

MA 502 Homework 10

Dane Johnson

December 12, 2019

1

$$e^{tA} = e^{tA - \lambda t I + \lambda t I} \quad (1)$$

$$= e^{\lambda t I} e^{(A - \lambda I)t} \quad (2)$$

$$= e^{\lambda t I} \left(I + (A - \lambda I)t + (A - \lambda I)^2 \frac{t^2}{2} + (A - \lambda I)^3 \frac{t^3}{3!} + \dots \right) \quad (3)$$

$$= e^{\lambda t I} \left(I + (A - \lambda I)t + (A - \lambda I)^2 \frac{t^2}{2} + \dots (A - \lambda I)^{n-1} \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \right) \quad (4)$$

$$= e^{\lambda t} \left(I + (A - \lambda I)t + (A - \lambda I)^2 \frac{t^2}{2} + \dots (A - \lambda I)^{n-1} \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \right) \quad (5)$$

Note that to get from the infinite sum in line (3) to the finite sum in line (4) we used the fact that for the characteristic polynomial of A , $p_A(x) = (x - \lambda)^n$, we have $p_A(A) = (A - \lambda I)^n = 0$ by Cayley-Hamilton. Therefore $(A - \lambda I)^m = 0$ for any $m \geq n$. Also to arrive at line (5) from line (4) we used

$$e^{\lambda t I} = I + \lambda t I + \frac{\lambda^2 t^2}{2} I^2 + \dots = I \left(1 + \lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2 t^2}{2} + \dots \right) = I(e^{\lambda t})$$

We can then distribute the identity into the sum on line (5) without any change.

2

Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

• First we find an orthogonal matrix O such that $O^T A O$ is diagonal. We will find eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors that are orthonormal.

$$0 = p_A(\lambda) = (1 - \lambda)^2 - 9 \implies \lambda = -2, 4.$$

Putting $\lambda = -2$ into $A - \lambda I = 0$ gives

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \hat{v} = 0.$$

Then any multiple of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector. We take the unit vector $v_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Similarly, for $\lambda = 4$, we have

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 3 \\ 3 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \hat{v} = 0,$$

which means that any multiple of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector. We take the unit vector $v_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Note that v_1 and v_2 are already orthogonal vectors. Set

$$O = (v_2 \ v_1) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} = O^T.$$

Then $O^T O = O O^T = I$, which means that O is an orthogonal matrix (and also that O^T is orthogonal). But we require that $O^T A O$ is diagonal. So we multiply to get

$$O^T A O = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

In fact the eigenvalues of A lie on the diagonal of $O^T A O$.

• To compute e^A , rewrite A as $A = O D O^T$. Then,

$$e^A = I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \frac{A^4}{4!} + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= I + ODO^T + \frac{(ODO^T)^2}{2!} + \frac{(ODO^T)^3}{3!} + \frac{(ODO^T)^4}{4!} + \dots \\
&= I + ODO^T + \frac{OD^2O^T}{2!} + \frac{OD^3O^T}{3!} + \frac{OD^4O^T}{4!} + \dots
\end{aligned}$$

3

Define the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f(t)g(t)(1-t^2) dt$$

on the vector space of polynomials with real coefficients. We find an orthonormal basis $\{\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2\}$ for the subspace generated by $\{\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t, t^2\}$.

Take $\psi_0(t) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$. To normalize ψ_0 , we set

$$\phi_0(t) = \frac{\psi_0}{(\langle \psi_0, \psi_0 \rangle)^{1/2}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}}{\sqrt{\int_{-1}^1 (\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})^2 (1-t^2) dt}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}}{1} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

Next set

$$\begin{aligned}
\psi_1(t) &= \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t - \langle \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t, \phi_0(t) \rangle \phi_0 = \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t - \left(\int_{-1}^1 \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(1-t^2) dt \right) \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\
&= \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t - 0 \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t.
\end{aligned}$$

Then to find a normalized vector take

$$\phi_1(t) = \frac{\psi_1}{(\langle \psi_1, \psi_1 \rangle)^{1/2}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t}{\left(\int_{-1}^1 (\frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t)^2 (1-t^2) dt \right)^{1/2}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t}{1} = \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t.$$

Next set

$$\begin{aligned}
\psi_2(t) &= t^2 - \langle t^2, \phi_0 \rangle \phi_0 - \langle t^2, \phi_1 \rangle \phi_1 \\
&= t^2 - \left(\int_{-1}^1 t^2 \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(1-t^2) dt \right) \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - \left(\int_{-1}^1 t^2 (\frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t)(1-t^2) dt \right) \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t \\
&= t^2 - \frac{2}{5\sqrt{3}} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - 0 \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2}t \\
&= t^2 - \frac{1}{5}.
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, we set

$$\phi_2(t) = \frac{\psi_2}{(\langle \psi_2, \psi_1 \rangle)^{1/2}} = \frac{t^2 - \frac{1}{5}}{\left(\int_{-1}^1 (t^2 - \frac{1}{5})^2 (1 - t^2) dt \right)^{1/2}} = \frac{t^2 - \frac{1}{5}}{\frac{4\sqrt{42}}{105}} = \frac{105t^2 - 21}{4\sqrt{42}}.$$

4

For an $n \times n$ matrix A define $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i y_j$. To determine under what conditions $\langle x, y \rangle$ defines an inner product on \mathbb{R}^3 , we will need $n = 3$ for the definition to make sense. First note that if we write this sum in terms of matrix algebra we have

$$\langle x, y \rangle \equiv x^T A y = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

where we use the symbol ' \equiv ' only to regard the fact that the matrix product above results in a 1×1 real matrix while $\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i y_j$ is a real number. Since the set of 1×1 real matrices is isomorphic to the set of real numbers we can readily pass back and forth between the matrix algebra representation of $\langle x, y \rangle$ and $\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i y_j$. We consider the definition of an inner product on \mathbb{R}^3 in order to find information about what properties A must have.

Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

1)

To have inner product it must be that $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$. However, we see that

$$\langle x + y, z \rangle = (x + y)^T A z = (x^T + y^T) A z = x^T A z + y^T A z = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$$

for any $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$, so we gain no information.

2)

Another requirement for an inner product is that $\langle cx, y \rangle = c \langle x, y \rangle$. However, we see that

$$\langle cx, y \rangle = (cx)^T Ay = cx^T Ay = c \langle x, y \rangle$$

for any A and again gain no helpful information.

3) To have an inner product we require $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$. If A is symmetric, then $A = A^T$ and remembering that since $x^T Ay$ is a 1×1 matrix, it is also symmetric we have

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x^T Ay = (x^T Ay)^T = (x^T A^T y)^T = y^T Ax = \langle y, x \rangle.$$

Also, if it is the case that $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i y_j = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} y_i x_j = \langle y, x \rangle$ then this means the sum is the same even if i and j are reversed. That is, $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ so that A must be symmetric. Therefore, it is a necessary and sufficient condition that A is symmetric.

4) We require that $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ for any x and $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$. Here this means that $x^T Ax \geq 0$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $x^T Ax = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$. But this is the definition of positive definiteness of A (since we have already established that A must be symmetric it is acceptable to discuss positive definiteness). Since definition are bidirectional, the final requirement on $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is satisfied if and only if A is a positive definite matrix.

The conclusion is that $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i y_j$ defines an inner product on \mathbb{R}^3 if and only if A is a symmetric matrix that is also positive definite.

5

The system

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

has no solution. To see this, we use Gaussian elimination on an augmented matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The second and third row of this augment matrix shows that if $x = (x_1, x_2)$ is a solution to $Ax = b$, then $x_2 = 0$ and also that $0x_2 = 1$. But this would imply that $0 = 1$. Therefore, no $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ can satisfy the system.

We instead seek an approximate solution $A\hat{x} \approx b$ using least squares approximation.

The system $A^T A\hat{x} = A^T b$ will have a unique solution \hat{x} and \hat{x} minimizes $\|Ax - b\|^2$. We have,

$$\begin{aligned} A^T A\hat{x} &= A^T b \\ \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \hat{x} &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ -1 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \hat{x} &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \\ \hat{x} &= \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ -1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Our approximation gives

$$A\hat{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ -2/3 \\ -2/3 \end{pmatrix}.$$