CS 6015: Linear Algebra and Random Processes Assignment: 01

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1. (1 point) Have you read and understood the honor code?

Solution: Yes.

Eigenstory: Special Properties

2. (1 point) Prove that for any square matrix A the eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are always independent.

Solution: Let, A be $k \times k$ matrix, $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m\}$ $(m \le k)$ be the eigenvalues of A, $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ be the corresponding eigenvectors.

When m = k, there exists k distinct eigenvalues and k linearly independent eigenvectors, as it spans the k-dimensional column vector.

Hence, Proved.

- 3. (2 points) Prove the following.
 - (a) The sum of the eigenvalues of a matrix is equal to its trace.

Solution: The Characteristic Equation of an $n \times n$ matrix A is given by:

$$p(t) = det(A - tI) = (-1)^n \{t^n - (tr(A))t^{n-1} + \dots + (-1)^n det(A)\}$$

On the other hand,

$$p(t) = (-1)^n(t - \lambda_1) \dots (t - \lambda_n),$$

when the λ_j are eigenvalues of A. So, by comparing coefficients,

$$tr(A) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \cdots + \lambda_n$$

(b) The product of the eigenvalues of a matrix is equal to its determinant.

Solution: We know that the determinant of a triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal elements. Therefore, given a matrix A , we can find P such that $P^{-1}AP$ is upper triangular with the eigenvalues of A on the diagonal. Thus $det(P^{-1}AP)$ is the product of the eigenvalues. We also know that $det(P^{-1}AP) = det(P^{-1}PA) = det(A)$. Thus, the determinant of A is the product of the eigenvalues.

4. (2 points) What is the relationship between the rank of a matrix and the number of non-zero eigenvalues? Explain your answer.

Solution: The claim that the rank of a matrix is equal to the number of non-zero eigenvalues will hold true only for diagonalizable matrices. If a matrix is $n \times n$, then diagonalizability is equivalent to having a set of n linearly independent eigenvectors, and those eigenvectors corresponding to non-zero eigenvalues will form a basis for the range of the matrix; hence rank is obtained (including multiplicities).

However, if you look at A^TA , then you can use the eigenvalues of that matrix to obtain the rank, regardless of what A is. This is because A^TA is symmetric, and thus must be <u>diagonalizable</u>, and furthermore one can show that $rank(A^TA) = rank(A)$.

5. (1 point) If A is a square symmetric matrix then prove that the number of positive pivots it has is the same as the number of positive eigenvalues it has.

Solution: Let us assume, Matrix A allows the symmetric factorization A = LDU. By the law of inertia, A has the same number of positive eigenvalues as D. But, the eigenvalues of D are just its diagonal entries (i.e. the pivots). Thus, the number of positive pivots matches the number of positive eigenvalues of A.

Eigenstory: Special Matrices

- 6. (2 points) Consider the matrix $R = I 2uu^T$ where u is a unit vector $\in \mathbb{R}^n$.
 - (a) Show that R is symmetric and orthogonal. (How many independent vectors will R have?)

Solution:

$$R = I - 2uu^{T}$$

$$R^{T} = I^{T} - 2(uu^{T})^{T}$$

$$= I - 2uu^{T}$$

$$= R$$

$$\therefore R^{T} = R \rightarrow R \text{ is Symmetric.}$$

If orthogonal

$$R^{\mathsf{T}}R = I$$

$$\therefore (I - \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}}(I - 2\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}})$$

$$= I \cdot I - 2\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} - 2\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} + 4(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}})$$

$$= I - 4\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} - 4 \cdot \mathbf{u}\underline{\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \quad [\because \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{1}]$$

$$= I$$

Thus, R is also orthogonal.

Number of independent vectors of R = n

(b) Let $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Draw the line passing through this vector in geogebra (or any tool of your choice). Now take any vector in \mathbf{R}^3 and multiply it with the matrix R (i.e., the matrix R as defined above with $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$). What do you observe or what do you think the matrix R does or what would you call matrix R? (Hint: the name starts with R)

Solution:

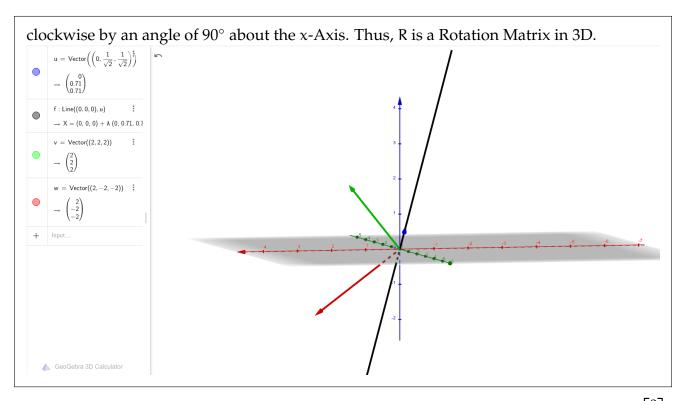
$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R = I - 2\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{T}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

Therefore, it can be observed that multiplying any vector in \mathbb{R}^3 with R rotates it counter-



(c) Compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix R as defined above with $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution:
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad R - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \det(R - \lambda I) = (1 - \lambda)(\lambda^2 - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - \lambda)(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 1, -1, 1$$
When, $\lambda = 1$,
$$(R - I)\mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here,

$$\mathbf{x}_1 \rightarrow \text{free}$$
; $\mathbf{x}_2 \rightarrow \text{fixed}$; $\mathbf{x}_3 \rightarrow \text{free}$

Now,

$$\therefore -x_2 - x_3 = 0; \text{ Let, } x_1 = 0, x_3 = 1$$

$$\implies -x_2 = 1$$

$$\implies x_2 = -1$$

$$\therefore \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore -x_2 - x_3 = 0; \text{ Let, } x_1 = 1, x_3 = 0$$

$$\implies -x_2 = 0$$

$$\therefore \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

When $\lambda = -1$,

$$(R+I)\mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\implies \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Here,

$$\textbf{x}_1 \rightarrow pivot$$
 ; $\textbf{x}_2 \rightarrow pivot$; $\textbf{x}_3 \rightarrow free$

Now,

$$\therefore 2x_1 = 0$$

$$x_2 - x_3 = 0$$

$$\therefore \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(d) I believe that irrespective of what **u** is any such matrix R will have the same eigenvalues as you obtained above (with one of the eigenvalues repeating). Can you reason why this is the case? (Hint: think about how we reasoned about the eigenvectors of the projection matrix P even without computing them.)

Solution: Observing the way R has been constructed, it is true that irrespective of \mathbf{u} , Matrix R will have the same eigenvalues with one of them repeating, because ultimately the vectors lie in the columnspace of \mathbf{u} .

7. (2 points) Let Q be a $n \times n$ real orthogonal matrix (i.e., all its elements are real and its columns

are orthonormal). State with reason whether the following statements are True or False (provide a proof if the statement is True and a counter-example if it is False).

(a) If λ is an eigenvalue of Q then $|\lambda| = 1$

Solution: True. Let, Q be an orthogonal matrix, with an eigenvalue λ and \mathbf{x} be an eigenvector belonging to λ . Since, \mathbf{x} is non-zero and Q is orthogonal, it follows:

(b) The eigenvectors of Q are orthogonal

Solution: False. Two Eigenvectors of the Identity matrix need not be orthogonal.

(c) Q is always diagonalizable.

Solution: False. Let, S be the eigenvectors of Q.

$$\begin{split} QS &= \begin{bmatrix} Q_1S_1 & Q_2S_2 & \dots & Q_nS_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1S_1 & \lambda_2S_2 & \dots & \lambda_nS_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} S_1 & S_2 & \dots & S_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &\Longrightarrow QS &= S\lambda \\ &\Longrightarrow S^{-1}QS &= \lambda \end{split}$$

But, S might not be invertible as the eigenvectors may be dependent. Hence, **not** diagonalisable.

- 8. (1.5 points) Any rank one matrix can be written as $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}}$.
 - (a) Prove that the eigenvalues of any rank one matrix are $\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}$ and 0.

Solution: Given, $A = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}}$.

∴ A is rank 1, and not a full rank matrix,

∴ 0 is an eigenvalue of that matrix A.

Again,

$$A\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})$$

$$A\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})\mathbf{u}$$

 $1 : \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}$ is another eigenvalue.

Hence, Proved.

(b) How many times does the value 0 repeat?

Solution: '0' will repeat (n-1) times.

(c) What are the eigenvectors corresponding to these eigenvalues?

Solution: Let, x be a non-zero vector, such that:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

$$(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}})\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$u(\boldsymbol{v}^T\boldsymbol{x}) = \lambda \boldsymbol{x}$$

- 9. (2 points) Consider a $n \times n$ Markov matrix.
 - (a) Prove that the dominant eigenvalue of a Markov matrix is 1.

Solution: Let, λ be an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{x} be the corresponding eigenvector.

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} \tag{1}$$

Let, k be such that $|x_i| \le |x_k|$, $\forall 1 \le j, k \le n$.

Then equating the k_{th} component of each side of the above $eq^n(1)$ gives,

$$\Sigma_{j=1}^n \alpha_{kj} x_j = \lambda x_k$$

Hence,

$$\begin{split} |\lambda x_k| &= |\lambda| \cdot |x_k| = |\Sigma_{j=1}^n \alpha_{kj} x_j| \leqslant \Sigma_{j=1}^n \alpha_{kj} |x_j| \\ &\leqslant \Sigma_{j=1}^n \alpha_{kj} |x_k| = |x_k| \end{split}$$

Hence, $\lambda \leqslant 1$

This proves that 1 is an eigenvalue and all other eigenvalues are less than 1. Hence, Proved!

(b) Consider any 2×2 matrix $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ such that a + b = c + d. Show that one of the eigenvalues of such a matrix is 1. (I hope you notice that a Markov matrix is a special case of such a matrix where a + b = c + d = 1.)

Solution: Let,
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $a + b = c + d$.

$$\therefore \lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + (ad-bc) = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{(a+d) \mp \sqrt{(a+d)^2 - 4ad + 4bc}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(a+d) \mp \sqrt{(a-d)^2 + 4bc}}{2} = \frac{(a+d) \mp (b+c)}{2}$$

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{a+b+c+d}{2} \text{ or } \frac{a+d-b-c}{2}$$

Now, Since its a markov matrix, from $\lambda = \frac{a+b+c+d}{2}$,

$$\therefore a + b = c + d = 1$$
Thus, $\lambda = \frac{2(a+b)}{2} = 1$

And, from $\lambda = \frac{a+d-b-c}{2}$, it can be inferred that other eigenvalues are less than 1. Hence, Proved!

(c) Does the result extend to $n \times n$ matrices where the sum of the elements of a row is the same for all the n rows? (Explain with reason)

Solution: Yes, it holds true.

Because, one of the eigenvalues will have $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} 1}{n} = 1$

Hence, the following holds true for any $n \times n$ Markov Matrix, following the above mentioned property.

(d) What is the corresponding Eigenvector?

Solution: For the given matrix, a + b = c + d = 1 and $\lambda = 1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a-1 & b \\ c & d-1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} (a-1) & b \\ 0 & (d-1) - \frac{bc}{a-1} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} (a-1) & b \\ 0 & -c + \frac{bc}{b} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} (a-1) & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} (a-1) & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Solving the $X_{nullspace}$,

$$\mathbf{x}_{2} = \mathbf{c}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{1}(\alpha - 1) = -\mathbf{b}\mathbf{c}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{1} = -\frac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{c}}{(\alpha - 1)} = \frac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{c}$$

$$\therefore X_{\text{nullspace}} = \mathbf{c} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$Eignevector = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, for $n \times n$ matrix, we will have eigenvector x such that,

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1}$$

EigenStory: Special Relations

- 10. (4 points) For each of the statements below state True or False with reason.
 - (a) The eigenvalues of A^T are always the same as that of A.

Solution: True. We find the eigenvalues of a matrix by computing the characteristic polynomial; that is, we find $det(A - \lambda I)$.

$$\begin{aligned} det(A^T - \lambda I) &= det(A^T - \lambda I^T) \\ &= det((A - \lambda I)^T) \\ &= det(A - \lambda I) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the characteristic polynomial equation of A^T is the same as that for A. So, they must have the same eigenvalues.

(b) The eigenvectors of A^T are always the same as that of A.

Solution: False. The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and its transpose $A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, have only one Eigenvalue, namely 1. However, the Eigenvectors of A are of the form $\begin{bmatrix} c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, whereas the eigenvectors of A^T are of the form $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ c \end{bmatrix}$.

(c) The eigenvalues of A^{-1} are always the reciprocal of the eigenvalues of A.

Solution: True.

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$$\Longrightarrow A^{-1}Av = \lambda A^{-1}v$$

$$\Longrightarrow A^{-1}v = \frac{1}{\lambda}v$$

(d) The eigenvectors of A^{-1} are always the same as the eigenvectors of A.

Solution: True. Consider an invertible matrix A with eigenvalue λ and eigenvector \mathbf{x} . Then, by definition, we know that

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

Now multiplying both sides by A^{-1} :

$$A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}\lambda x$$
$$x = A^{-1}\lambda x$$
$$\frac{1}{\lambda}x = A^{-1}x$$

Thus, $A^{-1}\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{x}$. This, shows that \mathbf{x} is an eigenvector of A^{-1} with eigenvalue $\frac{1}{\lambda}$.

(e) If x is an eigenvector of A and B then it is also an eigenvector of both AB and BA, even if the eigenvalues of A and B corresponding to x are different.

Solution: True. If **v** is an eigenvector of AB for some nonzero λ , then B**v** \neq 0 and

$$\lambda B \mathbf{v} = B(AB\mathbf{v}) = (BA)B\mathbf{v}$$

, so B**v** is an eigenvector for BA with the <u>same eigenvalue</u>. If 0 is an eigenvalue of AB then

$$0 = det(AB) = det(A)det(B) = det(BA)$$

so 0 is also an eigenvalue of BA.

(f) If x is and eigenvector of A and B then it is also an eigenvector of A + B.

Solution: True.

$$Ax = \lambda x, Bx = \mu x, x \neq 0$$

 $\implies (A + B)x = (\lambda + \mu)x$

That is, $\lambda + \mu$ is an eigenvalue of A+B and the corresponding eigenvector is x.

(g) If λ is an eigenvalue of A then $\lambda + k$ is an eigenvalue of A + kI.

Solution: True. Let, λ be the Eigenvalue of A.

$$(A + kI)x = Ax + kIx$$
$$= \lambda x + kx$$
$$= (\lambda + k)x$$

Thus, $(\lambda + k)$ is an eigenvalue of (A + kI).

(h) The non-zero eigenvalues of AA^T and A^TA are equal.

Solution: True. Let, $\mu \neq 0$ be an eigenvalue of A^TA . Therefore,

$$\begin{split} det(A^TA - \mu I) &= 0 \\ \Longrightarrow det(I + (-1/\mu)A^TA) &= 0 \\ \Longrightarrow det(I + A(-1/\mu)A^T) &= 0 \\ \Longrightarrow det(AA^T - \mu I) &= 0 \end{split}$$

Thus, $\mu \neq 0$ is an eigenvalue of AA^T .

Eigenstory: Change of basis

11. (2 points) Consider the following two basis. Basis 1: $\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, and Basis 2: $\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Consider a vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ in Basis 1 (i.e., $\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{u}_1 + b \mathbf{u}_2$). How would you represent it in Basis 2?

Solution: Given,

In Basis 1:

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 , $\mathbf{u}_2 = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} egin{bmatrix} 1 \ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

In Basis 2:

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} egin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 , $\mathbf{u}_2 = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} egin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

Let, $X = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ in Base 1.

$$\begin{split} \therefore \boldsymbol{X}_{Std} &= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{u}_1 & \boldsymbol{u}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a} \\ \boldsymbol{b} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X} \end{split}$$

$$\therefore \boldsymbol{X_{Base \, 2}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \\ \boldsymbol{b} \end{bmatrix}$$

12. (1 point) Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be two vectors in the standard basis. Let $T(\mathbf{u})$ and $T(\mathbf{v})$ be the representation of these vectors in a different basis. Prove that $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = T(\mathbf{u}) \cdot T(\mathbf{v})$ if and only if the basis represented by

T is an orthonormal basis (i.e., dot products are preserved only when the new basis is orthonormal).

Solution: In New Basis, let the points be $Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{u}$ and $Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}$.

$$\begin{split} \langle \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \cdot \rangle &= (\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{u})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \\ &= (\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{Q}^{-1})^{\mathsf{T}}) \cdot (\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \\ &= \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ &= \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v} \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \end{split}$$

Eigenstory: PCA and SVD

13. (1 point) How are PCA and SVD related? (no vague answers please, think and answer very precisely with mathematical reasoning)

Solution: Simply put, the PCA viewpoint requires that one compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, which is the product $\frac{1}{n-1}XX^T$, where **X** is the data matrix. Since the covariance matrix is symmetric, the matrix is <u>diagonalizable</u>, and the eigenvectors can be normalized such that they are <u>orthonormal</u>:

$$\frac{1}{n-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} = \frac{1}{n-1}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{W}^{\top}$$

On the other hand, applying SVD to the data matrix \mathbf{X} as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{V}^{\top}$$

and attempting to construct the covariance matrix from this decomposition gives

$$\frac{1}{n-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} = \frac{1}{n-1}(\mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^{\top})(\mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^{\top})^{\top} = \frac{1}{n-1}(\mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^{\top})(\mathbf{V}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{U}^{\top})$$

and since V is an orthogonal matrix ($V^TV = I$),

$$\frac{1}{n-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} = \frac{1}{n-1} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma}^2 \mathbf{U}^{\top}$$

and the correspondence is easily seen (the square roots of the eigenvalues of XX^T are the singular values of X, etc.)

- 14. (1.5 points) Consider the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$
 - (a) Find Σ and V , i.e., the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A^\mathsf{T} A$

Solution: Let,
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{\mathsf{T}}A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 7 \\ 7 & 25 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A^{\mathsf{T}}A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 7 \\ 7 & 25 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 - \lambda & 7 \\ 7 & 25 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculating EigenValues:

$$\det(A^{A} - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (25 - \lambda)^{2} - 49 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^{2} + 50\lambda + 625 - 49 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^{2} - 50\lambda + 576 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 32,18$$

Eigenvector for Eigenvalue $\lambda = 32$:

$$(A^{\mathsf{T}}A - 32I)\mathbf{v} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 7 \\ 7 & 25 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 32 \end{bmatrix} \right)\mathbf{v} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 7 \\ 7 & -7 \end{bmatrix}\mathbf{v} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvector for Eigenvalue $\lambda = 18$:

$$(A^{\mathsf{T}}A - 18I)\mathbf{v} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 7 \\ 7 & 25 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 7 \\ 7 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Say,

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } D = \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, Eigenvalue decomposition of $A^TA = V\Sigma^T\Sigma V^T$, then $\Sigma^T\Sigma = D$.

Hence,
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{32} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$.

(b) Find Σ and U, i.e., the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of AA^T

Solution:

$$AA^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$(AA^{\mathsf{T}} - \lambda I) = \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 32 - \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 18 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculating Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors:

$$det(AA^{T} - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\implies (32 - \lambda)(18 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\implies \lambda = 18.32$$

Eigenvector for $\lambda = 32$:

$$(AA^{\mathsf{T}} - 32I)\mathbf{v} = 0 \implies \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 32 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = 0$$
$$\implies \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -14 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} = 0 \implies \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvector for $\lambda = 18$:

$$(AA^{\mathsf{T}} - 18I)\mathbf{v} = 0 \implies \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = 0$$
$$\implies \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} = 0 \implies \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Say, $U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $D = \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 0 \\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$. So, the eigenvalue decomposition of $AA^T = UDU^T$. We know,

$$AA^{\mathsf{T}} = U\Sigma\Sigma^{\mathsf{T}}U^{\mathsf{T}}$$
, then $\Sigma\Sigma^{\mathsf{T}} = D$

Hence,
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{32} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) Now compute $U\Sigma V^T$. Did you get back A? If yes, good! If not, what went wrong?

Solution: We Know,

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{32} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore U\Sigma V^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{32} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{32} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{32} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \sqrt{32} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\sqrt{18} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \sqrt{18} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = A$$

$$U\Sigma V^{\mathsf{T}} = A$$

Hence, $A = U\Sigma V^T$. Proved!

15. (2 points) Prove that the matrices U and V that you get from the SVD of a matrix A contain the basis vectors for the four fundamental subspaces of A. (this is where the whole course comes together: fundamental subspaces, basis vectors, orthonormal vectors, eigenvectors, and our special symmetric matrices AA^T, A^TA!)

Solution: Let, A be an $\mathfrak{m} \times \mathfrak{n}$ real matrix, and $A = U\Sigma V^T$ be any SVD for A where U and V are orthogonal of size $\mathfrak{m} \times \mathfrak{m}$ and $\mathfrak{n} \times \mathfrak{n}$. Along with that let,

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \text{ where } D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r), \text{ with each } \lambda_i > 0$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u_1} & \dots & \mathbf{u_r} & \dots & \mathbf{u_m} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } V = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v_1} & \dots & \mathbf{v_r} & \dots & \mathbf{v_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

, with $\{u_1,\ldots,u_r,\ldots,u_m\}$ and $\{v_1,\ldots,v_r,\ldots,v_n\}$ are orthonormal bases of \mathbb{R}^m and \mathbb{R}^n respectively.

The Four fundamental spaces are:

(a) $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis of C(A).

Solution: As C(A) = C(AV) and $AV = U\Sigma$, then the above statement can be inferred from:

$$\label{eq:delta_sum} U\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \mathfrak{u}_1 & \dots & \mathfrak{u}_r & \dots & \mathfrak{u}_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(\lambda_1,\dots,\lambda_r) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \boldsymbol{u}_1 & \dots & \lambda_r \boldsymbol{u}_r & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) $\{u_{r+1}, \dots, u_m\}$ is an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{N}(A^T)$.

Solution: We know,

$$(C(A)^{\perp} = (\operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{u}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_m\})^{\perp} = \operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{u}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_m\}$$

. This proves the above statement because

$$(C(A))^{\perp} = \mathcal{N}(A^{\mathsf{T}})$$

.

(c) $\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{N}(A)$.

Solution: We know, dim(N(A)) + dim(im(A)) = n by Rank Nullity Theorem. Also, imA = C(A):

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(A)) = n - \dim(C(A)) = n - r = \dim(\text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\})$$

So, to prove the above statement, it is enough to show that $\mathbf{v}_j \in \mathcal{N}(A)$, whenever j > r.

$$\lambda_{r+1} = \cdots = \lambda_n = 0$$

So, $\mathbf{E}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{E} = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^2, \dots, \lambda_r^2, \lambda_{r+1}^2, \dots, \lambda_n^2)$

Each λ_i is an eigenvalue of $\Sigma^T \Sigma$ with eigenvector $\mathbf{x}_j = \text{Column } j$ of I_n . Thus, $\mathbf{v}_j = V \mathbf{x}_j$ for each j. As $A^T A = V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T$:

$$(A^{\mathsf{T}}A)\mathbf{v_j} = (V\Sigma^{\mathsf{T}}\Sigma V^{\mathsf{T}})(V\mathbf{x_j}) = V(\Sigma^{\mathsf{T}}\Sigma\mathbf{x_j}) = V(\lambda_j^2\mathbf{x_j}) = \lambda_j^2V\mathbf{x_j} = \lambda_j^2\mathbf{v_j}$$

for $1 \le j \le n$. Thus, each \mathbf{v}_i is an eigenvector of A^TA corresponding to λ_i^2 . But,

$$||A\mathbf{v}_j||^2 = (A\mathbf{v}_j)^\mathsf{T} A\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T} (A^\mathsf{T} A\mathbf{v}_j) = \mathbf{v}_j^\mathsf{T} (\lambda_j^2 \mathbf{v}_j) = \lambda_j^2 ||\mathbf{v}_j|| = \lambda_j^2$$

for $i=1,\ldots,n$. Particularly $A\mathbf{v}_j=0$, whenever j>r, so $\mathbf{v}_j\in\mathcal{N}(A)$, if j>r. This is what we desired initially.

Hence, Proved!

(d) $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis of $C(A^T)$.

Solution: We know,

$$span\{\mathbf{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} = \mathcal{N}(A) = (row(A))^T$$

But,

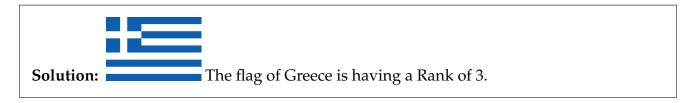
$$row(A) = ((row(A)^{\perp})^{\perp} = (span\{\boldsymbol{v}_{r+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_n\})^{\perp} = span\{\boldsymbol{v}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_r\}$$

This proves our above statement and hence the complete proof for all four fundamental subspaces.

- 16. (2 points) Fun with Flags.
 - (a) Browse through the flags of all countries and paste 5 rank one flags below.



(b) What is the rank of the flag of Greece?



- 17. (2 points) Consider the LFW dataset (Labeled Faces in the Wild).
 - (a) Perform PCA using this dataset and plot the first 25 eigenfaces (in a 5×5 grid)

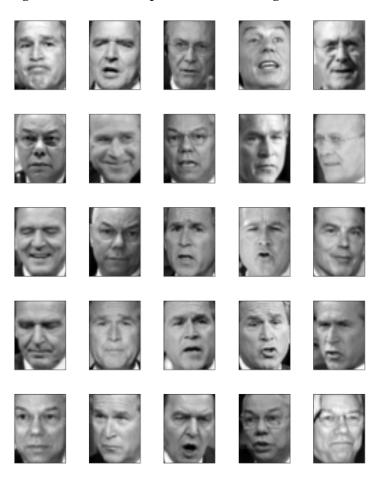
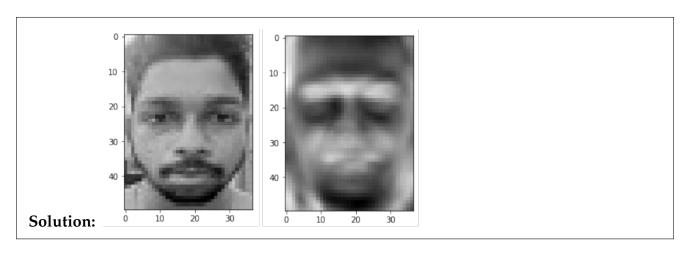


Figure 1: Original Dataset



Figure 2: Top 25 Eigenvectors

(b) Take your close-up photograph (face only) and reconstruct it using the first 25 eigenfaces :-). If due to privacy concerns, you do not want to to use your own photo then feel free to use a publicly available close-up photo (face only) of your favorite celebrity.



| And that concludes the story of <i>How I Met Your Eigenvectors</i> :-) (And Yes, I have enjoyed it so far |
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CODE:

```
from sklearn.datasets import fetch_lfw_people
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
```

```
def plot_gallery(images, h, w, n_row = 5, n_col = 5):
   plt.figure(figsize = (1.8 * n_col, 2.4 * n_row))
   plt.subplots_adjust(bottom = 0, left = .01, right = .99, top = .90, hspace = .35)
   for i in range(n_row * n_col):
        plt.subplot(n_row, n_col, i + 1)
        plt.imshow(images[i].reshape((h, w)), cmap = plt.cm.gray)
        plt.xticks(())
        plt.yticks(())
```

```
lfw_dataset = fetch_lfw_people(min_faces_per_person=100, resize=0.4)
_, h, w = lfw_dataset.images.shape
X = lfw_dataset.data
print(X.shape)
plot_gallery(X,h,w)
```

```
pca = PCA(n_components=n_components, whiten=True).fit(X)
plot_gallery(pca.components_,h,w)
```

EigenFaces on My Face:

```
import os
import cv2
import numpy as np
from matplotlib import pyplot as plt

im = cv2.imread('test2.jpg',0)

plt.imshow(im,cmap='gray')
print(im.shape)
print(im.flatten().shape)
```

```
im_transform = pca.transform(im.flatten().reshape((1,1850)))
print(im_transform.shape)
im_recons = np.matmul(pca.components_.T,test.T)
im_recons = im_recons.reshape(50,37)
print(im_recons.shape)
plt.imshow(im_recons, cmap='gray')
```

```
# EigenFaces (PCA) on LFW Dataset
from sklearn.datasets import fetch_lfw_people
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
def plot_gallery(images, h, w, n_row = 5, n_col = 5):
    plt.figure(figsize = (1.8 * n_col, 2.4 * n_row))
    plt.subplots_adjust(bottom = 0, left =.01, right =.99, top =.90, hspace =.35)
    for i in range(n_row * n_col):
        plt.subplot(n_row, n_col, i + 1)
        plt.imshow(images[i].reshape((h, w)), cmap = plt.cm.gray)
        plt.xticks(())
        plt.yticks(())
lfw_dataset = fetch_lfw_people(min_faces_per_person=100, resize=0.4)
_, h, w = lfw_dataset.images.shape
X = lfw_dataset.data
print (X.shape)
plot_gallery(X,h,w)
n_{components} = 25
pca = PCA(n components=n components, whiten=True).fit(X)
plot_gallery(pca.components_,h,w)
# EigenFaces on My Face
import cv2
im = cv2.imread('test2.jpg',0)
plt.imshow(im, cmap='gray')
print (im.shape)
print(im.flatten().shape)
im_transform = pca.transform(im.flatten().reshape((1,1850)))
print (im_transform.shape)
im_recons = np.matmul(pca.components_.T, test.T)
im_recons = im_recons.reshape(50,37)
print (im_recons.shape)
plt.imshow(im_recons, cmap='gray')
plt.show()
```