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5.1

$-(A-I)(A^T-I) = -(AA^T - AI - IA^T + I^2)$ Since A is orthogonal, so $AA^T = A^T A = I$
Hence $-(A-I)(A^T-I) = -(I - A - A^T + I) = A + A^T - 2I$

5.2

Since $f(t)$ is an orthogonal matrix, so from 5.1. $-(f(t)-I)(f(t)^T-I) = f(t) + f(t)^T - 2I$.

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(f(t)-I)(f(t)^T-I)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t) + f(t)^T - 2I}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-I}{t} + \frac{f(t)^T-I}{t}$$

And $f(0) = f(0)^T = I$ Then it equals $= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-f(0)}{t} + \frac{f(t)^T-f(0)}{t}$

We know that if $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} A_t = M$ and $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} B_t = N$. (M and N exist)

then $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} (A_t + B_t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} A_t + \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} B_t = M + N$

And we know $\lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t+dt)-f(t)}{dt}$ exists at all t . Hence $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-f(0)}{t}$ exists and equal to $f'(0)$

and $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)^T-f(0)}{t}$ exists and equal to $f'(0)^T$ Then $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-f(0)}{t} + \frac{f(t)^T-f(0)}{t} = f'(0) + f'(0)^T$

5.3

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(f(t)-I)(f(t)^T-I)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(f(t)-I)(f(t)^T-I) \cdot t}{t \cdot t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{-(f(t)-I)}{t} \cdot \frac{(f(t)^T-I)}{t} \cdot t \right)$$

And we know if $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} A_t = M$ and $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} B_t = N$. (M and N exist)

then $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} (A_t \cdot B_t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} A_t \cdot \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} B_t = M \cdot N$ And $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)^T-I}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)^T-f(0)}{t} = f'(0)^T$

$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t = 0$ $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-I}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-f(0)}{t} = f'(0)$ Then $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(t)^T-I}{t} \cdot t \right) = f'(0)^T \cdot 0 = 0$

Then $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{-(f(t)-I)}{t} \cdot \frac{(f(t)^T-I)}{t} \cdot t \right) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)-I}{t} \cdot \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(t)^T-I}{t} \cdot t \right) = f'(0) \cdot 0 = 0$

And from 5.2. $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(f(t)-I)(f(t)^T-I)}{t} = f'(0) + f'(0)^T$ So $f'(0) + f'(0)^T = 0$

Hence $f'(0)$ must be skew symmetric

5.4: we know that $f(t)$ is orthogonal. Then $f(t) \cdot f(t)^T = I$.
 Suppose $F(t) = f(t) \cdot f(t)^T$, $G(t) = I$. We know $\lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t+dt) - f(t)}{dt}$ exists at all t .
 then $F'(t) = f(t) \cdot f(t)^T + f(t) \cdot f'(t)^T$, $G'(t) = 0$.
 Hence $f(t) \cdot f(t)^T + f(t) \cdot f'(t)^T = 0$, $(f(t) \cdot f(t)^T) + (f'(t) \cdot f(t)^T)^T = 0$. Hence $f(t) \cdot f(t)^T$ is skew symmetric.
 Hence $f(t)^T = -f(t)$. Then $f(t) \cdot f(t)^T = -f(t) \cdot f(t)^T$, which is skew symmetric.

5.5

$f'(t) = A \cdot f(t)$. Then $f(t) = e^{At} \cdot c$. Note that this is a first-order Homogenous differential equation (一阶齐次微分方程).

Corollary 3.3.4. Let $v(t)$ be a vector of functions, i.e., each coordinate may change as t change. Suppose it satisfy the differential equation $v'(t) = Av(t)$ for some linear transformation A . Then $e^{At}c$ is a solution for any constant vector c . (In fact $v(0) = c$, so it is the initial condition.)

I claim that this is in fact the only solution.

Proposition 3.3.5. The solution space to $v'(t) = Av(t)$ is n dimensional where n is the dimension of the domain. (So columns of e^{At} form a basis.)

linear combination of all columns of e^{At} .

$\frac{d}{dt} f(t) = A \cdot f(t)$. And e^{At} is a solution to it. So then general solution to $f(t)$ is $e^{At} \cdot B$ where B is a constant matrix depending on other initial conditions.
 $f(0) = e^{A \cdot 0} \cdot B = B$. And $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow SO_n$. Then $B = f(0) \in SO_n$.

1.1 Proof:

$A^{k+1}V - A^kV = A^kV - A^{k-1}V$ for $\forall k \geq 1$. Hence $A^2V - AV = AV - V$ $A^2V - 2AV + V = 0$
 $(A^2 - 2A + I)V = 0 \Rightarrow (A - I)^2V = 0$ Hence V is a generalized eigenvector for eigenvalue 1.

1.2 False.

If $A^2V = AV + V$. Then $(A^2 - A - I)V = 0 \Leftrightarrow (A - \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}I)(A - \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}I)V = 0$

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & \\ & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$ take $V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ Let $B = A - \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \\ & -\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$ Then $B^k = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \\ & (-\sqrt{5})^k \end{bmatrix} k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Then $B^kV = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ (-\sqrt{5})^k \end{bmatrix} \neq 0$ let $C = A - \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}I = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{5} & \\ & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $C^k = \begin{bmatrix} (\sqrt{5})^k & \\ & 0 \end{bmatrix} k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. $C^kV = \begin{bmatrix} (\sqrt{5})^k \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq 0$

A only get eigenvalue $\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$ so V is not generalized eigenvector for A .

But $(A - \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}I)(A - \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}I)V = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{5} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Hence $A^2V - AV - V = 0$ Apply A^k to it. $A^{k+2}V - A^{k+1}V - A^kV = 0$ ($k \geq 0$)

$A^{k+2}V = A^{k+1}V + A^kV$. So this A and V is a counter example

1.3 True

Suppose $P(x)$ is an eigenvector for M . $P(x) \neq 0$; Then let I be the Identity map

So $(M - \lambda I)^k P(x) = 0$ which means $(x - \lambda)^k P(x) = 0$ for certain λ and some k

That that only happens if and only if $x - \lambda = 0$ or $P(x) = 0$ But $x - \lambda$ and $P(x)$ are not zero vector in V . So we get a contradiction.

1.4 True

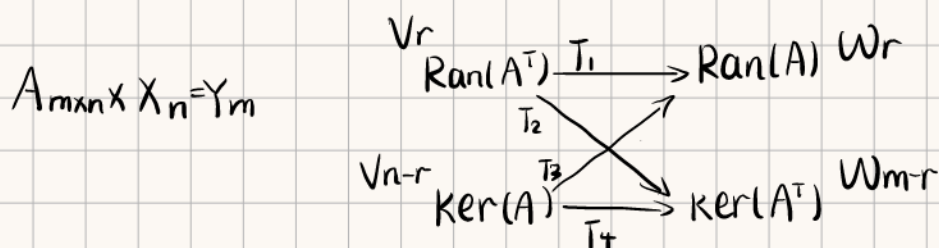
$A^5 = 0$ A is nilpotent. Then Suppose A 's Jordan block $N = \begin{bmatrix} N_1 & & \\ & N_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & N_k \end{bmatrix}$ N_i is all nilpotent
 $A = PNP^{-1}$

$A^5 = P \begin{bmatrix} N_1^5 & & \\ & N_2^5 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & N_k^5 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$ Then $\forall N_i$. $N_i^5 = 0$
 But N_i is nilpotent jordan block. for a $k \times k$ nilpotent jordan block.

The minimal killing polynomial is x^k . Hence Size of $N_i \leq 5$.
 So the number of N_i (i.e. k) $\geq \frac{n}{5}$. k is also the geometric multiplicity of eigenvalue 0, which is equal to $\dim \ker(A)$. Hence $\dim \ker(A) \geq \frac{n}{5}$

1.5 True

① Lemma 1 : for $\forall m \times n$ matrix A . $A: \text{Ran}(A^T) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(A)$ is bijection.



We block $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ into four smaller linear transformations T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4

$T_1: \text{R}(A^T) \rightarrow \text{R}(A)$ Choose the bases of $\text{R}(A^T)$ v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r bases of $\text{R}(A)$ w_1, \dots, w_r

$T_1([v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r]) = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_r] A_{11}$ Chose Any vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^r$. Hence we have

$$T_1([v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r] \cdot x) = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_r] A_{11} x \Rightarrow T_1(v_r \cdot x) = w_r \cdot A_{11} x$$

$$\text{And } T_2(v_r \cdot x) = w_{m-r} \cdot A_{21} x \quad T_3(v_{n-r} \cdot x) = w_r \cdot A_{12} x \quad T_4(v_{n-r} \cdot x) = w_{m-r} \cdot A_{22} x$$

target ①: T_1 is bijection.

1) T_1 is injection. That is to prove if $T_1(A^T x) = 0 \Rightarrow A^T x = 0$

$$A \cdot A^T x = T_1(A^T x) + T_2(A^T x), \text{ if } T_1(A^T x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A \cdot A^T x = T_2(A^T x) \in N(A^T). \text{ But } A \cdot A^T x \in \text{Ran}(A)$$

$$\text{Ran}(A) \cap N(A^T) = \{0\} \therefore A \cdot A^T x = 0$$

$$\therefore A^T x \in N(A) \text{ and } A^T x \in \text{Ran}(A^T) \quad N(A) \cap \text{Ran}(A^T) = \{0\}$$

$$\therefore A^T x = 0$$

So T_1 is injection

2) T_1 is surjection.

$$A \cdot A^T x \in \text{Ran}(A) \therefore T_2(A^T x) \in N(A^T) \quad T_1(A^T x) \in \text{R}(A)$$

Hence $T_2(A^T x)$ must be 0

$$\text{For any } v \in \text{Ran}(A) \quad v = A \cdot x \quad \text{Ran}(A) = \text{Ran}(A \cdot A^T) \therefore v = A \cdot x = A \cdot A^T y$$

every v from $\text{Ran}(A)$ we have a vector $A^T y \in \text{Ran}(A^T)$ as its preimage

So T_1 is bijection. So Lemma 1 is proved

proof: $\text{ran}(A) = \text{ran}(A \cdot A^T)$

which is to say: $N(A^T) = N(A \cdot A^T)$

if $A^T x = 0$, it is obvious $A \cdot A^T x = 0$

$$\text{if } A \cdot A^T x = 0 \Rightarrow x^T A \cdot A^T x = 0 \Rightarrow (A^T x)^T \cdot A x = 0 \Rightarrow A x = 0$$

So $\text{ran}(A) = \text{ran}(A \cdot A^T)$

② Corollary: for $\forall n \times n$ matrix X . $X: \text{Ran}(X^T) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(X)$ is bijection.

③ Corollary: for $\forall n \times n$ matrix X . $X^T: \text{Ran}(X) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(X^T)$ is bijection.

④ Corollary: for \forall $n \times n$ matrix X . $X \circ X^T: \text{Ran}(X) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(X^T) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(X)$ is bijection.

So $A \cdot A^T: \text{Ran}(A) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(A)$ in this problem is a bijection. Let $f: \text{Ran}(A) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(A)$ be the inverse of $A \cdot A^T$. and let its corresponding matrix be B . $\forall v \in \text{Ran}(A)$

$$BAA^T v = AA^T Bv = v \quad \text{Then } \forall n \times 1 \text{ vector } v, Av \in \text{Ran}(A) \therefore BAA^T Av = AA^T BAv = Av$$

$$\text{Apply } A \text{ on the left of either side of the equation, } AAA^T BAv = A^2 v$$

$$\text{Apply } BAA^T \text{ on the left of either side of the equation, } BAA^T AAA^T BAv = BAA^T A^2 v$$

$$A^2 v \in \text{Ran}(A) \text{ So } BAA^T A^2 v = A^2 v. \text{ And } AA^T AA^T = 0 \therefore A^2 v = BAA^T AAA^T BAv = 0$$

$$\text{for } \forall n \times 1 \text{ vector } v. \Rightarrow A^2 = 0$$

The same as 1.4, for $n \times n$ matrix A .

$A^2 = 0$ A is nilpotent. Then Suppose A 's Jordan block $N = \begin{bmatrix} N_1 & & \\ & N_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & N_k \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}$ N_i is all nilpotent
 $A = PNP^{-1}$

$$A^2 = P \begin{bmatrix} N_1^2 & & \\ & N_2^2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & N_k^2 \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} P^{-1}$$

$$\text{Then } \forall N_i. N_i^2 = 0$$

But N_i is nilpotent Jordan block. for a $k \times k$ nilpotent Jordan block.

The minimal killing polynomial is X^k . Hence Size of $N_i \leq 2$.

So the number of N_i (i.e. k) $\geq \frac{n}{2}$. k is also the geometric multiplicity of eigenvalue 0, which is equal to $\dim \ker(A)$. Hence $\dim \ker(A) \geq \frac{n}{2}$

3.1. Assume the matrix that we are searching for has eigenvalue $a+bi$ ($a, b \in \mathbb{R}, b \neq 0$). Since it has no 1×1 Jordan block, so it must have algebraic multiplicity greater than 1. So as $a-bi$. Since complex eigenvalues come in pairs. So the matrix has even size number, it is at least 4×4 .

$$\text{let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1-\lambda & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -\lambda & 0 & -\lambda & 1 \\ -1-\lambda & 0 & 0 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = -\lambda \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -\lambda & 1 \end{vmatrix} + (-1) \cdot (-1)^{2+1} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -\lambda & 0 & 1 \\ -1-\lambda & 0 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -\lambda^2 \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -1-\lambda & 1 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -\lambda & 0 & 1 \\ -1-\lambda & 0 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda^2 + 1)^2$$

Hence $\lambda_1 = i, \lambda_2 = -i, \lambda_3 = i, \lambda_4 = -i$

$$A - iI = \begin{bmatrix} -i & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1-i & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -i & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -i \end{bmatrix} \quad Ax_1 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad Ax_2 = x_1 \Rightarrow x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A + iI = \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1+i & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & i & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & i \end{bmatrix} \quad Ax_3 = 0 \Rightarrow x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad Ax_4 = x_3 \Rightarrow x_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{basis } P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ i & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & i & 0 & i \end{bmatrix} \quad A = P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} P \quad A \text{ satisfies these requirements}$$

3.2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB \text{ and } BA \text{ are both already in Jordan form. } AB \neq BA$$

Hence AB are not similar.

3.3

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} & i \\ -i & \end{bmatrix} \quad |A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & i \\ -i & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda^2 + i^2) = \lambda^2 - 1$$

$\lambda_A = \pm 1$. It's all real.

3.4 \Rightarrow there may be some problems see page 8 for more

Suppose A is already in Jordan-normal form. $e^A - A - I = 0$ then $e^\lambda - \lambda - 1 = 0$

Let $f(x) = e^x - x - 1$ $f(x)$ is derivable $f'(x) = e^x - 1$. Hence $f(x)$ decrease when $x \in (-\infty, 0]$

$f(x)$ increases when $x \in [0, +\infty)$ $f(x)_{\min} = f(0) = 0$

Hence $e^\lambda - \lambda - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 0$ Hence A is nilpotent and A is 4×4

Then $A^4 = 0$ $e^A = I + A + \frac{1}{2}A^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}A^n$. And $A^n = 0$ when $n \geq 4$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Hence $e^A - A - I = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}A^2 + \frac{1}{6}A^3 = 0$ i.e. $3A^2 + A^3 = 0$

if is a 4×4 Jordan block i.e. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ But $3A^2 + A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq 0$

Then if A has 3×3 Jordan block. i.e. $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & \\ & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$ A_1 is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \\ & 0 & 1 \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$3A^2 + A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3A_1^2 & \\ & 3A_2^2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} A_1^3 & \\ & A_2^3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq 0. \quad \text{nxn Nilpotent jordan } N \text{ satisfies } N^n = 0.$$

And A has no 4×4 and 3×3 Jordan block. Hence A has Jordan block not larger than 2×2 . Then $A^2 = 0$ which already implies $3A^2 + A^3 = 0$

Hence

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

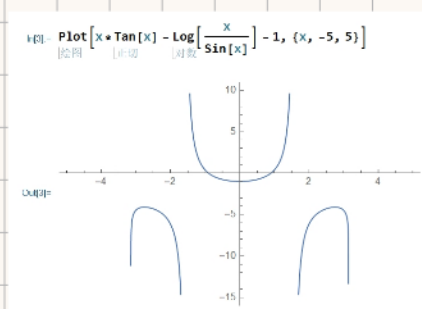
There maybe some problem in 3.5.

Because when I thought about $e^x - x - 1 = 0$. emm....

Will there be solutions like $a+bi$ ($a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b \neq 0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } \lambda = a+bi. \quad e^a (\cos b + i \sin b) - a - bi - 1 &= 0 \\ e^\lambda - \lambda - 1 &= 0 \\ e^a e^{bi} - a - bi - 1 &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{cases} e^a \cos b - a - 1 = 0 \\ e^a \sin b - b = 0 \end{cases}$$

What! Then I use mathematica



Okay, there are solution more than $x=0$

Oh no. I gonna do something more. Then I discuss with lmd. Here it comes.

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Then $e^A = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\frac{dx}{dx}|_{x=0}} & e^{\frac{dx}{dx}|_{x=0}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\frac{dx}{dx}|_{x=0}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{\frac{dx}{dx}|_{x=0}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A + I$

Let $A = X J X^{-1}$. J is A 's Jordan form. $e^A = A + I \iff e^J = J + I$.

When J is 1×1 , then we have $e^\lambda = \lambda + 1$. J is 2×2 , we have $\begin{bmatrix} e^\lambda & e^\lambda \\ e^\lambda & e^\lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda+1 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda+1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\Rightarrow e^\lambda = 1$ $e^\lambda = \lambda + 1$. $\lambda = 0$. And J is nilpotent 2×2 matrix.

When J is 3×3 . $\begin{bmatrix} e^\lambda & e^\lambda & \frac{e^\lambda}{2} \\ e^\lambda & e^\lambda & e^\lambda \\ e^\lambda & e^\lambda & e^\lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda+1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda+1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda+1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} e^\lambda = 1 \\ e^\lambda = \lambda + 1 \\ \frac{e^\lambda}{2} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{No solution even in } \mathbb{C}.$

J has no 3×3 single Jordan block. Similarly there is no 4×4 single jordan block

Take $\mu_i : e^{\mu_i} - \mu_i - 1 = 0$ and $\mu_i \in \mathbb{C}$. μ_i can be the same or different

A 's jordan are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & \mu_2 & 0 \\ \mu_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_1 \\ 0 & \mu_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & \mu_2 & \mu_3 \\ \mu_2 & \mu_3 & \mu_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

2.1 let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ a_3 & a_4 \end{bmatrix}$ $B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ b_3 & b_4 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_1 b_2 & a_2 b_1 & a_2 b_2 \\ a_1 b_3 & a_1 b_4 & a_2 b_3 & a_2 b_4 \\ a_3 b_1 & a_3 b_2 & a_4 b_1 & a_4 b_2 \\ a_3 b_3 & a_3 b_4 & a_4 b_3 & a_4 b_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B \otimes A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_2 b_1 & a_1 b_2 & a_2 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 & a_4 b_1 & a_3 b_2 & a_4 b_2 \\ a_1 b_3 & a_2 b_3 & a_1 b_4 & a_2 b_4 \\ a_3 b_3 & a_4 b_3 & a_3 b_4 & a_4 b_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 0 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Hence $P(A \otimes B) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_1 b_2 & a_2 b_1 & a_2 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 & a_3 b_2 & a_4 b_1 & a_4 b_2 \\ a_1 b_3 & a_1 b_4 & a_2 b_3 & a_2 b_4 \\ a_3 b_3 & a_3 b_4 & a_4 b_3 & a_4 b_4 \end{bmatrix}$

$(B \otimes A)P = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_1 b_2 & a_2 b_1 & a_2 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 & a_3 b_2 & a_4 b_1 & a_4 b_2 \\ a_1 b_3 & a_1 b_4 & a_2 b_3 & a_2 b_4 \\ a_3 b_3 & a_3 b_4 & a_4 b_3 & a_4 b_4 \end{bmatrix} = P(A \otimes B)$

Then $P(A \otimes B)P^{-1} = B \otimes A$. $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 0 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

2.2

$I \otimes e^B = \begin{bmatrix} e^B & \\ & e^B \end{bmatrix}$. By definition $f\left[\begin{smallmatrix} A_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & A_k \end{smallmatrix}\right] = \begin{bmatrix} f(A_1) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & f(A_k) \end{bmatrix}$

Hence $e^{I \otimes B} = e^{\begin{bmatrix} B & \\ & B \end{bmatrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} e^B & \\ & e^B \end{bmatrix}$ Hence $I \otimes e^B = e^{I \otimes B}$

2.2

from 2.1 We have a matrix P satisfies $P(I \otimes A)P^{-1} = A \otimes I$

Hence $e^{A \otimes I} = e^{P(I \otimes A)P^{-1}} = P \cdot e^{I \otimes A} \cdot P^{-1} = P(I \otimes e^A)P^{-1} = e^A \otimes I$

2.3

$e^{A \otimes B} = e^{A \otimes I + I \otimes B}$. $(A \otimes I)(I \otimes B) = (AI) \otimes (IB) = (IA) \otimes (BI) = (I \otimes B)(A \otimes I)$

Since $A \otimes I$ commute with $I \otimes B$

Hence $e^{A \otimes B} = e^{A \otimes I + I \otimes B} = e^{A \otimes I} \cdot e^{I \otimes B} = (e^A \otimes I)(I \otimes e^B)$
 $= (e^A I) \otimes (I e^B) = e^A \otimes e^B$

2.4:

let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ a_3 & a_4 \end{bmatrix}$ $A \otimes I = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_1 & a_2 & a_2 \\ & a_1 & & \\ a_3 & a_3 & a_4 & a_4 \\ & a_3 & & \end{bmatrix}$ $I \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} B & \\ & B \end{bmatrix}$

$\text{trace}(A \otimes B) = \text{trace}(A \otimes I + I \otimes B) = \text{trace}(A \otimes I) + \text{trace}(I \otimes B) = 2(a_1 + a_2) + 2\text{trace}(B)$
 $= 2\text{trace}(A) + 2\text{trace}(B)$

2.5:

① If A is diagonalizable with eigenvalue λ_1, λ_2 . A is invertible, so $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \neq 0$. Hence we get an invertible matrix P s.t. $A = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$

Any non-zero complex number z is equal to e^μ for a certain μ

Then suppose $e^{\mu_1} = \lambda_1$, $e^{\mu_2} = \lambda_2$, $\mu_1, \mu_2 \in \mathbb{C}$. Then $A = P \begin{bmatrix} e^{\mu_1} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\mu_2} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$

Let $X = P \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu_2 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$, $e^X = P \begin{bmatrix} e^{\mu_1} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\mu_2} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} = A$.

② If A is not diagonalizable then A has an eigenvalue λ_3 with algebraic multiplicity 2. A is invertible, hence $\lambda_3 \neq 0$.

$\exists P$ s.t. $A = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$. Suppose $\lambda_3 = e^{\mu}$, ($\mu \in \mathbb{C}$)

Then let $X = P \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_3} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 1 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$. Then $e^X = e^{P \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_3} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 1 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}}$ And $P \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_3} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} = I$

So let $P \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_3} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = M$. Then $e^X = e^{M \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 1 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} M^{-1}} = M \cdot e^{\begin{bmatrix} \mu & 1 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}} \cdot M^{-1} = M \begin{bmatrix} e^\mu & \frac{e^\mu}{1!} \\ 0 & e^\mu \end{bmatrix} M^{-1}$

$= P \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_3} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & \lambda_3 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_3 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} = A$

2.6.

① If A and B are both invertible then \exists matrix X, Y , $e^X = A$, $e^Y = B$.

from 2.3, $A \otimes B = e^X \otimes e^Y = e^{X \otimes Y}$

$\det(A \otimes B) = \det(e^{X \otimes Y})$. for Any matrix A with eigenvalue $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ (counting algebraic multiplicity). e^A has eigenvalue $e^{\lambda_1}, \dots, e^{\lambda_k}$.

$\det(e^A) = e^{\lambda_1} \cdot e^{\lambda_2} \cdot \dots \cdot e^{\lambda_k} = e^{\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i} = e^{\text{trace}(A)}$

$\det(A \otimes B) = \det(e^{X \otimes Y}) = e^{\text{trace}(X \otimes Y)} = e^{2\text{trace}(X) + 2\text{trace}(Y)} = (e^{\text{trace}(X)})^2 \cdot (e^{\text{trace}(Y)})^2$

$= \det(e^X)^2 \cdot \det(e^Y)^2 = \det(A)^2 \cdot \det(B)^2$

4.1 $M(1)=X$ $M(X)=X^2$ $M(X^2)=X^3$ $M(X^3)=X^4=(X^4+ax^3+bx^2+cx+d)-ax^3-bx^2-cx-d$
under basis $[1 \ x \ x^2 \ x^3]$

$$A \text{ is } \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -d \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -c \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -a \end{bmatrix} \text{ i.e. } M([1 \ x \ x^2 \ x^3]) = [1 \ x \ x^2 \ x^3] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -d \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -c \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -a \end{bmatrix}$$

4.2 For \forall polynomial $r(x), \eta(x) \exists m(x), n(x)$ s.t.

$$r(x) = m(x)P(x) + r(x) \bmod P(x) \quad \eta(x) = n(x)P(x) + \eta(x) \bmod P(x)$$

$$[r(x) + \eta(x)] = [m(x) + n(x)]P(x) + r(x) \bmod P(x) + \eta(x) \bmod P(x)$$

from the requirements, $\deg[r(x) \bmod P(x) + \eta(x) \bmod P(x)]$ is strictly less than 4.

$$\text{Hence } [r(x) + \eta(x)] \bmod P(x) = r(x) \bmod P(x) + \eta(x) \bmod P(x)$$

$$r(x) \cdot \eta(x) = [m(x)P(x) + r(x) \bmod P(x)] \cdot [n(x)P(x) + \eta(x) \bmod P(x)]$$

$$= [m(x)n(x) + (r(x) \bmod P(x)) \cdot n(x) + (\eta(x) \bmod P(x))m(x)]P(x) + (\eta(x) \bmod P(x))(r(x) \bmod P(x))$$

$r(x) \bmod P(x)$ and $\eta(x) \bmod P(x)$ don't contain any factor that can divide $P(x)$

$$\therefore [r(x) \cdot \eta(x)] \bmod P(x) = [r(x) \bmod P(x)][\eta(x) \bmod P(x)]$$

$$\text{for } \forall P, M_P = X P(x) \bmod q(x) \quad M^k P = M(M^{k-1} P) = X \cdot M^{k-1} P(x) \bmod q(x)$$

$$= (X \bmod P(x)) (M^{k-1} P(x) \bmod q(x)) = X \cdot [X \cdot M^{k-2} P(x) \bmod q(x)] \bmod q(x)$$

$$= X \cdot [X \cdot M^{k-2} P(x) \bmod q(x)] \bmod q(x) \quad \text{Because } [P(x) \bmod q(x)] \bmod q(x) = P(x) \bmod q(x)$$

$$\text{So } M^k P = X^2 \cdot [M^{k-2} P(x) \bmod q(x)] \quad \text{By induction, } M^k P(x) = X^k [P(x) \bmod q(x)]$$

Suppose M as a operator that sends $P(x)$ to $X P(x) \bmod q(x)$

Then for any polynomial of M , it's linear combination of some powers of M .

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 X + \dots + a_k X^k. \text{ Then } f(M) P(x) = a_0 P(x) \bmod q(x) + a_1 X P(x) \bmod q(x) + \dots + a_k X^k P(x) \bmod q(x) \\ = f(x) P(x) \bmod q(x)$$

$\therefore q(M) P(x) = q(x) P(x) \bmod q(x) = 0$ for All polynomial of $P(x)$ Thus $q(M)$ sends any polynomial in V to 0. $\Rightarrow q(M)$ is zero map, $q(A) = 0$

$$\text{Also for } \forall \text{ polynomial } Q(x) \text{ s.t. } Q(M) = 0, \text{ we have } Q(x) P(x) \bmod q(x) = 0$$

for any $P(x)$ $\therefore Q(x)$ is a multiple of $q(x)$. Then $q(x)$ is minimal polynomial

On the other side, the characteristic polynomial is a kill polynomial, i.e. $P(x)$ is its factor.

Note that $q(x)$ has degree 4, and characteristic polynomial has degree 4.

Thus the characteristic polynomial contains no factor more than $q(x)$

And their coefficients of X^4 are both 1.

So they are the same

We wanna prove every eigenvalue of A has at most one Jordan block.

If not so, the suppose eigenvalue λ has more than one Jordan block

The the size of biggest λ -block is strictly smaller than algebraic multiplicity of λ
 Then the degree of factor $(x-\lambda)$ in minimal polynomial is strictly less than that of characteristic polynomial, this is contradict with 4.2

Referring to our lecture notes, so we are done.

Proposition 3.5.4. Suppose A has a single Jordan block for each eigenvalue. (I.e., all geometric multiplicities are one.) The $AB = BA$ implies that $B = p(A)$ for some polynomial p .

Proof. Suppose A is a single nilpotent Jordan block. Then $AB = BA$ means entries of B shifted up and entries of B shifted right shall have the same results. Use this and you can show that we must have

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & \dots & a_{n-1} \\ & \ddots & & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & a_1 \\ & & & a_0 \end{bmatrix} = a_0 I + a_1 A + \dots + a_{n-1} A^{n-1}. \text{ We are good.}$$

2Bij Now suppose A is a single λ Jordan block. Then $A = \lambda I + N$ for a nilpotent Jordan block N . So $AB = BA$ implies that $(\lambda I + N)B = B(\lambda I + N)$, and simplification gives $NB = BN$. So $B = p(N)$ for some polynomial p . Let $q(x) = p(x - \lambda)$, then $B = p(A - \lambda I) = q(A)$.

Now consider the generic case. By changing basis, I assume that A is in Jordan canonical form, say

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & A_k \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Now we write } B \text{ into a block matrix in the same manner, and let the } (i, j)\text{-block be } B_{ij}.$$

Then $AB = BA$ implies that $A_i B_{ij} = B_{ij} A_j$. But by our assumption, A_i, A_j has no common eigenvalues! Hence the only solution to the Sylvester's equation $A_i X - X A_j = 0$ is zero. So B is block diagonal as well.

A_i and B_i commute $\Rightarrow B_i$ is a polynomial of A_i

$$\text{So } B = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & B_k \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and we have } A_i B_i = B_i A_i. \text{ Since each } A_i \text{ is a single Jordan block, we see that}$$

$B_i = p_i(A_i)$ for some polynomial p_i . So our goal is now the following: we want to find a polynomial $p(x)$ such that $p(A_i) = p_i(A_i)$ for all i .

So we want to find $p(x)$ such that $p \equiv p_i \pmod{\text{killing polynomial of } A_i}$. We are done by the lemma below.

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Lemma 3.5.5. Given polynomials q_1, \dots, q_k and p_1, \dots, p_k , there is a polynomial p such that $p \equiv p_i \pmod{q_i}$ for all i . (We can in fact require this polynomial to have degree less than $\sum \deg(q_i)$, and in this case such p is unique.)

p 整除 q_i 之后余 p_i .

4.4

from 4.2 we get that $x(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)$ is A 's characteristic polynomial.

So the Jordan-block is $J_{(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 2 & \\ & & & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

If we choose other basis.

it will switch the place of four Jordan form.

4.5 $x^2(x-1)(x-2)$ is minimal polynomial, the size of 0-Jordan block is 2.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ If we choose other basis.}$$

it will switch the place of three Jordan form.

