

Exam 2

To avoid any confusion, unless specified otherwise, vector spaces are complex vector spaces, inner-products are complex inner-products, and matrices are complex matrices. The standard inner product is $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{v}^H \mathbf{u} = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{v}_i u_i$.

Part I: True/False

Each problem is points for a total of 50 points. (5 points each.)

You do not need to justify the answers here, this is unlike the quizzes.

1. _____ If U is unitary, then U is itself unitarily diagonalizable. This means there is a unitary V so that $U = VDV^H$ where D is diagonal.

This is true. $U^H U = U U^H = I$, so U is normal, hence unitarily diagonalizable.

2. _____ For any diagonalizable matrix A , one can use Gram-Schmidt to find an orthogonal basis consisting of eigenvectors.

This is false. You must first have that the eigenspaces for different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

3. _____ The collection of rank k $n \times n$ matrices is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, for $k < n$.

This is false, in fact SVD shows how to write any matrix as a sum of rank 1 matrices.

4. _____ If A is unitary, then $|\lambda| = 1$ for all eigenvalues λ of A .

This is true. Let λ be an eigenvalue, with unit eigenvector \mathbf{v} . then $\langle A\mathbf{v}, A\mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \lambda\mathbf{v}, \lambda\mathbf{v} \rangle = \bar{\lambda}\lambda\|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 = |\lambda|^2 = (A\mathbf{v})^H(A\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}^H(A^H A)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^H I \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 = 1$. So $|\lambda|^2 = 1$.

5. _____ If $p(t)$ is a polynomial and \mathbf{v} is an eigenvector of A with associated eigenvalue λ , then $p(A)\mathbf{v} = p(\lambda)\mathbf{v}$.

This is true and trivial. $p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i x^i$, so $p(A)\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i A^i \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \lambda^i \mathbf{v} = p(\lambda)\mathbf{v}$

6. _____ If A and B are both $n \times n$ and \mathcal{B} is a basis for \mathbb{C}^n consisting of eigenvectors for both A and B , then A and B commute.

This is true. $AB = (SD_A S^{-1})(SB_B S^{-1}) = AD_A D_B S^{-1} = SD_B D_A S^{-1} = (SD_B S^{-1})(SD_A S^{-1}) = BA$.

7. _____ Any matrix A can be written as a weighted sum of rank 1 matrices..

This is true and is essentially one of the statements of the SVD. $U\Sigma V^T = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$ where $r = \text{rank}(A)$. Each $u_i v_i^T$ is an $m \times n$ rank-1 matrix.

8. _____ For all Hermitian matrices A , there is a matrix B so that $B^H B = A$.

This is false. A variant that is true is given in the first problem in part III. The point is that $B^H B$ is not only Hermitian, but also positive.

9. _____ There are linear maps $L : \mathbb{R}^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ such that $\dim(\ker(L)) = 2 = \dim(\text{rng}(L))$.

This is false, $\dim(\text{rng}(L)) + \dim(\ker(L)) = \dim(\text{dom}(L))$. This is essentially the rank-nullity theorem.

10. _____ If A is invertible, then $ABA^{-1} = B$.

This is false, it would only be true if A and B commute.

Part II: Computational (60 points)

P1. (15 points) Find B so that $B^2 = A$ where

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

First diagonalize A .

Find the eigenvalues:

$\det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \right) = (1-\lambda)((2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) - 1) - (-1)((-1)(1-\lambda) - 0) = (1-\lambda)(1-3\lambda + \lambda^2) - (1-\lambda) = (1-\lambda)((1-3\lambda - \lambda^2 - 1) = (1-\lambda)(-3\lambda + \lambda^2) = (1-\lambda)(\lambda)(-3 + \lambda)$. So the eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 3 > \lambda_2 = 1 > \lambda_3 = 0$.

This means $A = S \begin{bmatrix} 3 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} S^{-1}$ and so $B = S \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} S^{-1}$ will be our matrix, where $S = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \mathbf{v}_3]$ where \mathbf{v}_i is an eigenvector for λ_i .

Find eigenspaces:

$$E_3 = \text{NS} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{NS} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$E_1 = \text{NS} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{NS} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$E_0 = \text{NS}(A) = \text{NS} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

So here we could use $S = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, but in the next part we want normalized vectors, so we might as well use

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ -2/\sqrt{6} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

this is unitary so $S^{-1} = S^T$ and finally

$$\begin{aligned} B &= SDS^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ -2/\sqrt{6} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3}+3 & -2\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{3}-3 \\ -2\sqrt{3} & 4\sqrt{3} & -2\sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3}-3 & -2\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{3}+3 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Notice that B is hermitian and positive, positive hermitian matrices are like "positive real numbers", they have a positive square root, that is a positive hermitian square root. Just like $2 = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2}$. But also $\sqrt{2}$ has another "root", namely, $2 = (-\sqrt{2}i)(\sqrt{2}i) = \bar{\lambda}\lambda$. This is the point of the next problem.

P2. (15 points) Find B so that $B^H B = A$ where A is from (1). We have the SVD from P2, so the best rank 2 approximation will be

We have already done all of the work here. Let $B = D^{1/2} S^H$ where $A = SDS^H$ just as above. So

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

P3. (15 points) Find the best rank 2 approximation to A from (1) with respect to $\|\cdot\|_F$.

You know $\text{rank}(A) = 2$ so the best rank 2 approximation of A is A , but if you just plug into the computation, you get the following:

You already have the SVD of $A = U\Sigma V^T = SDS^T$, so $U = V$ in this case and $D = \Sigma$. Now the best rank-2 approximation of A is thus (using MATLAB type notation)

$$\begin{aligned} C &= S(:, 1:2)D(1:2, 1:2)S^T(1:2, :) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -2/\sqrt{6} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & \\ & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A \end{aligned}$$

P4. (15 points) Let

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

find the characteristic polynomial and all eigenvalues, both real and complex. Explain why A is diagonalizable and compute A^{2020} . Note, I do not ask you to diagonalize A .

Find eigenvalues:

$$\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}\right) = -\lambda(-\lambda)^2 - (-1) = \lambda^3 + 1, \text{ so the roots are } e^{i\pi} = -1, e^{i\frac{\pi}{3}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + i\frac{1}{2}, \text{ and } e^{i\frac{5\pi}{3}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - i\frac{1}{2}.$$

Compute A^{2020} :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We see } 2020 &= 673 \cdot 3 + 1, \text{ so } \lambda_i^{2020} = (\lambda_i^3)^{673} \cdot \lambda_i = (-1)\lambda_i = \lambda_i. \text{ So } S^{2020} = SD^{2020}S^{-1} = \\ S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^{2020} & & \\ & \lambda_2^{2020} & \\ & & \lambda_3^{2020} \end{bmatrix} S^{-1} &= S \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_1 & & \\ & -\lambda_2 & \\ & & -\lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} S^{-1} = -S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} S^{-1} = -A. \end{aligned}$$

Note we actually don't need to know the eigenvalues, just that $\lambda^3 = -1$.

Part III: Theory and Proofs (45 points; 15 points each)

Pick three of the following four options. If you try all four, I will grade the first three, so if this is not what you intend, then just do three, or at least make it clear which I should grade.

- P1. Let S be a fixed invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Let U be the set of $n \times n$ matrices that are diagonalized by S , that is $A = SD_AS^{-1}$ for some diagonal matrix A . Either prove that U is a subspace of $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ or show that U is not a subspace of $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$.

This is a subspace, let $A, B \in U$, so $A = SD_AS^{-1}$ and $B = SD_BS^{-1}$, so $\alpha A + B = \alpha(SD_AS^{-1}) + SD_BS^{-1} = S(\alpha D_A + D_B)S^{-1}$, so $\alpha A + B \in U$. Thus U is a subspace.

- P2. Let A be a real $m \times n$ matrix and let $A^\dagger = V\Sigma^\dagger U^T$, where $A = U\Sigma V^T$ where U is $m \times m$, V is $n \times n$, both unitary, Σ is $m \times n$ and Σ^\dagger is $n \times m$ have the form

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_r & & \\ & & & 0 & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^{-1} & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_r^{-1} & & \\ & & & 0 & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0$.

Show: $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = A^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ is a least-squares solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

Previously we used $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{b}$ for our least-squares solution, but we had the restriction that the columns of the "data" matrix A were independent, this guarantees that $\text{NS}(A) = \text{NS}(A^T A) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. It is not hard to see that $A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ if A has linear independent columns.

Review the comments about [Topic 5 DQ 2 in the Class Notes](#). Particularly point (2.) concerning what it means to be a least-squares solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

This was actually a homework problem, we need to show that

$$A^T A \hat{\mathbf{x}} = A^T \mathbf{b}$$

so that is

$$A^T A A^\dagger = A^T$$

Here we just compute:

$$(V\Sigma^T U^T)(U\Sigma V^T)(V\Sigma^\dagger U^T) = V\Sigma^T \Sigma \Sigma^\dagger U^T = V\Sigma^T U^T = A^T$$

The only point here is $\Sigma^T \Sigma \Sigma^\dagger = \Sigma^T$. Note sizes, Σ is $m \times n$, Σ^\dagger is $n \times m$, and $\Sigma \Sigma^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} I_r & \\ & 0_{m-r} \end{bmatrix}$ so $\Sigma^T (\Sigma \Sigma^\dagger) = \Sigma^T$.

Read more on the [Moore-Penrose inverse](#) here.

- P3. Prove that any complex inner-product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_V$ on a complex vector space V , there is a basis $\mathcal{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ so that

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_V = [\mathbf{y}]_{\mathcal{U}}^H [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}$$

In other words for any finite dimensional inner-product space, there is a choice of basis, so that with respect to that basis, the inner-product is represented by the standard inner-product.

Here, in case you need it, is the [definition of an inner-product](#). All the notation here is as I always use it in my notes.

Gram-Schmidt will produce an orthonormal basis for V , say $\mathcal{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ and then if $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $[\mathbf{y}]_{\mathcal{U}} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_V &= \left\langle \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i, \sum_j \beta_j \mathbf{u}_j \right\rangle \\
&= \sum_i \alpha_i \sum_j \bar{\beta}_j \langle \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_j \rangle \\
&= \sum_i \alpha_i \sum_j \bar{\beta}_j \delta_{i,j} && (\delta_{i,j} = 1 \text{ if } i = j; 0 \text{ otherwise}) \\
&= \sum_i \alpha_i \bar{\beta}_i \\
&= [\bar{\beta}_1 \dots \bar{\beta}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \\
&= [\mathbf{y}]_{\mathcal{U}}^H [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}
\end{aligned}$$

so

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_V = [\mathbf{y}]_{\mathcal{U}}^H [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}$$

as required.

- P4. Use the SVD to show that any square matrix A can be written as $A = UP$ where U is unitary and P is Hermitian.

Let $A = V\Sigma W^H$ as in SVD and let $U = VW^H$, this is unitary since both V and W are unitary. So

$$A = (VW^H)(W\Sigma W^H) = UP$$

where $P = W\Sigma W^H$. This P is clearly Hermitian.

Note: If we think of matrices like generalizations of complex numbers, then Hermitian matrices are like the reals, $P^H = P$ is like $\bar{z} = z$ for $z \in \mathbb{C}$. A unitary is "like" a rotation, so here we represent A as a rotation followed by a "real." this is like writing $z = e^{i\theta}r$, the polar form of a complex number.