# Tutorial 1. (Solutions)

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17/02/2023

## Answer 1.

1. Write  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \ln(a) \begin{pmatrix} e \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \ln(b) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e \end{pmatrix}$ 

where  $\ln(a)$  denote the natural logarithm. Thus  $\binom{a}{b} \in \operatorname{Span} \left\{ \binom{e}{1}, \binom{1}{e} \right\}$  Also if for some real number a, we have

$$a \begin{pmatrix} e \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e.

$$\begin{pmatrix} e^a \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\implies$  1 = e, not possible. Therefore  $\beta = \left\{e^1 = \begin{pmatrix} e \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \ e^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e \end{pmatrix} \right\}$  is linearly independent subset of V. Hence,  $\beta$  is a basis of V.

**2.** Let 
$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}, Y = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \in V$$
 and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$T(\alpha X + Y) = T\left(\begin{pmatrix} x^{\alpha} \\ y^{\alpha} \end{pmatrix} + Y\right) = T\begin{pmatrix} x^{\alpha} u \\ y^{\alpha} v \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \log_2(y^{\alpha} v) \\ \log_2(x^{\alpha} u) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \alpha \begin{pmatrix} \log_2(y) \\ \log_2(x) \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \log_2(v) \\ \log_2(u) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \alpha T(X) + T(Y)$$

Therefore T is linear.

3.

$$\operatorname{Ker}(T) = \left\{ X = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \in V \mid T(X) = 0 \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ X = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \in V \mid \begin{pmatrix} \log_2(b) \\ \log_2(a) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ X = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \in V \mid \log_2(b) = 0, \log_2(a) = 0 \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ X = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \in V \mid b = 1, a = 1 \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

4. Here we have

$$T(e^1) = 0.e_1 + \log_2 e.e_2$$
  
 $T(e^2) = \log_2 e.e_1 + 0.e_2.$ 

Therefore the matrix T is

$$[T]_{\beta}^{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \log_2 e \\ \log_2 e & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where 
$$S = \left\{ e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

### Answer 2.

Let C[0,1] be the vector space of all real valued continuous functions [0,1] under usual addition and scalar multiplication. Define

$$V = \{ f \in C[0,1] \mid f(0) = 0 \}$$

then V is subspace of C[0,1]. The integral operator  $f\mapsto \int_0^x f(t)dt$  on V has no eigenvalue.

**Explaination:** Suppose  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  be an eigenvalue of this operator associated to the eigenvector  $f \not\equiv 0$ . Then, for all x

$$\int_0^x f(t)dt = \lambda f(x), \ f(0) = 0.$$

If  $\lambda = 0$ ,

$$\int_0^x f(t) \mathrm{d}t = 0.$$

This implies that  $f \equiv 0$ , an absurd.

If  $\lambda \neq 0$ , then differentiating above we have

$$f(x) = \lambda f'(x)$$

On solving this differential equation we have  $f(x) = Ae^{\frac{x}{\lambda}}$  and by f(0) = 0 we get  $f \equiv 0$ . Therefore no member of V is an eigen vector of operator corresponding to non-zero  $\lambda$ .

#### Answer 3.

We have

$$D: P_4 \rightarrow P_4$$

such that  $D(p(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}p(x)$ . Let  $\beta = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$  be a basis of  $P_4$ . Then, we have

$$D(1) = 0.1 + 0.x + 0.x^{2} + 0.x^{3}$$

$$D(x) = 1.1 + 0.x + 0.x^{2} + 0.x^{3}$$

$$D(x^{2}) = 0.1 + 2.x + 0.x^{2} + 0.x^{3}$$

$$D(x^{3}) = 0.1 + 0.x + 3.x^{2} + 0.x^{3}$$

So, the matrix of D relative to  $\beta$  is given by

$$[D]_{\beta} = A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that  $A^4 = 0$ , hence it is a nilpotent matrix. Therefore, all the eigenvalues of A are 0. Also

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\implies x_2 = 0, \ x_3 = 0, \ x_4 = 0.$$

So,  $\{(a,0,0,0): a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}\}$  is the set of eigenvectors of A corresponding to the eigenvalue 0. Therefore the set of eigen vector of D is  $\{p(x) = a \mid a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}\}$ .

## Answer 4.

The operator T is given as  $T(A) = A^{T}$ . Then,

$$T(A) = \lambda A \implies A^T = \lambda A$$

$$\implies (A^T)^T = (\lambda A)^T = \lambda A^T = \lambda(\lambda A) = \lambda^2 A.$$

Thus  $\lambda^2 = 1$ , that is,  $\lambda = \pm 1$ .

## Answer 5

1. Let x be a eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ . Then  $Ax = \lambda x$ . So,

$$A^{m}x = A^{m-1}(Ax)$$
$$= \lambda A^{m-2}(Ax)$$

continuing this way, we get

$$A^m x = \lambda^m x.$$

2. • We have

$$Ax_{i} = \lambda_{i}x_{i}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\implies A^{-1}Ax_{i} = \lambda_{i}A^{-1}x_{i}$$

$$\implies A^{-1}x_{i} = \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}x_{i}$$

Since A is non-singular hence each  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ . Therefore,  $1/\lambda_1, 1/\lambda_2, \dots, 1/\lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $A^{-1}$ .

• We have

$$Adj(A) = det(A)A^{-1}$$
.

Hence,  $\frac{det(A)}{\lambda_i}$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n are the eigenvalues of Adj(A).

## Answer 6.

Let  $A = (a_{ij}), 1 \leq i, j \leq n$ . Given that  $Ax = \lambda x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $Ae_i = \lambda e_i$  implies  $a_{ii} = \lambda$  and  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $j \neq i$ . That is,

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} \lambda & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq i. \end{cases}$$

Equivalently,  $A = \lambda I$ .