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ -\alpha \\ -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha(\alpha) = 1 - \alpha \text{ or}$$

$$g_2^-(\alpha) = \alpha(\alpha + 1) - 1 = \alpha^2 + \alpha - 1 = 0, \quad \alpha = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

($\alpha(\alpha)$ must be equal to $1 + (-\alpha)$ by the cross-sum condition applied for $(i, j) = (2, 1)$).

Note that the zeros of g_2^- are the opposite of the zeros of g_2^+ .

So, there are four 4×4 rank one τ matrices. Note that they are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ or, equivalently, the four vectors that define them are orthogonal.

$n = 6$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 + \beta \\ \beta & \alpha + \gamma \\ \gamma & \beta + \delta \\ \delta & \gamma + \sigma \\ \sigma & \delta \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha^2 = 1 + \beta, \quad \alpha\beta = \alpha + \gamma, \quad \alpha\gamma = \beta + \delta, \quad \alpha\delta = \gamma + \sigma, \quad \alpha\sigma = \delta.$$

The above conditions imply necessarily either $\sigma = 1, \delta = \alpha, \gamma = \beta$ or $\sigma = -1, \delta = -\alpha, \gamma = -\beta$. Such cases will be referred respectively (1) and (-1):

$$(1) : \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha(\alpha^2 - 1) = \alpha + (\alpha^2 - 1) \text{ or}$$

$$g_3^+(\alpha) = \alpha(\alpha^2 - \alpha - 1) - (\alpha - 1) = \alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1 = 0$$

($\alpha(\alpha^2 - 1)$ must be equal to $\alpha + (\alpha^2 - 1)$ by the cross-sum condition applied for

$(i, j) = (3, 1)$

$$(-1): \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ -(\alpha^2 - 1) \\ -\alpha \\ -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha(\alpha^2 - 1) = \alpha - (\alpha^2 - 1) \text{ or}$$

$$g_3^-(\alpha) = \alpha(\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1) - (\alpha + 1) = \alpha^3 + \alpha^2 - 2\alpha - 1 = 0$$

$(\alpha(\alpha^2 - 1)$ must be equal to $\alpha + (-(\alpha^2 - 1))$ by the cross-sum condition applied for $(i, j) = (3, 1)$).

Note that the zeros of g_3^- are the opposite of the zeros of g_3^+ . Note, moreover, that the zeros of g_3^+ (g_3^-) are distinct.

So, there are six linearly independent 6×6 rank one τ matrices. Computer says that if α_k^\pm , $k = 1, 2, 3$, are the zeros of g_3^\pm , then

$$1 + \alpha_k^\pm \alpha_s^\pm + ((\alpha_k^\pm)^2 - 1)((\alpha_s^\pm)^2 - 1) = 0,$$

i.e. the vector $[1 \ \alpha_k^\pm \ (\alpha_k^\pm)^2 - 1 \ \pm ((\alpha_k^\pm)^2 - 1) \ \pm \alpha_k^\pm \ \pm 1]^T$ is orthogonal to the vector $[1 \ \alpha_s^\pm \ (\alpha_s^\pm)^2 - 1 \ \pm ((\alpha_s^\pm)^2 - 1) \ \pm \alpha_s^\pm \ \pm 1]^T$. It follows that such six 6×6 rank one τ matrices are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ (because the six vectors that define them are orthogonal).

Question:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1 = 0 \\ \beta^3 - \beta^2 - 2\beta + 1 = 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow 1 + \alpha\beta + (\alpha^2 - 1)(\beta^2 - 1) = 0$$

? Answer: since the roots are: 1.802, -1.25, 0.445 (Tommaso 18/11/2010), it seems yes

$n = 8$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 + \beta \\ \beta & \alpha + \gamma \\ \gamma & \beta + \delta \\ \delta & \gamma + \sigma \\ \sigma & \delta + \rho \\ \rho & \sigma + x \\ x & \rho \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha^2 = 1 + \beta, \ \alpha\beta = \alpha + \gamma, \ \alpha\gamma = \beta + \delta, \ \alpha\delta = \gamma + \sigma, \ \alpha\sigma = \delta + \rho, \ \alpha\rho = \sigma + x, \ \alpha x = \rho.$$

The above conditions imply necessarily either $x = 1$, $\rho = \alpha$, $\sigma = \beta$, $\delta = \gamma$ or $x = -1$, $\rho = -\alpha$, $\sigma = -\beta$, $\delta = -\gamma$. Such cases will be referred respectively (1)

and (-1) :

$$(1) : \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha^3 - 2\alpha \\ \alpha^3 - 2\alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha(\alpha^3 - 2\alpha) = (\alpha^2 - 1) + (\alpha^3 - 2\alpha) \text{ or}$$

$$g_4^+(\alpha) = \alpha(\alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1) - (\alpha^2 - \alpha - 1) = \alpha^4 - \alpha^3 - 3\alpha^2 + 2\alpha + 1$$

$$= (\alpha - 1)(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha - 1) = 0$$

$(\alpha(\alpha^3 - 2\alpha))$ must be equal to $(\alpha^2 - 1) + (\alpha^3 - 2\alpha)$ by the cross-sum condition applied for $(i, j) = (4, 1)$)

$$(-1) : \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha^3 - 2\alpha \\ -(\alpha^3 - 2\alpha) \\ -(\alpha^2 - 1) \\ -\alpha \\ -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\alpha(\alpha^3 - 2\alpha) = (\alpha^2 - 1) - (\alpha^3 - 2\alpha) \text{ or}$$

$$g_4^-(\alpha) = \alpha(\alpha^3 + \alpha^2 - 2\alpha - 1) - (\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1) = \alpha^4 + \alpha^3 - 3\alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1$$

$$= (\alpha + 1)(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha + 1) = 0$$

$(\alpha(\alpha^3 - 2\alpha))$ must be equal to $(\alpha^2 - 1) + (-\alpha^3 + 2\alpha)$ by the cross-sum condition applied for $(i, j) = (4, 1)$).

Note that the zeros of g_4^- are the opposite of the zeros of g_4^+ . ??? FROM HERE Note, moreover, that the zeros of g_4^+ (g_4^-) are distinct.

So, there are eight linearly independent 8×8 rank one τ matrices. Computer says that if α_k^\pm , $k = 1, 2, 3, 4$, are the zeros of g_4^\pm , then

$$1 + \alpha_k^\pm \alpha_s^\pm + ((\alpha_k^\pm)^2 - 1)((\alpha_s^\pm)^2 - 1) + ((\alpha_k^\pm)^3 - 2\alpha_k^\pm)((\alpha_s^\pm)^3 - 2\alpha_s^\pm) = 0,$$

i.e. the vector $[1 \ \alpha_k^\pm \ (\alpha_k^\pm)^2 - 1 \ (\alpha_k^\pm)^3 - 2\alpha_k^\pm \ \pm((\alpha_k^\pm)^3 - 2\alpha_k^\pm) \ \pm((\alpha_k^\pm)^2 - 1) \ \pm \alpha_k^\pm \ \pm 1]^T$ is orthogonal to the vector $[1 \ \alpha_s^\pm \ (\alpha_s^\pm)^2 - 1 \ (\alpha_s^\pm)^3 - 2\alpha_s^\pm \ \pm((\alpha_s^\pm)^3 - 2\alpha_s^\pm) \ \pm((\alpha_s^\pm)^2 - 1) \ \pm \alpha_s^\pm \ \pm 1]^T$. It follows that such six 8×8 rank one τ matrices are orthogonal with respect the inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$ (because the eight vectors that define them are orthogonal). TO HERE I HAVE TO CHECK ???

Set $p_0(\alpha) = 1$, $p_1(\alpha) = \alpha$, $p_{i+1}(\alpha) = \alpha p_i(\alpha) - p_{i-1}(\alpha)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$ ($p_i(\alpha)$ is the characteristic polynomial of the $i \times i$ upper-left submatrix of $P_0 + P_0^T$). We observe, in general, that for n even generic we have the following n rank one τ matrices:

$$(1) : \quad (\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T, \quad \mathbf{u}_k^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_k^+ \\ J\mathbf{x}_k^+ \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}_k^+ = \begin{bmatrix} p_0(\alpha_k^+) \\ p_1(\alpha_k^+) \\ \vdots \\ p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha_k^+) \end{bmatrix}, \quad k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2},$$

$$\alpha_k^+ \text{ zeri di } \alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) + p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha)$$

If the polynomial

$$g_{\frac{n}{2}}^+(\alpha) = \alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha)$$

has distinct real zeros (I have to check if this is true), then the vectors \mathbf{u}_k^+ are linearly independent. (Such polynomial should coincide with the polynomial obtained in the particular cases (1) $n = 2, 4, 6, 8$).

$$(-1) : (\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T, \mathbf{u}_k^- = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_k^- \\ -J\mathbf{x}_k^- \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_k^- = \begin{bmatrix} p_0(\alpha_k^-) \\ p_1(\alpha_k^-) \\ \vdots \\ p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha_k^-) \end{bmatrix}, k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2},$$

$$\alpha_k^- \text{ zeri di } \alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = -p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) + p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha)$$

If the polynomial

$$g_{\frac{n}{2}}^-(\alpha) = \alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) + p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha)$$

has distinct real zeros (I have to check if this is true), then the vectors \mathbf{u}_k^- are linearly independent. (Such polynomial should coincide with the polynomial obtained in the particular cases (-1) $n = 2, 4, 6, 8$).

Note that the zeros of $g_{\frac{n}{2}}^+$ are the opposite of the zeros of $g_{\frac{n}{2}}^-$ (I have to check if this is true).

Note that $(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T(\mathbf{u}_s^-) = 0 \forall k, s$. So, if the "distinct condition" on the zeros is satisfied, then $\{(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T, (\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T : k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2}\}$ is a set of n linearly independent rank one τ matrices, and $\tau = \text{Span}\{(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T\} + \text{Span}\{(\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T\}$ with $\text{Span}\{(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T\}$ orthogonal to $\text{Span}\{(\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T\}$.

For $n = 4$ it also happens that $(\mathbf{u}_1^+)^T(\mathbf{u}_2^+) = 0 = (\mathbf{u}_1^-)^T(\mathbf{u}_2^-)$. So, for $n = 4$ we have 4 *orthogonal* rank one τ matrices.

Is for $n = 6$ yet true that $(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T(\mathbf{u}_s^+) = 0 = (\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T(\mathbf{u}_s^-) s \neq k, k = 1, \dots, 3$? In other words, is for $n = 6$ the basis $\{(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T, (\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T : k = 1, 2, 3\}$ of τ an orthogonal basis? SOLVED with Computer with "yes" (see above).

For $n = 8$?

Call $\mathbf{u}_k, k = 1, \dots, n$, the above (orthogonal) vectors \mathbf{u}_k^+ and \mathbf{u}_k^- . Let \mathbf{v} be such that $\tau_1(\mathbf{v}) = Sd(S^T\mathbf{v})d(S^T\mathbf{e}_1)^{-1}S^{-1}$ is invertible ($d(S^T\mathbf{v})$ non singular), so that the matrix $\tau_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{z})$ is well defined. Note that $\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}_k \neq 0 \forall k \dots$ (this fact is assured by the the assumption $d(S^T\mathbf{v})$ non singular, since, we shall see, the \mathbf{u}_k are nothing else, unless a multiplier, the columns of S).

Since the $\mathbf{u}_k\mathbf{u}_k^T$ form an (orthogonal) basis for τ , there exist c_k such that $\tau_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k\mathbf{u}_k\mathbf{u}_k^T$. We want to give a formula for such c_k .

$$\begin{aligned} Sd(S^T\mathbf{z})d(S^T\mathbf{v})^{-1}S^{-1} &= \sum_{k=1}^n c_k Sd(S^T(\mathbf{u}_k\mathbf{u}_k^T)\mathbf{v})d(S^T\mathbf{v})^{-1}S^{-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n c_k (\mathbf{u}_k^T\mathbf{v}) Sd(S^T\mathbf{u}_k)d(S^T\mathbf{v})^{-1}S^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

if and only if

$$\mathbf{z} = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k (\mathbf{u}_k^T\mathbf{v})\mathbf{u}_k.$$

Note that the $\mathbf{u}_k^T\mathbf{v}$ must be all non zero; in fact, if one of them is zero, we would have that any vector \mathbf{z} (with n entries) can be written as a linear combination

of only $n - 1$ vectors. For the c_k in the latter equality we can obtain an explicit formula; in fact, by the orthogonality of the \mathbf{u}_k ,

$$\mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{z} = \sum_k c_k (\mathbf{u}_k^T \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{u}_k = c_s (\mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{u}_s.$$

Thus

$$c_s = \frac{\mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{z}}{(\mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{v})(\mathbf{u}_s^T \mathbf{u}_s)}.$$

So

$$\tau_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\mathbf{u}_k^T \mathbf{z}}{(\mathbf{u}_k^T \mathbf{v})(\mathbf{u}_k^T \mathbf{u}_k)} \mathbf{u}_k \mathbf{u}_k^T$$

Question: $\mathbf{u}_k^T \mathbf{u}_k = ?$

Question: is

$$\mathbf{v}^T = [1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = [1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1^T \\ \frac{1}{\mathbf{u}_n^T \mathbf{u}_n} \mathbf{u}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

(which is such that $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}_k = 1 \ \forall k$) such that $\tau_1(\mathbf{v})$ is invertible? ... yes since in such case

$$[S^T \mathbf{v}]_i = [S^T \left[\frac{1}{\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 \ \dots \ \frac{1}{\mathbf{u}_n^T \mathbf{u}_n} \mathbf{u}_n \right] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}]_i \neq 0, \ \forall i$$

and the \mathbf{u}_k , we shall see, are nothing else, unless a multiplier, the columns of S .

I think I have simply found again the sine transform S , that is the matrix $\sin(ij\pi/(n+1))$.

More precisely, the vectors \mathbf{u}_k^+ e \mathbf{u}_k^- that define my n rank one orthogonal τ matrices $((\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T$ e $(\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T$, $k = 1, \dots, n/2$) are nothing else, unless a multiplier, the columns of the sine matrix. I have observed this for small values of n .

Thus, it is obvious that the $(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T$, $(\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T$, $k = 1, \dots, n/2$, are a basis, orthogonal with respect to $(\cdot, \cdot)_F$, of τ .

proof: if $A \in \tau$, then $A = SDS^T = \sum_i D_{ii} (\text{column } i \text{ of } S)(\text{column } i \text{ of } S)^T$.

Even the fact that such n matrices $(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T$, $(\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T$, $k = 1, \dots, n/2$, are τ matrices, is not a novelty.

proof: since for any diagonal D the matrix SDS^T belongs τ , it is sufficient to choose $D = \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i^T$ in order to prove that the matrices $(\text{column } i \text{ of } S)(\text{column } i \text{ of } S)^T$ are in τ .

Moreover, rank of $A \in \tau$ is 1 if and only if rank of D in $A = SDS$ is 1 if and only if $D = \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i^T$ unless a multiplier.

Consider the unitary sine matrix S . Note that the columns \mathbf{c}_j ($j = 1, \dots, n$) of the matrix

$$S \sqrt{(n+1)/2} \text{diag} \left(\left(\frac{1}{\sin \frac{j\pi}{n+1}} \right) : j = 1, \dots, n \right)$$

are orthogonal and their first entries are $(\mathbf{c}_j)_1 = 1$, $(\mathbf{c}_j)_2 = 2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{n+1}$. Note that the $(\mathbf{c}_j)_2$ coincide with the zeros of the two polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\frac{n}{2}}^+(\alpha) &= \alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha), \\ g_{\frac{n}{2}}^-(\alpha) &= \alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) + p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

The $(\mathbf{c}_j)_2$ are also the eigenvalues of $P_0 + P_0^T$, i.e. the zeros of the polynomial $p_n(\alpha)$ defined by the sequence

$$p_0(\alpha) = 1, p_1(\alpha) = \alpha, p_{i+1}(\alpha) = \alpha p_i(\alpha) - p_{i-1}(\alpha), i = 1, \dots, n-1.$$

Moreover, they are twice the stationary points of the chebycev polynomial $T_{n+1}(\alpha)$. More precisely, if $T'_{n+1}(\alpha) = \sum_{s=0}^n a_s \alpha^s$, then the $(\mathbf{c}_j)_2$ are the zeros of the polynomial $q_n(\alpha) = \sum_{s=0}^n \frac{1}{2^s} a_s \alpha^s$. For example, since $T_0(\alpha) = 1$, $T_1(\alpha) = \alpha$, $T_2(\alpha) = 2\alpha T_1(\alpha) - T_0(\alpha) = 2\alpha^2 - 1$, $T_3(\alpha) = 2\alpha T_2(\alpha) - T_1(\alpha) = 4\alpha^3 - 3\alpha$, $T_4(\alpha) = 8\alpha^4 - 8\alpha^2 + 1$, $T_5(\alpha) = 16\alpha^5 - 20\alpha^3 + 5\alpha$, we have $T'_3(\alpha) = 12\alpha^2 - 3$, $T'_5(\alpha) = 5(16\alpha^4 - 12\alpha^2 + 1)$, so $q_2(\alpha) = 3\alpha^2 - 3 = 3(\alpha^2 - 1)$, $q_4(\alpha) = 5(\alpha^4 - 3\alpha^2 + 1)$.

Verify that $2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{7}$, $j = 1, \dots, 6$, are the zeros of

$$\begin{aligned} g_3^+(\alpha) &= \alpha(\alpha^2 - \alpha - 1) - (\alpha - 1) = \alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1 = 0 \text{ Tommaso} \\ g_3^-(\alpha) &= \alpha(\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1) - (\alpha + 1) = \alpha^3 + \alpha^2 - 2\alpha - 1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Verify that $2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{9}$, $j = 1, \dots, 8$, are the zeros of

$$\begin{aligned} g_4^+(\alpha) &= \alpha(\alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1) - (\alpha^2 - \alpha - 1) = \alpha^4 - \alpha^3 - 3\alpha^2 + 2\alpha + 1 = (\alpha - 1)(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha - 1) \\ g_4^-(\alpha) &= \alpha(\alpha^3 + \alpha^2 - 2\alpha - 1) - (\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1) = \alpha^4 + \alpha^3 - 3\alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1 = (\alpha + 1)(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Set $p_{-1}(\alpha) = 0$, and

$$\begin{aligned} p_0(\alpha) &= 1, g_1^\pm(\alpha) = (\alpha \mp 1)p_0(\alpha) - p_{-1}(\alpha), \\ p_1(\alpha) &= \alpha, g_2^\pm(\alpha) = (\alpha \mp 1)p_1(\alpha) - p_0(\alpha), \\ p_i(\alpha) &= \alpha p_{i-1}(\alpha) - p_{i-2}(\alpha), g_{i+1}^\pm(\alpha) = (\alpha \mp 1)p_i(\alpha) - p_{i-1}(\alpha), i = 1, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Note that $p_i(\alpha)$ is the characteristic polynomial of the $i \times i$ upper-left submatrix of $P_0 + P_0^T$.

Introduce also the polynomials:

$$f_0^\pm(\alpha) = 1, f_1^\pm(\alpha) = \alpha \mp 1, f_i^\pm(\alpha) = \alpha f_{i-1}^\pm(\alpha) - f_{i-2}^\pm(\alpha), i = 2, \dots$$

Note that $f_i^+(\alpha)$ ($f_i^-(\alpha)$) is the characteristic polynomial of the $i \times i$ upper-left submatrix of $P_0 + P_0^T + \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_1^T$ ($P_0 + P_0^T - \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_1^T$). Then $g_i^\pm = f_i^\pm$.

proof: for $i = 0$, $i = 1$ it is true:

$$\begin{aligned} g_1^\pm(\alpha) &= (\alpha \mp 1)1 - 0 = \alpha \mp 1 = f_1^\pm(\alpha), \\ g_2^\pm(\alpha) &= (\alpha \mp 1)\alpha - 1 = \alpha(\alpha \mp 1) - 1 = f_2^\pm(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

Assume the thesis true, and let us show that $g_{i+1}^\pm = f_{i+1}^\pm$:

$$\begin{aligned} g_{i+1}^\pm(\alpha) &= (\alpha \mp 1)p_i(\alpha) - p_{i-1}(\alpha) = (\alpha \mp 1)(\alpha p_{i-1}(\alpha) - p_{i-2}(\alpha)) - p_{i-1}(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha(\alpha \mp 1)p_{i-1}(\alpha) - \alpha p_{i-2}(\alpha) \pm p_{i-2}(\alpha) - p_{i-1}(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha g_i^\pm(\alpha) \pm p_{i-2}(\alpha) - \alpha p_{i-2}(\alpha) + p_{i-3}(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha g_i^\pm(\alpha) - (p_{i-2}(\alpha)(\alpha \mp 1) - p_{i-3}(\alpha)) \\ &= \alpha g_i^\pm(\alpha) - g_{i-1}^\pm(\alpha) = \alpha f_i^\pm(\alpha) - f_{i-1}^\pm(\alpha) \\ &= f_{i+1}^\pm(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

For the characteristic polynomial p_{2i} of the $2i \times 2i$ matrix $P_0 + P_0^T$ we have $p_{2i}(\alpha) = f_i^-(\alpha)f_i^+(\alpha)$ (prove it!). So, the $2i$ zeros $2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{2i+1}$, $j = 1, \dots, 2i$, of p_{2i} are the zeros of f_i^+ and of f_i^- .

proof: the proof is by induction. The basis of the induction is true:

$$p_0(\alpha) = 1 = f_0^+(\alpha)f_0^-(\alpha), \quad f_0^+(\alpha) = 1, \quad f_0^-(\alpha) = 1,$$

$$p_2(\alpha) = \alpha^2 - 1 = f_1^+(\alpha)f_1^-(\alpha), \quad f_1^+(\alpha) = \alpha - 1, \quad f_1^-(\alpha) = \alpha + 1,$$

$$p_4(\alpha) = \alpha^4 - 3\alpha^2 + 1 = f_2^+(\alpha)f_2^-(\alpha), \quad f_2^+(\alpha) = \alpha^2 - \alpha - 1, \quad f_2^-(\alpha) = \alpha^2 + \alpha - 1.$$

Assume $p_{2j}(\alpha) = f_j^+(\alpha)f_j^-(\alpha)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, i-1$. Then

$$p_{2i}(\alpha) = \alpha p_{2i-1}(\alpha) - p_{2i-2}(\alpha) = (\alpha^2 - 1)p_{2i-2}(\alpha) - \alpha p_{2i-3}(\alpha) = *$$

(use the identity: $p_{2i-1} = \alpha p_{2i-2} - p_{2i-3}$). Since the identities

$$p_{2i-4}(\alpha) = \alpha p_{2i-5}(\alpha) - p_{2i-6}(\alpha), \quad \alpha p_{2i-3}(\alpha) = \alpha^2 p_{2i-4}(\alpha) - \alpha p_{2i-5}(\alpha)$$

imply $p_{2i-4}(\alpha) + \alpha p_{2i-3}(\alpha) = \alpha^2 p_{2i-4}(\alpha) - p_{2i-6}(\alpha)$, we have the equality $p_{2i-3}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha}((\alpha^2 - 1)p_{2i-4}(\alpha) - p_{2i-6}(\alpha))$. So, $*$ becomes:

$$* = (\alpha^2 - 1)p_{2i-2}(\alpha) - ((\alpha^2 - 1)p_{2i-4}(\alpha) - p_{2i-6}(\alpha)) = (\alpha^2 - 1)(p_{2i-2}(\alpha) - p_{2i-4}(\alpha)) + p_{2i-6}(\alpha).$$

Now, by the inductive hypothesis,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{2i}(\alpha) &= (\alpha^2 - 1)(f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) - f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha)) + f_{i-3}^+(\alpha)f_{i-3}^-(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha^2 f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) + f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha) - \alpha^2 f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha) \\ &\quad - f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) + f_{i-3}^+(\alpha)f_{i-3}^-(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha^2 f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) + f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha) - \alpha^2 f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha) \\ &\quad - f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) + (\alpha f_{i-2}^+(\alpha) - f_{i-1}^+(\alpha))(\alpha f_{i-2}^-(\alpha) - f_{i-1}^-(\alpha)) \\ &= \alpha^2 f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) + f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha) - \alpha(f_{i-2}^+(\alpha)f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) + f_{i-1}^+(\alpha)f_{i-2}^-(\alpha)) \\ &= (\alpha f_{i-1}^+(\alpha) - f_{i-2}^+(\alpha))(\alpha f_{i-1}^-(\alpha) - f_{i-2}^-(\alpha)) \\ &= f_i^+(\alpha)f_i^-(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

Exercise. In n is even, then the eigenvalues of the $n \times n$ matrix $P_0 + P_0^T$ are the eigenvalues of the following two $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ matrices:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & & 1 \\ & & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & & 1 \\ & & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let us come back to the odd case. Recall:

$$n = 3$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \pm\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note on the second entries: 0 is eigenvalue of $[0]$; $\pm\sqrt{2}$ are eigenvalues of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

$n = 5$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \pm 1 \\ 0 \\ \mp 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \pm\sqrt{3} \\ 2 \\ \pm\sqrt{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note on the second entries: ± 1 are eigenvalues of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$; 0 and $\pm\sqrt{3}$ are

eigenvalues of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

$n = 7$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \pm\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ \mp\sqrt{2} \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha^3 - 2\alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ \alpha \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \alpha = \pm\sqrt{2 - \sqrt{2}}, \alpha = \pm\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$$

Note on the second entries: 0 and $\pm\sqrt{2}$ are eigenvalues of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$; $\pm\sqrt{2 - \sqrt{2}}$,

$\pm\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ are eigenvalues of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

For n odd generic we have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha) \\ p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) \\ \rho p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha) \\ \rho(\alpha^2 - 1) \\ \rho\alpha \\ \rho \end{bmatrix}$$

and necessarily $\rho = \pm 1$. If $\rho = 1$ we have the further condition $\alpha p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = 2p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha)$, or $0 = g_{\frac{n+1}{2}}(\alpha) := \alpha p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) - 2p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha)$. If $\rho = -1$, we have the further conditions $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) + p_{\frac{n-5}{2}}(\alpha) = \alpha p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha)$, $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n-5}{2}}(\alpha) = -\alpha p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha)$ which imply $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = 0$. Viceversa, such conditions ($0 = g_{\frac{n+1}{2}}(\alpha)$, in case $\rho = 1$, and $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = 0$, in case $\rho = -1$) imply that the second column of A is α times the first one.

So, we have the following *Rank one τ matrices*.

$$(\mathbf{u}_k^+)(\mathbf{u}_k^+)^T, \mathbf{u}_k^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_k^+ \\ p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha_k^+) \\ J\mathbf{x}_k^+ \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_k^+ = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha_k^+ \\ (\alpha_k^+)^2 - 1 \\ p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha_k^+) \end{bmatrix}, k = 1, \dots, \frac{n+1}{2},$$

α_k^+ roots of $g_{\frac{n+1}{2}}(\alpha) = \alpha p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) - 2p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha)$.

Prove that $g_{\frac{n+1}{2}}(\alpha)$ is the characteristic polynomial of the $\frac{n+1}{2} \times \frac{n+1}{2}$ matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$(\mathbf{u}_k^-)(\mathbf{u}_k^-)^T, \mathbf{u}_k^- = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_k^- \\ 0 \\ -J\mathbf{x}_k^- \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_k^- = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha_k^- \\ (\alpha_k^-)^2 - 1 \\ p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha_k^-) \end{bmatrix}, k = 1, \dots, \frac{n-1}{2},$$

α_k^- roots of $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha)$

Exercise. Prove that n odd $\Rightarrow p_n(\alpha) = p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha)g_{\frac{n+1}{2}}(\alpha)$.

Set $f_0(\alpha) = 1$, $f_1(\alpha) = \alpha$, $f_2(\alpha) = \alpha^2 - 2$, $f_{i+1}(\alpha) = \alpha f_i(\alpha) - f_{i-1}(\alpha)$, $i = 2, 3, \dots$. Note that $f_i(\lambda)$ is the characteristic polynomial of the upper-left $i \times i$ submatrix of $P_0 + \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2^T$.

Set $g_0(\alpha) = 1$, $g_{i+1}(\alpha) = \alpha p_i(\alpha) - 2p_{i-1}(\alpha)$, $i = 0, 1, \dots$. Then $g_i(\alpha) = f_i(\alpha)$, $i = 0, 1, \dots$. So the roots of $g_i(\alpha)$ are those of $f_i(\alpha)$: $\pm\sqrt{2}$ ($i = 2$), $0, \pm\sqrt{3}$ ($i = 3$), $\pm\sqrt{2 - \sqrt{2}}, \pm\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ ($i = 4$), \dots or, more in general, $2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{2i}$, $j = 1, 3, \dots, 2i - 1$.

proof: the proof is by induction. $g_1(\alpha) = \alpha p_0(\alpha) - 2p_{-1}(\alpha) = \alpha = f_1(\alpha)$, $g_2(\alpha) = \alpha p_1(\alpha) - 2p_0(\alpha) = \alpha^2 - 2 = f_2(\alpha)$,

$$\begin{aligned} g_{i+1}(\alpha) &= \alpha p_i(\alpha) - 2p_{i-1}(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha(\alpha p_{i-1}(\alpha) - p_{i-2}(\alpha)) - 2(\alpha p_{i-2}(\alpha) - p_{i-3}(\alpha)) \\ &= \alpha(\alpha p_{i-1}(\alpha) - 2p_{i-2}(\alpha)) - \alpha p_{i-2}(\alpha) + 2p_{i-3}(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha g_i(\alpha) - g_{i-1}(\alpha) \\ &= \alpha f_i(\alpha) - f_{i-1}(\alpha) \\ &= f_{i+1}(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

$p_{2i+1}(\alpha) = p_i(\alpha)f_{i+1}(\alpha)$, $i = 0, 1, \dots$.

proof: the proof is by induction. The basis of the induction is true:

$$\begin{aligned} p_1(\alpha) &= \alpha = p_0(\alpha)f_1(\alpha), \quad p_3(\alpha) = \alpha^3 - 2\alpha = \alpha(\alpha^2 - 2) = p_1(\alpha)f_2(\alpha), \\ p_5(\alpha) &= \alpha^5 - 4\alpha^3 + 3\alpha = (\alpha^2 - 1)(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha) = p_2(\alpha)f_3(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

Assume $p_{2j+1}(\alpha) = p_j(\alpha)f_{j+1}(\alpha)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, i - 1$. Then

$$p_{2i+1} = \alpha p_{2i} - p_{2i-1} = (\alpha^2 - 1)p_{2i-1} - \alpha p_{2i-2} = (\alpha^2 - 1)(p_{2i-1} - p_{2i-3}) + p_{2i-5}$$

(note that $p_{2i+1} = \alpha p_{2i} - p_{2i-1}$ and $\alpha p_{2i+2} = \alpha^2 p_{2i+1} - \alpha p_{2i}$ imply $p_{2i+1} + \alpha p_{2i+2} = \alpha^2 p_{2i+1} - p_{2i-1}$, and thus $p_{2i+2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}((\alpha^2 - 1)p_{2i+1} - p_{2i})$). By the inductive assumption:

$$\begin{aligned}
p_{2i+1} &= (\alpha^2 - 1)(p_{i-1}f_i - p_{i-2}f_{i-1}) + p_{i-3}f_{i-2} \\
&= \alpha^2 p_{i-1}f_i + p_{i-2}f_{i-1} - \alpha^2 p_{i-2}f_{i-1} \\
&\quad - p_{i-1}f_i + p_{i-3}f_{i-2} \\
&= \alpha^2 p_{i-1}f_i + p_{i-2}f_{i-1} - \alpha^2 p_{i-2}f_{i-1} \\
&\quad - p_{i-1}f_i + (\alpha p_{i-2} - p_{i-1}) \\
&\quad (\alpha f_{i-1} - f_i) \\
&= \alpha^2 p_{i-1}f_i + p_{i-2}f_{i-1} \\
&\quad - \alpha p_{i-2}f_i - \alpha p_{i-1}f_{i-1} \\
&= (\alpha p_{i-1} - p_{i-2})(\alpha f_i - f_{i-1}) \\
&= p_i f_{i+1}.
\end{aligned}$$

First row of the two tridiagonal matrices whose eigenvalues, collected together, give the eigenvalues of the $n \times n$ matrix $P_0 + P_0^T$ (the i th row, $i \geq 2$, is like the i th row, $i \geq 2$, of $P_0 + P_0^T$):

n even:

$$\begin{array}{l}
n/2 \times n/2 \quad 1 \quad 1 \text{ (+ or 1 in the bottom),} \\
n/2 \times n/2 \quad -1 \quad 1 \text{ (- or -1 in the bottom)}
\end{array}$$

n odd:

$$\begin{array}{l}
(n-1)/2 \times (n-1)/2 \quad 0 \quad 1 \text{ (- or -1 in the bottom),} \\
(n+1)/2 \times (n+1)/2 \quad 0 \quad 2 \text{ (+ or 1 in the bottom)}
\end{array}$$

If we assume α_k^+ and α_k^- both ordered in decreasing order ($\dots \leq \alpha_2^+ \leq \alpha_1^+$, i.e. $\alpha_k^+ = 2 \cos \frac{(2k-1)\pi}{n+1}$, $\dots \leq \alpha_2^- \leq \alpha_1^-$, i.e. $\alpha_k^- = 2 \cos \frac{(2k)\pi}{n+1}$), then, taking the first, the $[\frac{n+3}{2}]$ th, the second, the $[\frac{n+5}{2}]$ th, \dots , columns of the following matrix

$$[\mathbf{u}_1^+ \cdots \mathbf{u}_{[\frac{n+1}{2}]^+}^+ \quad \mathbf{u}_1^- \cdots \mathbf{u}_{[\frac{n}{2}]^-}^-]$$

one obtains the sine matrix normalized so that the entries on its first row are all equal to 1.

proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sin \frac{2j\pi}{n+1} / \sin \frac{j\pi}{n+1} = 2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{n+1} \\
&\sin \frac{3j\pi}{n+1} / \sin \frac{j\pi}{n+1} = (2 \cos \frac{j\pi}{n+1})^2 - 1 \\
&\dots
\end{aligned}$$

Conclusion. Assume n odd. If $A \in \tau$ is of rank one then there are α and x such

that

$$A\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha) \\ p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = xp_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) \\ xp_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha) \\ x(\alpha^2 - 1) \\ x\alpha \\ x \end{bmatrix}.$$

Moreover, the following two conditions must be satisfied

$$(x-1)p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = 0, \quad \alpha p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = (x+1)p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha).$$

Note that $x = 1$ and $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = 0$ cannot be simultaneously verified (otherwise we would have $p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha) = 0$ and roots of $p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}$ are different from those of $p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}$!). So, either

$$x = 1, \quad 0 = f_{\frac{n+1}{2}} := \alpha p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) - 2p_{\frac{n-3}{2}}(\alpha)$$

or

$$x = -1, \quad p_{\frac{n-1}{2}}(\alpha) = 0.$$

Assume n even. If $A \in \tau$ is of rank one then there are α and x such that

$$A\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \alpha^2 - 1 \\ p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) \\ p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) \\ xp_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) \\ xp_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) \\ x(\alpha^2 - 1) \\ x\alpha \\ x \end{bmatrix}.$$

Moreover, the following two conditions must be satisfied

$$\alpha p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) + xp_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha), \quad \alpha xp_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) + xp_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha)$$

which become (since $x \neq 0$)

$$\alpha xp_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = xp_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) + x^2 p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha), \quad \alpha xp_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) + xp_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha)$$

and thus imply $(x^2 - 1)p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = 0$; but $p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) = 0$ would imply $p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) = 0$ (not possible! see above), so either

$$x = 1, \quad f_{\frac{n}{2}}^+(\alpha) := (\alpha - 1)p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) = 0$$

or

$$x = -1, \quad f_{\frac{n}{2}}^-(\alpha) := (\alpha + 1)p_{\frac{n}{2}-1}(\alpha) - p_{\frac{n}{2}-2}(\alpha) = 0.$$