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AUTOREGRESSIVE ERROR-PROCESSES, CUBIC SPLINES AND TRIDIAGONAL MATRICES

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Abstract

In the paper formulate for the inversion of some tridiagonal matrices are given. The results can be applied to the autoregressive processes.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The covariance-matrix of an autoregressive error-process is given by $(|\rho| < 1)$

(1.1)
$$\Omega = \sigma_u^2 \quad (\rho^{|i-j|}; \ i, j = 1, \dots, n),$$

where σ_u^2 is the variance of the error terms. The inverse Ω^{-1} of Ω is equal to

(1.2)
$$\Omega^{-1} = (\sigma_u^{-2}) \frac{1}{1-\rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\rho & & & \\ -\rho^1 & 1+\rho^2 & -\rho & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & -\rho & 1+\rho^2 & -\rho \\ & & & & -\rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

 Ω^{-1} is thus a tridiagonal matrix, i. e., if $\Omega^{-1} = (\omega_{ij})$ then $\omega_{ij} = 0$ if |i-j| > 1. Ω^{-1} is needed for the computation of the Aitken-estimators

(1.3)
$$\hat{\beta} = (X'\Omega^{-1}X)^{-1}X'\Omega^{-1}y$$

in a linear regression-model $y = X\beta + u$. In cubic equidistant spline interpolation the inversion of the matrix

(1.4)
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ & & & & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

is required. This matrix can be represented in the form

(1.5)
$$A = \frac{a}{1-\rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1+\rho^2 & -\rho & & \\ -\rho & 1+\rho^2 & -\rho & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & 0 & & -\rho & 1+\rho^2 & -\rho \\ & & & & -\rho & 1+\rho^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

for some $|\rho| < 1$, namely

(1.6)
$$\rho = -2 + \sqrt{3} = -0,2679491\dots$$

Indeed, $\frac{a}{1-\rho^2}(1+\rho^2) = 4$ and $\frac{a}{1-\rho^2}(-\rho) = 1$ implies $(1+\rho^2)(-\rho)^{-1} = 4$ or $1+\rho^2 = -4\rho$. Since $(\rho^2+4\rho)+1 = (\rho+2)^2-3 = 0$ if $\rho+2 = \pm\sqrt{3}$, $\rho = -2+\sqrt{3}$ or $\rho = -2-\sqrt{3}$. Only the first ρ satisfies $|\rho| < 1$ and fulfills the desired requirement. Moreover,

(1.7)
$$a = \frac{1 - \rho^2}{-\rho} = 2\sqrt{3}.$$

Therefore

(1.8)
$$A^{-1} = a^{-1} \Omega_0 \,,$$

where Ω_0 only slightly differs from the covariance-matrix of an autoregressive error-process. The Törnquist-Egervary formula allows to compute this difference. It turns out that this computation leads to surprisingly simple results which can only be found in some scattered literature (see Graybill [3], p. 286; Nabben [4], p. 298).

2. Autoregressive error-processes

In this section we follow Schönfeld [6], pp. 152–164. We consider the linear regression model

(2.1)
$$y_t = x'_t \beta + u_t, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, T,$$

where β is an $k \times 1$ parameter-vector to be estimated and x_t is a $k \times 1$ design-vector. Thus y_t is a random variable and the disturbance-(or error-)term u_t is assumed to follow an autoregressive process of the first order

(2.2)
$$u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad |\rho| < 1$$

for t = 2, ..., T, where ε_t , t = 2, ..., T are uncorrelated random variables with mean zero and variance σ^2 . (2.2) represents an inhomogeneous (stochastic) difference equation which is solved by $u_t = c(t)\rho^t$. c(t) must obey the equation

(2.3)
$$\rho^t(c(t) - c(t-1)) = \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 2, \dots, T,$$

i.e.,
$$c(t) = c(1) + \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} (c(\tau)) - c(\tau-1)) = c(1) + \sum_{\tau=2}^{t} \rho^{-\tau} \varepsilon_{\tau}$$
 and finally

(2.4)
$$u_t = \rho^t c(1) + \sum_{\tau=2}^t \rho^{t-\tau} \varepsilon_\tau \,.$$

Since the empty sum equals zero, $c(1) = u_1 \rho^{-1}$ and thus finally

(2.5)
$$u_t = \rho^{t-1} u_1 + \sum_{\tau=2}^t \rho^{t-\tau} \varepsilon_{\tau} \,.$$

We assume that $E(u_1) = 0$ and u_1 is uncorrelated with the ε_t . From this it follows that

(2.6)
$$\operatorname{Var}(u_t) = \sigma^2 \left\{ \rho^{2(t-1)} \frac{\operatorname{Var}(u_1)}{\sigma^2} + \sum_{\tau=2}^t \rho^{2(t-\tau)} \right\}$$
$$= \rho^{2(t-1)} \operatorname{Var}(u_1) + \sigma^2 \frac{1 - \rho^{2(t-1)}}{1 - \rho^2} \,.$$

If we make the assumption "Nature does not jump", i. e. $Var(u_t) = Var(u_1)$, we get

(2.7)
$$\operatorname{Var}(u_1)(1-\rho^{2(t-1)}) = \frac{\sigma^2(1-\rho^{2(t-1)})}{1-\rho^2},$$

i.e. $\operatorname{Var}(u_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2}$. This result can also be obtained in another way. If we assume that $u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$, $t \leq T$, i.e., $t = \ldots - n$, $-(n-1), \ldots, 0, 1, \ldots, T$, then it follows by mathematical induction that

(2.8)
$$u_t = \sum_{\tau=0}^{\infty} \rho^{\tau} \varepsilon_{t-\tau} \,.$$

From this follows

(2.9)
$$\operatorname{Var}(u_t) = \operatorname{Var}(u_1) = \sum_{\tau=0}^{\infty} \rho^{2\tau} = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \rho^2},$$

since $|\rho| < 1$ has been assumed. An elementary computation also shows that for $s \in \mathbb{N}$:

(2.10)
$$\operatorname{Cov}(u_t, u_{t+s}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \rho^2} \rho^s.$$

Thus

(2.11)

$$\Omega = \operatorname{Cov} (u_1, \dots, u_T)' = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \rho^2} (\rho^{|i-j|}; i, j = 1, \dots, T)$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 (\rho^{|i-j|}; i, j = 1, \dots, T).$$

The formula for Ω^{-1} can be proved by simple verification. There is, however, also a statistical approach for determining Ω^{-1} . Consider the matrix

(2.12)
$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ -\rho & 1 & & \\ & -\rho & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & -\rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since det B = 1, B is regular and im $B = \operatorname{im} B\Omega = \mathbb{R}^T$. Consequently if $X' = (x_1, \ldots, x_T)$ and we consider the linear regression model $y = X\beta + u$ the statistic By is a linearly sufficient statistic (Drygas, 1984) since im $X \subseteq \operatorname{im} (\Omega + XX')B' = \operatorname{im} (\Omega + XX') = \operatorname{im} (\Omega) + \operatorname{im} (X)$. Now

(2.13)
$$By = (y_1, y_2 - \rho y_1, \dots, y_2 - \rho y_{\tau-1})' = (y_1, \tilde{y}_2, \dots, \tilde{y}_T)'$$

and

(2.14)
$$E(y_1) = E(x'_1\beta + u_1) = x'_1\beta, \text{ Var }(y_1) = \text{Var }(u_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1-\rho^2)},$$

(2.15)

$$E(y_i - \rho y_{i-1}) = E(x_i - \rho x_{i-1} + \varepsilon_i) = x_i - \rho x_{i-1},$$

$$Var(y_i - \rho y_{i-1}) = Var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2.$$

If we, moreover, replace y_1 by

then $\operatorname{Cov}(\tilde{y}_1, \tilde{y}_2, \ldots, \tilde{y}_t)' = \sigma^2 I_T$. Therefore there exist two equivalent possibilities to compute the Gauss-Markov estimator (GME) in the regression model $y = X\beta + u$. Either we can use the Aitken-formula

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(2.17)
$$\hat{\beta} = (X' \Omega^{-1} X)^{-1} X' \Omega^{-1} y$$

or we can use the formula

(2.18)
$$\hat{\beta} = (\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}\tilde{X}'\tilde{y},$$

where $E\tilde{y} = \tilde{X}\beta$, $\tilde{X}' = (x_1(1-\rho^2)^{1/2}, x_i - \rho x_{i-1}, i = 2,...,T)$. We specialize to the case k = 1 and let $X = e_i$, the *i*-th unit-vector. Then

(2.19)
$$\hat{\beta} = (X'\Omega^{-1}X)^{-1}X'\Omega^{-1}y = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{T} (\Omega^{-1})_{i,j} y_j}{(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i}}.$$

On the other hand for i = 1

(2.20)
$$\tilde{X} = ((1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}, -\rho, 0, \dots, 0)'$$

(2.21)
$$\tilde{X} = (0, \dots, 0, 1, -\rho, 0, \dots, 0)'$$

for $i = 2, \ldots, T - 1$ and finally for i = N

(2.22)
$$\tilde{X} = (0, \dots, 0, 1)'.$$

Thus

(2.23)
$$\tilde{X}'\tilde{X} = 1(i=1), \quad \tilde{X}'\tilde{X} = 1+\rho^2 (2 \le i \le T-1), \quad \tilde{X}'\tilde{X} = 1(i=T),$$

(2.24)
$$(\tilde{X}'X)^{-1} = 1, \ i = 1, T, \quad (\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1} = \frac{1}{1+\rho^2} \left(2 \le i \le T-1\right).$$

For i = 1 we get

(2.25)
$$y_1 + \frac{(\Omega^{-1})_{1,2} y_2}{(\Omega^{-1})_{1,1}} = (1 - \rho^2)y_1 - \rho(y_2 - \rho y_1) = y_1 - \rho y_2.$$

This implies that the first line of (Ω^{-1}) is equal to $(\Omega^{-1})_{1,1}(1, -\rho, 0, \dots, 0)$. Multiplying this with the first column of Ω yields $(\Omega^{-1})_{1,1}(1-\rho^2) = 1$, i. e., $(\Omega^{-1})_{1,1} = \frac{1}{1-\rho^2}$. For i = T we get

(2.26)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{T} (\Omega^{-1})_{T,j} y_j = (\Omega^{-1})_{i,T} (y_T - \rho y_{T-1}),$$

i.e., the last line of Ω^{-1} is proportional to $(0, \ldots, 0, -\rho, 1)$ which again yields $(\Omega^{-1})_{T,T} = (1 - \rho^2)^{-1}$. For $2 \le i \le T - 1$

(2.27)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{T} (\Omega^{-1})_{i,j} y_j = \frac{(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i}}{1+\rho^2} (y_i - \rho y_{i-1} - \rho (y_{i+1} - \rho y_i))$$
$$= \frac{(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i}}{1+\rho^2} [(1+\rho^2)y_i - \rho y_{i-1} - \rho y_{i+1}].$$

Thus the *i*-th line of Ω^{-1} is proportional to $(0, \ldots, -\rho, 1 + \rho^2, -\rho, 0, \ldots, 0)$. (*i*) The constant $(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i}$ must be found from the equation

(2.28)
$$\frac{(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i}}{1+\rho^2}((1+\rho^2)-2\rho^2) = \frac{(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i}}{1+\rho^2}(1-\rho^2) = 1,$$
$$(\Omega^{-1})_{i,i} = \frac{1+\rho^2}{1-\rho^2}$$

and the *i*-th line of Ω^{-1} is equal to

(2.29)
$$\frac{1}{1-\rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 0, \dots, -\rho, & 1+\rho^2 \\ i \end{pmatrix}, -\rho, \dots, 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

3. Cubic equidistant splines

Consider the interval [0, 1] and the points

(3.1)
$$x = 0, \quad x_k = \frac{k}{n}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1, \quad x_n = 1.$$

 $f(x), x \in [0, 1]$ is called a cubic spline if

(3.2)
$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{3} a_j^{(k)} (x - x_k)^j, \quad x_b \le x \le x_{k+1}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

and

(3.3)
$$f(x_k) = y_k, \quad k = 0, \dots, n,$$

where the $y_k = g(x_k)$ is a given function. f(x) is considered as an interpolation of g(x). Moreover, it is required that f(x) is twice continuously differentiable. Let $f''(x_k) = M_k$. The M_k are called moments. Then $M_k, k = 1, \ldots, n-1$, obeys the equation

(3.4)
$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & & & \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & 4 & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & & & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ & & & & & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} M_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ M_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ V_{n-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

where V_1, \ldots, V_{n-1} are linear functions of y_i (see Schwarz [7], p. 125, Stoer [8], p. 81, Törnig/Spellucci [9], p. 77). The matrix

$$(3.5) A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & & & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

is a tridiagonal matrix. Usually the equation system Am = v is solved by representing A as a product of two bidiagonal matrices (see Schwarz [7]). For example

$$(3.6) \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{4}{15} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{15}{4} & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{56}{15} \end{pmatrix}$$

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and therefore

$$(3.7) \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{15} & \frac{1}{56} \\ 0 & \frac{4}{15} & -\frac{1}{14} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{15}{56} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{4} & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{15} & -\frac{4}{15} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ = \frac{1}{56} \begin{pmatrix} 15 & -4 & 1 \\ -4 & 16 & -4 \\ 1 & -4 & 15 \end{pmatrix}.$$

However, A is very similar to Ω^{-1} and therefore there might be an explicit formula for A^{-1} which may perhaps also be convenient from the computational point of view. As shown in the introduction

(3.8)

$$A = \frac{1-\rho^2}{(-\rho)} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1+\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} & \frac{-\rho}{(1-\rho^2)} & & 0\\ \frac{-\rho}{(1-\rho^2)} & \frac{1+\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} & \frac{-\rho}{1-\rho^2} & & \\ 0 & & \ddots & \\ & & & \frac{-\rho}{1-\rho^2} & \frac{1+\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\rho = -2 + \sqrt{3}$. Thus

(3.9)
$$A = \frac{(1-\rho^2)}{-\rho} \left\{ \Omega^{-1} + \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0\\ \vdots & \vdots\\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \dots & 0\\ 0 \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

If we apply the well-known Törnquist-Egervary formula

(3.10)
$$(B+CD)^{-1} = B^{-1} - B^{-1}C(I+DB^{-1}C)^{-1}DB^{-1}$$

we can find an explicit formula for A^{-1} . This is done in the next section.

4. The inversion of some tridiagonal matrices

We consider matrices of the form

(4.1)
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \beta & 1 & & \\ 1 & \beta & 1 & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & & \\ 0 & & & 1 & \beta & 1 \\ & & & & & 1 & \beta \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\rho = -\frac{\beta}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\beta^2 - 4}$. If $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta^2 > 4$, then $|\rho| < 1$. If $\beta^2 < 4$, then $\rho \in \mathbb{C}$ and $|\rho| = 1$. Special attention will be paid to the cases $\rho^2 = 1$ and $\rho^{2(n+1)} = 1$ because in these cases the derived formulae may not be valid. The case $\beta = 4$ is needed in spline interpolation. We denote the matrix A in (4.1) by $A_n(\beta)$.

Theorem 4.1. Let $A = A_n(\beta)$. Then

(4.2)
$$A_n(\beta) = \frac{1-\rho^2}{(-\rho)} \left\{ \Omega^{-1} + \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} (e_1 e_n) (e_1, e_n)' \right\}$$

and

(4.3)
$$(A_n(\beta))^{-1} = (b_{ij}),$$

(4.4)
$$b_{ij} = \frac{-\rho^{i-j+1}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})}{(1-\rho^2)(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}$$

if $i \geq j$ and $\rho^2 \neq 1$, $\rho^{2(n+1)} \neq 1$. If $j \geq i$ then $b_{ij} = b_{ji}$ as above. This result is correct for $n \geq 2$.

Proof. According to (3.10) we have to compute

(4.5)
$$(I_2 + C \Omega D)^{-1}$$

where $C = \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2}D'$, $D = (e_1, e_n)'$, e_i the *i*-th unit-vector. We get

(4.6)
$$(I_2 + C \ \Omega \ D) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{\rho^2}{1 - \rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \\ \vdots \ 0 \\ 0 \ 1 \end{pmatrix} \Omega \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdots 0 \\ 0 \cdots 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= I_2 + \frac{\rho^2}{1 - \rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ \rho^{n-1} \\ \rho^{n-1} \ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho^{n+1} \\ \rho^{n+1} & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

(4.7)
$$\left(I_2 + \frac{\rho^2}{1 - \rho^2} D \Omega D\right)^{-1} = \frac{1 - \rho^2}{(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\rho^{n+1} \\ -\rho^{n+1} & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

From
$$\Omega \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho^{n-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 it follows that

$$\frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2}\Omega D'\left(I_2 + \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2}D'\Omega D\right)^{-1}D\Omega =$$

(4.8)

$$= \frac{\rho^2}{1 - \rho^{2(n+1)}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \rho^{2n} & \rho^{n-1} - \rho^{n+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho^{i-1} - \rho^{2n-(i-1)} & \rho^{n-i} - \rho^{n+i} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho^{n-1} - \rho^{n+1} & \rho^n - \rho^{2n} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdots \rho^{n-1} \\ \rho^{n-1} \cdots 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have compute the inner product of the i-th row of the left hand matrix with the j-th column of the right hand matrix. This yields

(4.9)
$$(\rho^{i-1} - \rho^{2n-(i-1)})\rho^{j-1} + (\rho^{n-i} - \rho^{n+i})\rho^{n-j} =$$
$$= \rho^{i+j-2} - \rho^{2n-i+j} + \rho^{2n-i-j} - \rho^{2n+i-j}.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1} &= \\ (4.10) \\ &= \frac{(-\rho)}{1-\rho^2} \left\{ \rho^{|i-j|} - \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^{2(n+1)}} \left[\rho^{i+j-2} + \rho^{2n-(i+j)} - \rho^{2n-i+j} - \rho^{2n+i-j} \right] \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

We now consider the case $i \geq j$ – no restriction in view of symmetry. We get

$$b_{ij} = \frac{(-\rho)}{1-\rho^2} \frac{1}{1-\rho^{2(n+1)}} \{\rho^{i-j}(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})\} - \rho^{i+j} - \rho^{2(n+1)-(i+j)} + \rho^{2(n+1)-i+j} + \rho^{2(n+1)-j+i} \}$$

$$=\frac{(-\rho)}{1-\rho^2}\,\frac{1}{1-\rho^{2(n+1)}}\{\rho^{i-j}-\rho^{i+j}-\rho^{2(n+1)-(i+j)}-\rho^{2(n+1)-i+j}\}$$

(4.11)

$$= \frac{-\rho}{(1-\rho^2)} \frac{1}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})} (\rho^{i-j} - \rho^{i+j})$$

$$= \frac{-\rho}{1-\rho^2} \frac{\rho^{i-j}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})}{1-\rho^{2(n+1)}}$$

$$= -\frac{\rho^{i-j+1}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})}{(1-\rho^2)(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}.$$

The theorem is not valid for n = 1, but if n = 1 and hence i = j = 1 then

(4.12)
$$-\frac{\rho^{i-j+1}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})}{(1-\rho^{2})(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})} =$$
$$= -\rho\frac{(1-\rho^{2})}{1-\rho^{4}} = \frac{-\rho}{1+\rho^{2}} = \frac{-\rho}{-\beta\rho} = \frac{1}{\beta}.$$

Thus the formula is also correct for n = 1. We prove the theorem again by additionally slightly generalizing it. If

(4.13)
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \beta & \alpha & & 0 \\ \gamma & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \alpha \\ 0 & & \ddots & \gamma & \beta \end{pmatrix} = A_{u(\alpha,\beta,\gamma)}$$

and $\alpha,\gamma\neq 0$ (The case $\alpha=0$ or $\gamma=0$ leads to a bidiagonal matrix easily invertible.), then

(4.14)
$$A_n(\alpha,\beta,\gamma) = \sqrt{\alpha\gamma}A_n\left(\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\gamma}},\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{\alpha\gamma}},\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\alpha}}\right)$$

and

(4.15)
$$(A_n(\alpha,\beta,\gamma))^{-1} = (\alpha\gamma)^{-\frac{1}{2}} A_n^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\gamma}}, \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{\alpha\gamma}}, \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\alpha}}\right).$$

Thus it is no restriction to assume that $\alpha \gamma = 1$.

Theorem 4.2. Let $A = A_n(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$, where $\alpha \gamma = 1$. Then $A^{-1}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = (b_{ij})$ and

(4.16)
$$b_{ij} = \frac{-\alpha^{i-j}\rho^{i-j+1}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})}{(1-\rho^2)(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}, \ i \ge j,$$

where $\rho^2 + \beta \rho + 1 = 0$. If $i \leq j$, then

(4.17)
$$b_{ij} = \frac{-\gamma^{j-i}\rho^{j-i+1}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-j+1)})}{(1-\rho^2)(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}.$$

Proof. Only the case $i \ge j$ must be considered, since the case $j \le i$ follows by transposition. The proof for $i \ge j$ is done by mathematical induction. For n = 1

(4.18)
$$b_{11} = -\rho \frac{(1-\rho^2)}{(1-\rho^4)} = \frac{-\rho}{1+\rho^2} = \frac{-\rho}{-\beta\rho} = +\frac{1}{\beta},$$

if $\beta \neq 0$, i.e., $A_1(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is invertible. We now assume that the formula is correct for n and we use the formula (see Rao [5], p. 33)

(4.19)
$$\begin{pmatrix} A_n & \vdots & \alpha e_n \\ \cdots & \cdots & \ddots \\ \gamma e'_n & \vdots & \beta \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \\ = \begin{pmatrix} A_n^{-1} + A_n^{-1} \alpha e_n E_n^{-1} \gamma e'_n A_n^{-1} & \vdots & -\alpha A_n^{-1} e_n E_n^{-1} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ -E_n^{-1} \gamma e'_n A_n^{-1} & \vdots & E_n^{-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $E_n = \beta - \alpha \gamma e'_n A_n^{-1} e_n = \beta - e'_n A_n^{-1} e_n$ (Schur-complement). By assumption

(4.20)
$$e'_n A_n^{-1} e_n = \frac{-\rho}{1-\rho^2} \frac{(1-\rho^{2n})(1-\rho^2)}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})} = \frac{-\rho(1-\rho^{2n})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}.$$

Thus

(4.21)

$$E_{n} = \frac{\beta(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)} + \rho(1 - \rho^{2n}))}{(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})}$$

$$= \frac{-\rho^{2n+1}(1 + \beta\rho) + \beta + \rho}{(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})} = \frac{\rho^{(2n+1)}\rho^{2} + \beta + \rho}{(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})}$$

$$= \frac{\rho^{2n+3} - \rho^{-1}}{(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})} = \frac{-\rho^{-1}(1 - \rho^{2(n+2)})}{(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})}$$

since $\rho^2 = -(1 + \beta \rho)$, $(\beta + \rho)\rho = \rho^2 + \beta \rho = -1$ and finally

(4.22)
$$E_n^{-1} = -\frac{\rho(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}{1-\rho^{2(n+2)}}.$$

This finishes the induction-proof in the case of the (n + 1, n + 1)th element of $A_{n+1}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$. Since

$$(A_n^{-1}e_n)_j = -\frac{\alpha^{n-j}\rho^{n-j+1}(1-\rho^{2j})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}$$

it follows that

$$-\alpha (A_n^{-1}e_n)_j E_n^{-1} = (A_{n+1}^{-1})_{j,n+1} =$$

(4.23)

$$= \frac{-\alpha^{(n+1)-j}\rho^{(n+1-j+1)}(1-\rho^{2j})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+2)})}.$$

This is the desired formula with n replaced by n + 1. Similarly follows from

(4.24)
$$(e'_n A_n^{-1})_i = \frac{-\gamma^{n-i} \rho^{n-i+1} (1-\rho^{2i})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})}$$

that

(4.25)
$$-\gamma (e'_n A_n^{-1})_i = \frac{-\gamma^{n+1-i} \rho^{n+1-i+1} (1-\rho^{2i})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})},$$

i.e., the formula with n replaced by n + 1. Finally for $i \ge j$ we compute

(4.26)

$$C = \frac{-\alpha^{i-j}\rho^{i-j+1}(1-\rho^{2j})(1-\rho^{2(n-i+2)})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+2)})(1-\rho^{2})} - \frac{-\rho^{i-j}\rho^{i-j+1}(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})(1-\rho^{2j})}{(1-\rho^{2(n+1)})(1-\rho^{2})}.$$

The first term is asserted to be $(A_{n+1}^{-1})_{i,j}$, while the second term is $(A_n^{-1})_{i,j}$. We have to show that

$$C = (A_n^{-1})_{i,j} (A_n^{-1})_{i,n} E_n^{-1}$$

$$(4.27) = \frac{-\alpha^{n-j} \rho^{n-j+1} (1-\rho^{2j}) (1-\rho^2) \gamma^{n-i} (1-\rho^{2i}) (1-\rho^2) \rho^{n-i+1} \rho}{(1-\rho^2) (1-\rho^{2(n+1)}) (1-\rho^{2(n+2)}) (1-\rho^2)}$$

$$= \frac{(\alpha^{i-j} \rho^{i-j+1}) \rho^{2(n-i+1)} (1-\rho^{2i}) (1-\rho^{2j}) (1-\rho^2)}{(1-\rho^2) (1-\rho^{2(n+2)})}.$$

By shortening common factors we have to show that

(4.28)
$$D = (1 - \rho^{2(n-i+2)})(1 - \rho^{2(n+1)}) - (1 - \rho^{2(n-i+1)})(1 - \rho^{2(n+2)})$$
$$= \rho^{2(n-i+1)}(1 - \rho^{2i})(1 - \rho^{2}).$$

A simple algebraic manipulation shows that this indeed true. A similar argument holds for $i \leq j$.

A still simpler representation of A^{-1} is possible. Since $\rho^2 = -(\beta \rho + 1)$, $\rho^n = a_n + b_n \rho$ for some $a_n, b_n \in \mathbb{C}$. Now $\rho^{n+1} = a_n \rho + b_n \rho^2 = a_{n+1} + b_{n+1}\rho = a_n \rho - b_n(\beta \rho + 1) = (a_n - \beta b_n)\rho - b_n$. Thus a_{n+1} can be chosen equal to $-b_n$, while b_{n+1} can be chosen equal to $a_n - \beta b_n = -(b_{n-1} + \beta b_n)$. We get therefore the difference-equation

(4.29)
$$b_{n+1} + \beta b_n + b_{n-1} = 0.$$

Obiously, $b_0 = 0$, $a_0 = 1$, $b_1 = 1$, $a_1 = -b_0 = 0$. Before formulating the next theorem we note that $\rho \neq 0$.

Theorem 4.3.
$$b_n = \frac{(1-\rho^{2n})\rho^{-(n-1)}}{1-\rho^2}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Proof. This formula is correct for n = 0, 1 and if it is correct for n - 1 and n, then

$$b_{n+1} = -(\beta b_n + b_{n-1})$$

$$= \frac{-1}{1 - \rho^2} (\beta (1 - \rho^{2n}) \rho^{-(n-1)} + (1 - \rho^{2(n-1)}) \rho^{-(n-2)})$$

$$= \frac{-\rho^{-(n-1)}}{1 - \rho^2} ((1 - \rho^{2n}) \beta + (1 - \rho^{2(n-1)}) \rho)$$

$$= \frac{-\rho^{-(n-2)}}{1 - \rho^2} ((\beta + \rho) - \rho^{2n-1} (\beta \rho + 1))$$

$$= \frac{\rho^{-(n-1)}}{1 - \rho^2} (\rho^{-1} - \rho^{2n+1})$$

$$= \frac{\rho^{-(n-1)} \rho^{-1}}{1 - \rho^2} (1 - \rho^{2(n+1)})$$

$$= \frac{\rho^{-n}}{1 - \rho^2} (1 - \rho^{2(n+1)}).$$

Corollary 4.4. $A^{-1} = (b_{ij}), where$

$$b_{ij} = -\alpha^{i-j} \frac{b_j b_{n-i+1}}{b_{n+1}}, \quad i \ge j,$$

$$(4.31)$$

$$b_{ij} = -\gamma^{j-i} \frac{b_i b_{n-j+1}}{b_{n+1}}, \quad j \ge i.$$

Proof. Since
$$b_j = \frac{(1-\rho^{2j})\rho^{-(j-1)}}{1-\rho^2}$$
,

(4.32)
$$b_{n-i+1} = \frac{(1-\rho^{2(n-i+1)})}{1-\rho^2} \rho^{-(n-i)},$$

and finally

$$b_{n+1} = \frac{1 - \rho^{2(n+1)}}{1 - \rho^2} \rho^{-n},$$

the Corollary follows immediately from Theorem 4.1.

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The formulae given by Corollyry 4.4 are even simpler than the result of Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 4.2. However, the b_k may be very large numbers which can cause inaccuracies in a numerical result. The adventage of Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 4.2 lies in the fact that only small numbers of [-1, 1] must be multiplied.

Example 4.5. Let again n = 3 and $\beta = 4$, $\alpha = \gamma = 1$. Then $b_0 = 0$, $b_1 = 1$, $b_2 = -4$, $b_3 = 15$, $b_4 = -56$ and

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{-1}{b_4} \begin{pmatrix} b_3 & b_2 & b_1 \\ b_2 & b_2^2 & b_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{56} \begin{pmatrix} 15 & -4 & 1 \\ -4 & 16 & -4 \\ 1 & -4 & 15 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Remark 4.6. We did not yet discuss the case $\rho^2 = 1$ or $\rho^{2(n+1)} = 1$. If $\rho^2 = 1$, than $\rho = +1$ and $\rho = -1$, respectively, while $b_n = n$ and $b_n = (-1)^n n$, respectively. It turns out that the formulae of Theorem 4.1 and 4.2 are still correct in the sense that we pass to the limit $\rho^2 \to 1$ (Drygas [2]).

In a subsequent paper it will be shown that if $\rho^2 \neq 0$ then $b_n = 0$ is equivalent to $\rho^{2(n+1)} = 1$. It is not hard to prove that det $(A_n(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)) =$ $(-1)^n b_{n+1}$. Therefore the formulae of Theorems 4.1 and 4.2 apply in all cases when A^{-1} exists.

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