

Linear Algebra - Hoffman & Kunze (Problems)

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First part

Section 3.5

6. Let m and n be positive integers and \mathbb{F} a field. Let f_1, \dots, f_m be linear functionals on \mathbb{F}^n . For α in \mathbb{F}^n define

$$T\alpha = (f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_m(\alpha)).$$

Show that T is a linear transformation from \mathbb{F}^n into \mathbb{F}^m . Then show that every linear transformation from \mathbb{F}^n into \mathbb{F}^m is of the above form, for some f_1, \dots, f_m

Proof.

The transformation T is linear:

$$\begin{aligned} T(\alpha + c\beta) &= (f_1(\alpha + c\beta), \dots, f_m(\alpha + c\beta)) \\ &= (f_1(\alpha) + cf_1(\beta), \dots, f_m(\alpha) + cf_m(\beta)) \\ &= (f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_m(\alpha)) + c(f_1(\beta), \dots, f_m(\beta)) \\ &= T\alpha + cT\beta. \end{aligned}$$

We show that for every linear transformation T from \mathbb{F}^n to \mathbb{F}^m there exists $f_1, \dots, f_m \in V^*$ such that $T\alpha = (f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_m(\alpha))$. Let $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) := \alpha$ be a vector $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}^n$ represented in the canonical basis \mathcal{B} . Then we can write the linear transformation $T\alpha = (\sum_{i=1}^n a_{1i}\alpha_i, \dots, \sum_{i=1}^n a_{mi}\alpha_i)$, thus we define the linear functionals:

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 &:= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{1i}\varphi^i, \\ &\vdots \\ f_m &:= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{mi}\varphi^i; \end{aligned}$$

where $\{\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n\}$ is the basis dual to \mathcal{B} . Hence, the linear transformation T is

$$T = (f_1, \dots, f_m).$$

□

Section 3.7

1. Let \mathbb{F} be a field and let f be the linear functional on \mathbb{F}^2 defined by $f(x_1, x_2) = ax_1 + bx_2$. For each of the following linear operators T , let $g = T^t g$, and find $g(x_1, x_2)$.

(a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, 0)$;

(b) $T(x_1, x_2) = (-x_2, x_1);$

(c) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2).$

Solution.

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_1, x_2) &= T^t f(x_1, x_2) \\ &= f(T(x_1, x_2)) \\ &= f(x_1, 0) \\ &= ax_1. \end{aligned}$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_1, x_2) &= T^t f(x_1, x_2) \\ &= f(T(x_1, x_2)) \\ &= f(-x_2, x_1) \\ &= -ax_2 + bx_1. \end{aligned}$$

(c)

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_1, x_2) &= T^t f(x_1, x_2) \\ &= f(T(x_1, x_2)) \\ &= f(x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2) \\ &= (a + b)x_1 + (b - a)x_2. \end{aligned}$$

□

Section 8.1

2. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . Show that the sum of two inner products on V is an inner product on V . Is the difference of two inner products an inner product? Show that a positive multiple of an inner product is an inner product.

Proof.

Let $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle_1$ and $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle_2$ be inner products on V . In order to $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$, defined by $\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle_1 + \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle_2$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in V$, to be an inner product it must satisfy

(a) $\langle \alpha + \beta | \gamma \rangle = \langle \alpha | \gamma \rangle + \langle \beta | \gamma \rangle,$

(b) $\langle c\alpha | \beta \rangle = c \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle,$

(c) $\langle \beta | \alpha \rangle = \overline{\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle},$

(d) $\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle > 0$ if $\alpha \neq 0$.

Then

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha + \beta | \gamma \rangle &= \langle \alpha + \beta | \gamma \rangle_1 + \langle \alpha + \beta | \gamma \rangle_2 \\ &= \langle \alpha | \gamma \rangle_1 + \langle \alpha | \gamma \rangle_2 + \langle \beta | \gamma \rangle_1 + \langle \beta | \gamma \rangle_2 \\ &= \langle \alpha | \gamma \rangle + \langle \beta | \gamma \rangle \end{aligned}$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned}\langle c\alpha|\beta\rangle &= \langle c\alpha|\beta\rangle_1 + \langle c\alpha|\beta\rangle_2 \\ &= c\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_1 + c\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_2 \\ &= c(\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_1 + \langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_2) \\ &= c\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle\end{aligned}$$

(c)

$$\begin{aligned}\langle\beta|\alpha\rangle &= \langle\beta|\alpha\rangle_1 + \langle\beta|\alpha\rangle_2 \\ &= \overline{\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_1} + \overline{\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_2} \\ &= \overline{\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_1 + \langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_2} \\ &= \overline{\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle}\end{aligned}$$

(d)

$$\langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle = \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle_1 + \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle_2 > 0$$

The difference of two inner products is in general *not an inner product*. Indeed, let $\langle\cdot|\cdot\rangle_2 = \langle\cdot|\cdot\rangle_1$, then (d) isn't satisfied: $\langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle = \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle_1 - \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle_1 = 0$. A positive multiple of an inner product, defined by $\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle = \lambda\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle_1$ with $\lambda > 0$, is an inner product since it trivially holds (a), (b), (c) and (d). \square

Section 8.2

1. Consider \mathbb{R}^4 with the standard inner product. Let W be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 consisting of all vectors which are orthogonal to both $\alpha = (1, 0, -1, 1)$ and $\beta = (2, 3, -1, 2)$. Find a basis for W .

Solution.

Let $S := \text{span}\{\alpha, \beta\}$ and W the subspace orthogonal to S . We know that $\dim W + \dim S = \dim V$, therefore a basis for W is a set of two linearly independent solutions to

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \\ w_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, we may choose $\{e_1, e_2\}$ as basis for W , where $e_1 = (2, -1, 3, 1)$ and $e_2 = (1, 1/3, -1, -2)$. \square

9. Let V be the subspace of $\mathbb{R}[x]$ of polynomials of degree at most 3. Equip V with the inner products

$$\langle f|g\rangle = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t)dt.$$

(a) Find the orthogonal complement of the subspace of scalar polynomials.

(b) Apply the Gram-Schmidt process to the basis $\{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$.

Solution.

(a) We shall answer this with the results of (b).

(b) Since $\dim V = 4$ we need to find

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_1 &= 1, \\ \alpha_2 &= x - \frac{\langle x|\alpha_1\rangle}{\|\alpha_1\|^2}\alpha_1, \\ \alpha_3 &= x^2 - \frac{\langle x^2|\alpha_1\rangle}{\|\alpha_1\|^2}\alpha_1 - \frac{\langle x^2|\alpha_2\rangle}{\|\alpha_2\|^2}\alpha_2, \\ \alpha_4 &= x^3 - \frac{\langle x^3|\alpha_1\rangle}{\|\alpha_1\|^2}\alpha_1 - \frac{\langle x^3|\alpha_2\rangle}{\|\alpha_2\|^2}\alpha_2 - \frac{\langle x^3|\alpha_3\rangle}{\|\alpha_3\|^2}\alpha_3,\end{aligned}$$

Calculating

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x|\alpha_1\rangle &= \frac{1}{2}, & \|\alpha_1\|^2 &= 1, \\ \alpha_2 &= x - \frac{1}{2}, \\ \langle x^2|\alpha_1\rangle &= \frac{1}{3}, & \|\alpha_2\|^2 &= \int_0^1 x^2 - x + \frac{1}{4} dx = \frac{1}{12}, \\ \langle x^2|\alpha_2\rangle &= \int_0^1 x^3 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 dx = \frac{1}{12}, \\ \alpha_3 &= x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}, \\ \langle x^3|\alpha_1\rangle &= \frac{1}{4}, & \|\alpha_3\|^2 &= \int_0^1 \left(x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}\right)^2 dx = \frac{1}{180}, \\ \langle x^3|\alpha_2\rangle &= \int_0^1 x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^3 dx = \frac{3}{40}, \\ \langle x^3|\alpha_3\rangle &= \int_0^1 x^5 - x^4 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 dx = \frac{1}{120}, \\ \alpha_4 &= x^3 - \frac{3}{4}x^2 + \frac{3}{5}x - \frac{1}{20}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we get an orthogonal basis:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_1 &= 1, \\ \alpha_2 &= x - \frac{1}{2}, \\ \alpha_3 &= x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}, \\ \alpha_4 &= x^3 - \frac{3}{4}x^2 + \frac{3}{5}x - \frac{1}{20}.\end{aligned}$$

Finally, the answer to (a) is: $W := \text{span}\{\alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4\}$ is the orthogonal complement of the subspace of scalar polynomials. \square

Section 8.3

5. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space and T a linear operator on V . If T is invertible, show that T^* is invertible and $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$.

Proof.

Since T is invertible, it follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle &= \langle T^{-1} T \alpha | \beta \rangle, \\ &= \langle T \alpha | (T^{-1})^* \beta \rangle, \\ &= \langle \alpha | T^* (T^{-1})^* \beta \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $T^* (T^{-1})^* = \mathbb{I}$, for which T^* is invertible and $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$.

□

Section 8.4

1. Find a unitary matrix which is not orthogonal, and find an orthogonal matrix which is not unitary.

Solution.

The matrix:

$$A := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}$$

is *unitary and not orthogonal*. Indeed:

$$\begin{aligned}A^* A &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ -i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} & i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} - i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \\ -i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} + i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} & \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \\ A^t A &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ i\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} & i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} + i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \\ i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} + i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{3} & 2i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \\ 2i\frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

The matrix:

$$B := \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & i \\ i & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix},$$

is *orthogonal and not unitary*. Indeed:

$$\begin{aligned}
B^*B &= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & -i \\ -i & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & i \\ i & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 2+1 & i\sqrt{2}+i\sqrt{2} \\ -i\sqrt{2}-i\sqrt{2} & 1+2 \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2i\sqrt{2} \\ -2i\sqrt{2} & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \\
B^tB &= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & i \\ i & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & i \\ i & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 2-1 & i\sqrt{2}-i\sqrt{2} \\ i\sqrt{2}-i\sqrt{2} & -1+2 \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},
\end{aligned}$$

□

Section 8.5

2. Is a complex symmetric matrix self-adjoint? Is it normal?

Solution.

A complex symmetric matrix is in general *neither self-adjoint nor normal*. Counterexample, let $A \in M_2(\mathbb{C})$ be the symmetric matrix

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrix A is not self-adjoint, i.e. $A \neq A^*$:

$$A^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & -1 \end{bmatrix} \neq A.$$

The matrix A is not normal, i.e. $AA^* \neq A^*A$:

$$AA^* = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \tag{1}$$

$$A^*A = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

$$\neq AA^*. \tag{3}$$

□

10. Prove that every positive matrix is the square of a positive matrix.

Proof.

Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ positive. Then, A is Hermitian and by the corollary of theorem 18 (section 8.5) there is a unitary matrix P such that $\Lambda := P^{-1}AP$ is diagonal. Therefore, we have $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ with $\lambda_j > 0$ for all $j = 1, \dots, n$ since A is a positive the matrix.

Define $\Lambda^{1/2} := \text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_n})$ and $B := P\Lambda^{1/2}P^{-1}$, then B is a positive matrix and

$$\begin{aligned} B^2 &:= BB \\ &= P\Lambda^{1/2}P^{-1}P\Lambda^{1/2}P^{-1} \\ &= P\Lambda^{1/2}\Lambda^{1/2}P^{-1} \\ &= P\Lambda P^{-1} \\ &= A. \end{aligned}$$

□

Second part

Section 9.2

1. Which of the following functions f , defined on vectors $\alpha = (x_1, x_2)$ and $\beta = (y_1, y_2)$ in C^2 , are (sesqui-linear) forms on C^2 ?

- (a) $f(\alpha, \beta) = 1$.
- (b) $f(\alpha, \beta) = (x_1 - \bar{y}_1)^2 + x_2\bar{y}_2$.
- (c) $f(\alpha, \beta) = (x_1 + \bar{y}_1)^2 - (x_1 - \bar{y}_1)^2$.
- (d) $f(\alpha, \beta) = x_1\bar{y}_2 - \bar{x}_2y_1$.

Solution.

- (a) No, $f(\alpha + \beta, \gamma) = 1 \neq f(\alpha, \gamma) + f(\beta, \gamma)$.
- (b) No, $f(\alpha, c\beta + \gamma) \neq \bar{c}f(\alpha, \beta) + f(\alpha, \gamma)$.
- (c) Yes,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha + c\beta, \gamma) &= 4x_1\bar{z}_1 + 4cy_1\bar{z}_1 = f(\alpha, \gamma) + cf(\beta, \gamma) \\ f(\alpha, c\beta + \gamma) &= 4\bar{c}x_1\bar{y}_1 + 4x_1\bar{z}_1 = \bar{c}f(\alpha, \beta) + f(\alpha, \gamma) \end{aligned}$$

- (d) No, $f(\alpha, c\beta + \gamma) = \bar{c}x_1\bar{y}_2 - c\bar{x}_2y_1 + x_1\bar{z}_2 - \bar{x}_2z_1 \neq \bar{c}f(\alpha, \beta) + f(\alpha, \gamma)$.

□

9. Let f be a non-degenerate form on a finite-dimensional space V . Show that each linear operator S has an 'adjoint relative to f ', i.e., an operator S' such that

$$f(S\alpha, \beta) = f(\alpha, S'\beta) \quad \text{for all } \alpha, \beta.$$

Proof.

We define

$$\ell : V \rightarrow V^* : \beta \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow f(S\alpha, \beta)),$$

and for each $\beta \in V$ we write $\ell(\beta) = \ell_\beta \in V^*$. Since f is non-degenerate and ℓ_β is a linear functional on V , by exercise 8 (section 9.2) there exists a unique $\beta' \in V$ such that

$$\ell_\beta(\alpha) = f(\alpha, \beta'),$$

i.e.

$$f(S\alpha, \beta) = f(\alpha, \beta').$$

Let S be the operator which maps β to β' ($f(S\alpha, \beta) = f(\alpha, S'\beta)$). It remains to prove that S is linear:

$$f(\alpha, S'(\beta + c\gamma)) = f(S\alpha, \beta + c\gamma) \quad (4)$$

$$= f(S\alpha, \beta) + cf(S\alpha, \gamma) \quad (5)$$

$$= f(\alpha, S'\beta) + cf(\alpha, S'\gamma) \quad (6)$$

$$= f(\alpha, S'\beta + cS'\gamma). \quad (7)$$

Hence, $S'(\beta + c\gamma) = S'\beta + cS'\gamma$. □

Section 9.3

7. Give an example of an $n \times n$ matrix which has all its principal minors positive, but which is not a positive matrix.

Solution.

Consider the matrix

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The principal minors of A are

$$\Delta_1(A) = 1, \quad \Delta_2(A) = 1, \quad \Delta_3(A) = 1;$$

and A isn't a positive matrix since $A^t \neq A$. □

14. Prove that the product of two positive linear operators is positive if and only if they commute.

Proof.

Let T_1 and T_2 be positive operators, then $(T_i)^* = T_i$ and $\langle T_i \alpha | \alpha \rangle > 0$ for all $\alpha \neq 0$ in V . We show that if $T_1 T_2$ is positive then $T_1 T_2 = T_2 T_1$:

Since T_1 , T_2 and $T_1 T_2$ are positive, it follows

$$\begin{aligned} T_1 T_2 &= (T_1 T_2)^* \\ &= T_2^* T_1^* \\ &= T_2 T_1. \end{aligned}$$

Conversely, we show that if $T_1 T_2 = T_2 T_1$ then $(T_1 T_2)^* = T_1 T_2$ and $\langle T_1 T_2 \alpha | \alpha \rangle > 0$ for all $\alpha \neq 0$:

For the first part, $T_1 T_2 = T_2 T_1 = T_2^* T_1^* = (T_1 T_2)^*$. For the second part, we have from the problem 10 of section 8.5 that on each basis the matrix of T_i is the square of a positive matrix. Let B be the operator $B^2 = T_2$, then $T_1 B B = B B T_1 = B B^* T_1^* = B T_1 B$, hence

$$\langle T_1 B B \alpha | \alpha \rangle = \langle B T_1 B \alpha | \alpha \rangle = \langle T_1 B \alpha | B \alpha \rangle = \langle T_1 \tilde{\alpha} | \tilde{\alpha} \rangle > 0.$$

□

Section 10.1

5. Describe the bilinear forms on \mathbb{R}^3 which satisfy $f(\alpha, \beta) = -f(\beta, \alpha)$ for all α, β .

Solution.

We choose the canonical basis $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ for \mathbb{R}^3 , and let:

$$A := (f(e_i, e_j)) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A_{12} & -A_{31} \\ -A_{12} & 0 & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & -A_{23} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $A_{ij} = f(e_i, e_j)$. Then, for vectors $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$ and $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3)$ on \mathbb{R}^3 we get

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha, \beta) &= [\alpha]^t A [\beta] \\ &= A_{12}(\alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1) + A_{23}(\alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2) + A_{31}(\alpha_3 \beta_1 - \alpha_1 \beta_3). \end{aligned}$$

□

Section 10.2

5. Let q be the quadratic form on \mathbb{R}^2 given by

$$q(x_1, x_2) = ax_1^2 + 2bx_1x_2 + cx_2^2, \quad a \neq 0.$$

Find an invertible linear operator U on \mathbb{R}^2 such that

$$(U^\dagger q)(x_1, x_2) = ax_1^2 + \left(c - \frac{b^2}{a}\right)x_2^2,$$

Solution.

Completing the square,

$$\begin{aligned} q(x_1, x_2) &= ax_1^2 + 2bx_1x_2 + cx_2^2 \\ &= a \left(x_1 + \frac{b}{a}x_2\right)^2 + \left(c - \frac{b^2}{a}\right)x_2^2 \\ &= q(U^{-1}U(x_1, x_2)), \end{aligned}$$

then, $U^{-1}(\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2) = (\tilde{x}_1 + \frac{b}{a}\tilde{x}_2, \tilde{x}_2)$. Therefore,

$$U(x_1, x_2) = \left(x_1 - \frac{b}{a}x_2, x_2\right).$$

Indeed

$$\begin{aligned} q(U(x_1, x_2)) &= a \left(x_1 - \frac{b}{a}x_2\right)^2 + \left(c - \frac{b^2}{a}\right)x_2^2 \\ &= (U^\dagger q)(x_1, x_2). \end{aligned}$$

□