

# Maths Problem Set- Spectral Theory

Keshav Choudhary

July 9, 2018

**Q 4.2**<sup>1</sup> The eigenvalue of this linear differential operator  $D[p](x) = p'(x)$  is 0. Also, the eigenspace is  $\sum_{\lambda}(D) = \{a + bx + cx^2 \in V | b = c = 0\}$ . Algebraic and geometric multiplicities of  $D$  are the dimension of  $\sum_{\lambda}(D)$ , which is 1 and the algebraic multiplicity of  $\lambda_i = 0$  is 1.

**Ex 4.4** *Proof of (i)* Note that by the definition of eigenvalues, eigenvalues in a  $2 \times 2$  matrix satisfy the following;

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

where

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

Using quadratic formula,

$$(a + d)^2 - 4(ad - bc) = (a - d)^2 + 4bc$$

Now  $A^H$  is Hermitian i.e  $A^H = A$ . This implies that  $a$  and  $d$  are real numbers, and the multiplication of  $b = \bar{c}$  and  $c = \bar{b}$  results in positive number. Thus,  $(a - d)^2 + 4bc > 0$ , implying that the solutions of characteristic equations are all real.

*Proof of (ii)*

If we find the quadratic formula of this 2nd order polynomial equation, then

$$D = (a - d)^2 + 4bc = -(a_1 - d_1)^2 - 4(abc(b)^2) < 0$$

**Q. 4.6**

---

<sup>1</sup>I have used the Latex file of Jay Hyung in this problem set

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be an upper triangular matrix. Consider  $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$ . This results in the following equation;

$$\prod_{i=1}^n (\lambda - a_{ii})$$

, where  $a_{ii}$  is the  $i$ th diagonal entry. This expression equals to zero, iff  $\lambda = a_{ii}$  for some  $i$ . Thus, the diagonal entries of the matrix are the eigenvalues.

**Q. 4.8**

*Proof of (i).* Set the following matrix;

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sin(t_1) & \cos(t_1) & \sin(2t_1) & \cos(2t_1) \\ \sin(t_2) & \cos(t_2) & \sin(2t_2) & \cos(2t_2) \\ \sin(t_3) & \cos(t_3) & \sin(2t_3) & \cos(2t_3) \\ \sin(t_4) & \cos(t_4) & \sin(2t_4) & \cos(2t_4) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

with  $t_1 = 0, t_2 = \pi/2, t_3 = \pi, t_4 = 3/2\pi$ . This results in  $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = c_4 = 0$ .

*Proof of (ii).* Let  $D[p](x) := p'(x)$ . By calculation, the matrix that represents this differential operator is the following;

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

*Answer of (iii).* Let  $V_1 = \text{span}(\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\})$  and  $V_2 = \text{span}(\{\sin(2x), \cos(2x)\})$ .

**Q 4.13**

*Answer.*

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7454 & 0.7454 \\ -0.4714 & 0.9428 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Q 4.15**

*Proof.* Due to the assumption that  $A$  is semi-simple,  $A$  is diagonalizable, i.e.  $\exists P$  s.t.  $P^{-1}AP = D$ , where  $D$  is diagonal matrix. Then,  $A^k = PD^kP^{-1}$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f(A) &= a_0I + a_1A + \dots + a_nA^n \\ &= a_0PIP^{-1} + a_1PDP^{-1} + \dots + a_nPD^nP^{-1} \\ &= P(a_0I + a_1D + \dots + a_nD^n)P^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the eigenvalues of  $f(A)$  are  $(f(\lambda_i))_{i=1}^n$

#### Q 4.16

*Proof of (i).* The Markov Chain which this matrix  $A^T$  represents is irreducible and aperiodic. Thus, there exists a distribution  $\pi$  such that  $A\pi = \pi$ . If we solve this, then  $\pi = (2/3, 1/3)$ , which is exactly the same with the first and the second columns of  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A^n$

*Answer of (ii).* Yes,  $\|\lim A^n\|_\infty = 4/3$ , and  $\|\lim A^n\|_F = \sqrt{10}/3$

*Answer of (iii).* By the Theorem 4.3.12,  $f(\lambda_1) = 3 + 5 * \lambda_1 + \lambda_1^3 = 9$ , and  $f(\lambda_2) = 3 + 5 * \lambda_2 + \lambda_2^3 = 5.0640$

#### Q 4.18

*Proof.* Note that

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

Thus,  $A^Tx = \lambda x$ , and with transposition,  $x^TA = \lambda x^T$

#### Q 4.20

*Proof.* Note that  $A^H = A$ . Using the notations in the Definition 4.4.1,

$$B^H = (U^H AU)^H = U^H A^H U = U^H AU = B$$

#### Q. 4.24

*Proof.* Due to the assumption that the matrix  $A$  is hermitian, all the eigenvalues of

$A$  are real, because;

$$\begin{aligned} v^H A v &= \lambda v^H v \\ \lambda v^H v &= v^H A v = (v^H A v)^H = \bar{\lambda} v^H v \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\lambda = \bar{\lambda}$ , meaning that the eigenvalues are real. Also, due to this fact, the matrix  $A$  is positive semi-definite. Thus, by Proposition 4.5.6, the eigenvectors of  $A$  corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal. Then, any vector  $x$  can be expressed in the following;

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j v_j = V c$$

, where  $v_j$ s are orthonormal eigenvectors.

This results in the following;

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(x) &= \frac{x^H A x}{x^H x} \\ &= \frac{c^H V^H A V c}{c^H V^H V c} \\ &= \frac{c^H \mathbf{A} c}{c^H c} \end{aligned}$$

where  $A = V \mathbf{A} V^H$ , and  $\mathbf{A}$  is diagonal matrix. Thus,

$$\rho(x) = \frac{\lambda_1 |c_1|^2 + \dots + \lambda_n |c_n|^2}{|c_1|^2 + \dots + |c_n|^2}$$

Thus,  $\rho(x)$  are real with hermitian matrix,  $A$ . We can do the same proof for Skewed matrix. **Q. 4.25**

*Proof of (i).* Note that the following holds due to the assumption that  $[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  are orthonormal vectors;

$$x_i^H x_j = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Thus,

$$(x_1 x_1^H + \dots + x_n x_n^H) x_j = x_j = I x_j$$

for all  $j$ . Thus, the statement holds.

*Proof of (ii).* Note that by the Theorem 4.4.14,  $A$  is orthonormally diagonalizable, i.e.

$$A = UTU^H$$

with  $T$  being diagonal, and  $U$  being orthonormal. This results in;

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ii} u_i u_i^H$$

#### Q. 4.27

Note that the positive-definite matrix  $A$  satisfies the following;

$$\forall x \neq 0, x^H A x > 0$$

If we feed the standard basis vector to  $x$ , then

$$e_i^H A e_i = a_{ii} > 0$$

Thus, all the diagonal entries are real and positive. Q.E.D

#### Q. 4.28

*Proof.* Note that by the same logic of Ex. 4.27, one can show that the diagonal entries of any semi-positive definite matrix are non-negative. For the first inequality, we need to show that  $AB$  is a semi-positive definite matrix.

Note that  $\forall x \neq 0, x^T A x, x^T B x \geq 0$ . Then,

$$(x^T A x)(x^T B x) = (x^T A)(x x^T)(B x) \geq 0$$

Note that  $x x^T$  is positive scalar when  $x \neq 0$ . Thus,  $x^T A B x \geq 0$ , implying that  $AB$  is positive semi-definite. This leads to the result that

$$\text{tr}(AB) \geq 0$$

Lastly, by using Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, we have

$$\text{tr}(AB) \leq \text{tr}(A)\text{tr}(B)$$

**Ex. 4.31**

*Proof of (i).* Note that we want to show  $\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A})}$ . We can first simply prove when  $\mathbf{P}$  is hermitian,

$$\lambda_{\max} = \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1} \mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x}$$

That's because when  $\mathbf{P}$  is Hermitian, there exists one and only one unitary matrix  $\mathbf{U}$  that can diagonalize  $\mathbf{P}$  as  $\mathbf{U}^H \mathbf{P} \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{D}$  (so  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^H$ ), where  $\mathbf{D}$  is a diagonal matrix with eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{P}$  on the diagonal, and the columns of  $\mathbf{U}$  are the corresponding eigenvectors. Let  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{U}^H \mathbf{x}$  and substitute  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{y}$  to the optimization problem, we obtain

$$\max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1} \mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x} = \max_{\|\mathbf{y}\|_2=1} \mathbf{y}^H \mathbf{D} \mathbf{y} = \max_{\|\mathbf{y}\|_2=1} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |y_i|^2 \leq \lambda_{\max} \max_{\|\mathbf{y}\|_2=1} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|^2 = \lambda_{\max}$$

Thus, just by choosing  $\mathbf{x}$  as the corresponding eigenvector to the eigenvalue  $\lambda_{\max}$ ,  $\max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1} \mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x} = \lambda_{\max}$ . This proves  $\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A})}$ .

*Proof of (ii).* Note that if the matrix  $A$  is invertible, then;

$$A^{-1} = (U \Sigma V^H)^{-1} = (V^H)^{-1} \Sigma^{-1} U^{-1} = \hat{U} \Sigma^{-1} \hat{V}^H$$

Note that  $\hat{U}$  and  $\hat{V}$  are all trivially orthonormal. Also, inverted diagonal matrix  $\Sigma^{-1}$  takes the inverse values of its diagonal entries on its diagonal line. Thus,  $\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \sigma_n^{-1}$

*Proof of (iii).*

Note that according to the property of singular values(positive and real), the following holds;

$$\Sigma = \Sigma^T = \Sigma^H$$

Thus, by (i),  $\|A\|_2 = \|A^H\|_2 = \|A^T\|_2$

Also,

$$A^H A = V \Sigma^H U^H U \Sigma V^H = V \Sigma^H \Sigma V^H = V \Sigma^2 V^H$$

Thus,  $\|A^H A\|_2 = \|A\|_2^2$

*Proof of (iv).*

Note that

$$UAV = UU_1\Sigma V_1^H V = \hat{U}\Sigma\hat{V}^H$$

Note that  $\hat{U}$  and  $\hat{V}$  are orthonormal. For example,

$$\hat{U}^H\hat{U} = (UU_1)^H UU_1 = U_1^H U^H UU_1 = U_1^H U_1 = I$$

The same argument can be used to prove that  $\hat{V}$  is orthonormal. Thus,  $\|UAV\|_2 = \|A\|_2$ . **Q. 4.32**

We first prove (ii), and then use the result to prove (i).

*Proof of (ii).*

$$\begin{aligned}\|A\|_F^2 &= \text{tr}(AA^H) = \text{tr}(U\Sigma V^H V\Sigma^H U^H) \\ &= \text{tr}(U\Sigma\Sigma^H U^H) \\ &= \text{tr}(\Sigma\Sigma^H U^H U) \\ &= \text{tr}(\Sigma\Sigma^H) \\ &= \sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2\end{aligned}$$

*Proof of (i).*

$$\begin{aligned}\|U_1AV_1\|_F^2 &= \text{tr}((U_1AV_1)(U_1AV_1)^H) \\ &= \text{tr}(U_1AV_1V_1^H A^H U_1^H) \\ &= \text{tr}(U_1AA^H U_1^H) \\ &= \text{tr}(AA^H U_1^H U_1) \\ &= \text{tr}(AA^H) \\ &= \text{tr}(\Sigma\Sigma^H) \\ &= \sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\|A\|_F = \|U_1AV_1^H\|$  Q.E.D

**Q. 4.33**

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
|y^H Ax| &= |y^H (U \Sigma V^H) x| \\
&= |y^H (\sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^H) x| \\
&\leq \sigma_{max} |\sum_{i=1}^r y^H u_i v_i^H x|
\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\|y^H u_i v_i^H\|_2 \leq \|y^H\| \|u_i\| \|v_i^H\| \leq 1 \times 1 \times 1 = 1$ . Thus,

$$\sigma_{max} |\sum_{i=1}^r y^H u_i v_i^H x| \leq \sigma_{max} |\sum_{i=1}^r x_i| \leq \sigma_{max}$$

We can attain equality when  $\|y^H u_i v_i^H\|_2 = 1$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^r (x_i)^2 = 1$ , which is possibly chosen due to the assumption that  $x$  and  $y$  are free variable of supremum, and  $U$  and  $V$ , which are the matrices of SVD of  $A$  and orthonormal, are arbitrary. **Q. 4.36**

*Answer.* Try any non-symmetric matrix. For example,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

gives  $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 5$  as eigenvalues, but it gives  $\sigma_1 = 0.9262, \sigma_2 = 5.3983$  as singular values.

**Q. 4.38**

*Proof of (i).*

$$\begin{aligned}
AA^+A &= (U \Sigma V^H)(V \Sigma^{-1} U^H)(U \Sigma V^H) \\
&= U \Sigma \Sigma^{-1} U^H U \Sigma V^H \\
&= U \Sigma V^H \\
&= A
\end{aligned}$$



*Proof of (ii).*

$$\begin{aligned}
A^+AA^+ &= (V\Sigma^{-1}U^H)(U\Sigma V^H)(V\Sigma^{-1}U^H) \\
&= U\Sigma^{-1}V^H \\
&= A^+
\end{aligned}$$

*Proof of (iii).*

$$\begin{aligned}
(AA^+)^H &= (A^+)^H A^H \\
&= (V\Sigma^{-1}U^H)^H (U\Sigma V^H)^H \\
&= UU^H \\
&= AA^+
\end{aligned}$$

*Proof of (v).*

We use the facts above and the fact that if  $X = YZ$ , then  $\mathcal{R}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(Y)$ . We need only to show that the matrices  $AA^+$  and  $A^+A$  are Hermitian, idempotent, and their ranges are equal to the subspaces on which they are supposed to project.

Both  $AA^+$  and  $A^+A$  are obviously Hermitian; see (iii) and (iv). In addition, (i) and (ii) imply that they are idempotent. It remains to show that  $\mathcal{R}(AA^+) = \mathcal{R}(A)$  and  $\mathcal{R}(A^+A) = \mathcal{R}(A^H)$ . Clearly,  $\mathcal{R}(AA^+) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A)$ ;  $\mathcal{R}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(AA^+)$  follows from (i). From (iv), we have  $A^+A = A^H(A^+)^H$ , so  $\mathcal{R}(A^+A) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^H)$ . From (i) and (iv),  $A^H = A^+AA^H$ , so  $\mathcal{R}(A^H) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A^+A)$ .