

# Lineare Algebra II

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II a) <sup>2</sup>No, because  $\langle u, v \rangle = 3/5 \neq 0$   
 $\langle u, w \rangle = 12/25 \neq 0$   
 $\langle w, u \rangle = 4/5 \neq 0$

To be orthogonal all inner products with all vectors have to be zero.

b) <sup>3</sup>  $\|su - 3v\| = (\langle su - 3v, su - 3v \rangle)^{1/2}$

$$= (\langle su, su \rangle + \langle -3v, -3v \rangle + 2\langle -3v, su \rangle)^{1/2}$$

$$= (25\langle u, u \rangle + 9\langle v, v \rangle - 30\langle u, u \rangle)^{1/2}$$

$$= (25\|u\|^2 + 9\|v\|^2 - 30 \cdot \frac{3}{5})^{1/2}$$

$$= (25 + 9 - 18)^{1/2}$$

<sup>1)</sup>  $= (16)^{1/2} = 4$

c) Orthonormal basis for  $\text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ u \\ w \end{pmatrix}\right\}$

$$u_1 = \frac{1}{\|x_1\|} x_1 \quad \text{with } x_1 = u$$

$$u_1 = u$$

$$u_2 = \frac{1}{\|x_2 - p_1\|} (x_2 - p_1) \quad \text{with } x_2 = v$$

$$p_1 = \langle x_2, u_1 \rangle u_1$$

$$= \langle v, u \rangle u_1$$

$$= \frac{3}{5} u$$

$$u_2 = \frac{1}{\|v - \frac{3}{5}u\|} (v - \frac{3}{5}u)$$

$$\|v - \frac{3}{5}u\| = (\langle v - \frac{3}{5}u, v - \frac{3}{5}u \rangle)^{1/2}$$

$$= (\langle v, v \rangle + 9\langle u, u \rangle - 2\langle \frac{3}{5}u, v \rangle)^{1/2}$$

$$= (1 + \frac{9}{25} - \frac{6}{5} \cdot \frac{3}{5})^{1/2}$$

$$= (\frac{16}{25})^{1/2} = \frac{4}{5}$$

$$u_2 = \frac{1}{\|x_2 - p_1\|} (x_2 - p_1)$$

$$= \frac{5}{4} \left( v - \frac{3}{5} u \right)$$

$$u_3 = \frac{1}{\|x_3 - p_2\|} (x_3 - p_2) \quad x_3 = w$$

$$\begin{aligned} * p_2 &= \langle x_3, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \langle x_3, u_1 \rangle u_1 \\ &= \left\langle w, \frac{5}{4} \left( v - \frac{3}{5} u \right) \right\rangle \frac{5}{4} \left( v - \frac{3}{5} u \right) + \langle w, w \rangle u \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left( \frac{5}{4} \langle w, v \rangle - \frac{3}{4} \langle w, u \rangle \right) \frac{5}{4} \left( v - \frac{3}{5} u \right) + \langle w, w \rangle u$$

$$= \left( \frac{5}{4} \cdot \frac{12}{25} - \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{4}{5} \right) \frac{5}{4} \left( v - \frac{3}{5} u \right) + \frac{4}{5} u$$

$$= \left( \frac{12}{20} - \frac{12}{20} \right) \frac{5}{4} \left( v - \frac{3}{5} u \right) + \frac{4}{5} u$$

$$= \frac{4}{5} u$$

$$u_3 = \frac{1}{\|w - \frac{4}{5} u\|} \left( w - \frac{4}{5} u \right)$$

$$\left( \left\langle w - \frac{4}{5} u, w - \frac{4}{5} u \right\rangle \right)^{1/2} = \left( \langle w, w \rangle + \frac{16}{25} \langle u, u \rangle - 2 \cdot \frac{4}{5} \langle u, w \rangle \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left( 1 + \frac{16}{25} - \frac{8}{5} \cdot \frac{4}{5} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left( \frac{25}{25} + \frac{16}{25} - \frac{32}{25} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left( \frac{9}{25} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{3}{5}$$

$$u_3 = \frac{5}{3} \left( w - \frac{4}{5} u \right)$$

Dus orthonormale span van  $\text{span}(\{u, v, w\})$   
 $= \text{span}\left(\left\{u, \frac{5}{4}\left(v - \frac{3}{5}u\right), \frac{5}{3}\left(w - \frac{4}{5}u\right)\right\}\right)$

2]  $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$

a) For which values of  $(a, b, c)$  is this matrix diagonalizable.

*Not the same* }  $M$  is diagonalizable iff all eigenvalues (eigenvectors) are distinct (linearly independent).

$$\det(M - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} a - \lambda & 0 \\ b & c - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (a - \lambda)(c - \lambda)$$

$(a - \lambda)(c - \lambda) = 0$  als  $\lambda_1 = a$  en  $\lambda_2 = c$   
 ~~$M$~~   $M$  is diagonalizable if  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$  and...  
 So for every  $a \neq c \in \mathbb{R}$  and for every  $b \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $M$  is diagonalizable. ✓

b) Diagonalizable by a unitary matrix iff the matrix is normal.  
 So  $M^*M = MM^*$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{b} \\ 0 & \bar{c} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{b} \\ 0 & \bar{c} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{a}a + \bar{b}b & \bar{b}c \\ \bar{b}c & \bar{c}c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a\bar{a} & a\bar{b} \\ \bar{a}b & b\bar{b} + c\bar{c} \end{bmatrix}$$

So  $\bar{a}a + \bar{b}b = a\bar{a}$ ,  $bc = ab$ ,  $\bar{b}c = \bar{a}b$   
 and  $\bar{c}c = b\bar{b} + \bar{c}c$

$\bar{b}b = 0$

$c = a$  since  $b = 0$        $\bar{c} = \bar{a}$

if  $b = x + iy$  then  $\bar{b}b = (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 + y^2 = 0$   
 with  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$   $x^2 + y^2 = 0$  for  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  iff  $x = y = 0$  so  $b = 0$

So it is diagonalizable by a unitary matrix  
if  $b=0$  and  $a=c$

c) Diagonalizable by orthogonal matrix iff  $M^T = M$

$$M^T M = M M^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a^2 + b^2 & bc \\ bc & c^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & ab \\ ab & b^2 + c^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } a^2 + b^2 = a^2 \quad bc = ab \quad c^2 = b^2 + c^2$$

$$\Downarrow \quad \Downarrow \quad \Downarrow$$

$$b^2 = 0 \quad c = a \quad b^2 = 0$$

$$(x+iy)(x+iy) = x^2 - y^2 + 2xyi = 0$$

with  $x, y \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$  so  $x=y=0$

and again we have  $b=0$  and  $a=c$

3]  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  symmetric matrix

a)  $A$  is normal?

Proof: If  $A$  is normal then  $A^H A = A A^H$

Since  $A$  is symmetric and real we have that

$A = A^H$ . So  $A^H A = A^H A^H = A A^H$  so  $A$  is normal.

b) All eigenvalues of  $A$  are real?

for  $x \neq 0$   
so  $Ax = \lambda x$  and  $x^H Ax = x^H \lambda x = \lambda x^H x = \lambda \|x\|^2$

Since  $A$  is Hermitian we also have that:  
 $\lambda \|x\|^2 = x^H Ax = x^H A^H x = (Ax)^H x = (\lambda x)^H x = \lambda^H x^H x = \lambda^H \|x\|^2$

So we have that  $\lambda \|x\|^2 = \lambda^H \|x\|^2$



Further on now:  $A^2 = U D D^H U$ . Because  $D$  has all eigenvalues of  $A$  on the diagonal (which are positive or negative) ~~now~~ multiplying with  $D^H$  gives only  $\lambda^2$  on diagonal.  
 Now  $A$  becomes  $A = (U D D^H U)^{1/2} = U^{1/2} D^{1/2} (D^H)^{1/2} U^{1/2}$

~~Best rank  $k$  approximation of  $A$~~

Since  $D^{1/2} (D^H)^{1/2}$  has got  $|\lambda|^2$ 's on diagonal this becomes our  $\Sigma$ . Further on  $U^{1/2}$  is our orthogonal diagonalizer because  $(U^{1/2})(U^{1/2})^H = (U U^H)^{1/2} = I$

In the above answer all  $H$ 's have to be changed by  $T$  signs so:  $U^H = U^T$ .

Now our SVD becomes:  $A = U^{1/2} \Sigma U^{1/2}$

e)<sup>2</sup> Instead of  $\Sigma$  with  $n$  eigenvalues singular values on the diagonal, you have to leave  $k$  singular values on  $\Sigma$  for  $k' > k$  all diagonal elements are 0 so

$$A = U^{1/2} \Sigma U^{1/2}$$

$$A_{(k)} = U^{1/2} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} U^{1/2}$$

$k^{\text{th}}$  approximation

$$= U_k^{1/2} \Sigma_k U_k^{1/2}$$

$$4] a) f(x,y) = \sin(x) + y^3 + 3xy + 2x - 3y$$

i)  $(0,-1)$  stationary point?

$$f_x = \cos x + 3y + 2$$

$$f_y = 3y^2 + 3x - 3$$

$$f_x(0,-1) = 1 - 3 + 2 = 0$$

$$f_y(0,-1) = 3 + 0 - 3 = 0$$

so  $f_x = f_y = 0$   
So indeed stationary point.

(ii) Hessian matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{bmatrix} \Big|_{(0,-1)}$$

$$\begin{matrix} f_{xx} = -\sin x \\ f_{yy} = 6y \\ f_{xy} = 3 \\ f_{yx} = 3 \end{matrix} \Bigg\} H = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin x & 3 \\ 3 & 6y \end{bmatrix} \Big|_{(0,-1)}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculating eigenvalues:

$$\begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 3 \\ 3 & -6-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda(6+\lambda) - 9 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 + 6\lambda - 9 = 0$$

$$\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} = \frac{-6 \pm \sqrt{36 + 36}}{2} = \frac{-6 \pm \sqrt{72}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-6 \pm 3\sqrt{8}}{2}$$

indefinite  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \lambda_1 = \frac{-6 - 3\sqrt{8}}{2} < 0 \\ \lambda_2 = \frac{-6 + 3\sqrt{8}}{2} > 0 \end{matrix} \right\}$  So because signs are not equal  $(0,-1)$  is a saddle point (indefinite)

4b) <sup>6</sup> ~~7~~ A is symmetric matrix so  $A^T = A$

$$\text{Since } e^A = I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} (e^A)^T &= \left( I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \dots \right)^T \\ A = A^T \longrightarrow &= \left( I^T + A^T + \frac{(A^2)^T}{2!} + \frac{(A^3)^T}{3!} + \dots \right) \\ &= \left( I + A + \frac{(A^T)^2}{2!} + \frac{(A^T)^3}{3!} + \dots \right) \\ &= I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

So  $e^A = (e^A)^T$  so  $e^A$  is symmetric

Assuming you mean a symmetric real matrix we have  $A^H = A^T = A$ . So A can be diagonalized with a unitary matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} A &= U D U^H \\ e^A &= e^{U D U^H} = I + U D U^H + \frac{(U D U^H)^2}{2!} + \dots \\ &= U \left( I + D + \frac{D^2}{2!} + \dots \right) U^H \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= U e^D U^H \\ \text{Since} &= U \begin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & \\ & e^{\lambda_2} & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{pmatrix} U^H \end{aligned}$$

~~Since  $e^{\lambda}$  is always greater than zero and  $e^{\lambda}$  are all on the diagonal~~  
~~because  $e^{\lambda}$  are all on the diagonal~~  
 why?

4b continued  
 we have that  $(e^{\lambda_i})^n$  are the eigenvalues of the matrix  $e^{nA}$ . Since  $e^{\lambda_i}$  is always greater than zero we have that all eigenvalues are greater than zero. So  $e^{nA}$  is positive definite.

$$\boxed{5} \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \quad p_A(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \lambda - 1$$

$$\text{and } \alpha_0 = \alpha_1 = 1 \quad \text{and } \alpha_{k+2} = \alpha_{k+1} + \alpha_k \quad \text{for } k \geq 0$$

$$\text{Show that } A^{n+2} = \alpha_{n+1} A + \alpha_n I$$

for  $n \geq 0$ .

First prove for  $n=0$

then  $A^2 = \alpha_1 A + \alpha_0 I = A + I =$   
 Because  $p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \lambda - 1$  so  $p(A) = A^2 - A - I = 0$   
 So  $A^2 = A + I$ . So for  $n=0$  the hypothesis holds.

Now assume it holds for all  $k$ . Then to prove the hypothesis we have to prove that it also holds for  $k+1$ .

For  $k$   
 This holds:  $A^{(k+1)+2} = \alpha_{k+1} A + \alpha_k I$

Multiplying both sides with  $A$  gives us.

$$\begin{aligned} A^{(k+1)+2} &= \alpha_{k+1} A^2 + \alpha_k A && \boxed{A^2 = A + I} \\ &= \alpha_{k+1} (A + I) + \alpha_k A \\ &= (\alpha_{k+1} + \alpha_k) A + \alpha_{k+1} I \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\alpha_{k+1} + \alpha_k = \alpha_{k+2}$  we get

$$15 \quad A^{(k+1)+2} = \alpha_{k+2} A + \alpha_{k+1} I$$

So the statement holds also for  $k+1$  and thus

$$\underline{A^{n+2} = \alpha_{n+1} A + \alpha_n I \text{ holds for all } n \geq 0}$$

$$6 \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$13 \quad \text{Eigenvalues} \Rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

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

$\lambda = 1$  with multiplicity 3

Eigenvectors:  $N(A - \lambda I)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow x_3 = 0$$

$$2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

$$x_2 = -\frac{3}{2}x_3 \text{ so } x_2 = 0$$

So  $x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is only eigenvector.

Because the number of <sup>Jordan</sup> blocks is determined by the number of eigenvectors, we have that  $J$  has 1 block

So  $J = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Now the highest number  $k$  such that it is sr. ll consistent:

$$(A - I)^k s = x$$

$$(A - I)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{is consistent}$$

$$(A - I)^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 24 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$(A - I)^3$  and  $(A - I)^2$  are equal up to a constant.

Now we can use  $(A - I)^2$ :

$$(A - I)^2 s = x$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

~~Handwritten scribbles and crossed-out work, including matrix equations and vector definitions.~~

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 12x_3 = 1 \\ x_3 = \frac{1}{12} \end{array} \right\} x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{12} \end{bmatrix}$$

~~$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$~~

~~$$x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{12} \end{bmatrix}$$~~

$$(A-I)x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{12} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{6} \\ \frac{1}{6} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x_3$$

$$\text{Dus } X = [x_1 \ x_3 \ x_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{6} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{6} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{12} \end{bmatrix}$$