

Problem 1.

1. Since $A^2\mathbf{v} - A\mathbf{v} = A\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}$, we have $(A^2 - 2A + I)\mathbf{v} = (A - I)^2\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. This implies that \mathbf{v} is a generalized eigenvector of A with eigenvalue $\lambda = 1$, because $\mathbf{v} \in N_2(A - \lambda I) \subseteq N_\infty(A - \lambda I)$.

2. A counter example is $A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & \\ & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Since $A^2 = A + I$, we have $A^2\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}$ for all vectors \mathbf{x} , and thus each term in the sequence is the sum of the previous two. However, note that the x -axis and y -axis are the two eigenspaces of A with distinct eigenvalues, therefore \mathbf{v} , in neither of which, is not a generalized eigenvector of A .

3. Suppose $a_i x^i$ is the last (in descending order) non-zero term of $p(x)$. If $p(x)$ is a generalized eigenvector of M , then $(x - 1)^k p(x) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$. This implies that the last term of $(x - 1)^k p(x)$ which is $a_i x^i$ is 0. Contradiction.

4. We claim that $\dim(\text{Ker}(A^{k+1}) - \text{Ker}(A^k)) \leq \dim(\text{Ker}(A^k) - \text{Ker}(A^{k-1}))$ for any $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

Proof: Each \mathbf{v} in $\text{Ker}(A^{k+1}) - \text{Ker}(A^k)$ gives a vector $A\mathbf{v}$ in $\text{Ker}(A^k) - \text{Ker}(A^{k-1})$, and since $\mathbf{v} \notin \text{Ker}(A^k)$, $A\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$, hence there are as many linear independent $A\mathbf{v}$'s as linear independent \mathbf{v} 's. Therefore $\dim(\text{Ker}(A^k) - \text{Ker}(A^{k-1}))$ is no less than $\dim(\text{Ker}(A^{k+1}) - \text{Ker}(A^k))$. \square

Accordingly, we have $\dim \text{Ker}(A^k) \leq k \dim \text{Ker}(A)$. If $A^5 = O$, then $\dim \text{Ker}(A^5) = n$, and therefore $\dim \text{Ker}(A) \geq \frac{n}{5}$.

5. We claim that for any $\mathbf{v} \in \text{Ran}(A)$, there exists a unique $\mathbf{w} \in \text{Ran}(A^T)$ s.t. $\mathbf{v} = A\mathbf{w}$. This implies that A is invertible between $\text{Ran}(A^T)$ and $\text{Ran}(A)$.

Proof: If $\mathbf{v} \in \text{Ran}(A)$, then there does exist a vector $\mathbf{w}' \in \mathbb{C}^n$ s.t. $\mathbf{v} = A\mathbf{w}'$. Since $\mathbb{C}^n = \text{Ran}(A^T) \oplus \text{Ker}(A)$, we have the respective decomposition $\mathbf{w}' = \mathbf{w} + (\mathbf{w}' - \mathbf{w})$, and thus $\mathbf{v} = A\mathbf{w}$. On the other hand \mathbf{w} is unique, because if $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}$ does the same thing, then $\tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{w} \in \text{Ker}(A^T)$, and $A(\tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ i.e. $\tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{w} \in \text{Ker}(A)$, producing $\tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$, so they are the same. \square

Similarly we conclude that A^T is invertible between $\text{Ran}(A)$ and $\text{Ran}(A^T)$. Hence AA^T is invertible on $\text{Ran}(A)$. Let B be the inverse of AA^T on $\text{Ran}(A)$ and zero otherwise (*Moore-Penrose inverse*), then $AA^T B = BAA^T = P$ where P is the projection to $\text{Ran}(A)$.

Since $AA^T AAA^T = O$, for any $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= B(AA^T AAA^T)B A\mathbf{v} \\ &= (BAA^T)A(AA^T B)A\mathbf{v} \\ &= P A P A\mathbf{v} \\ &= A^2 \mathbf{v}, \end{aligned}$$

i.e. $A^2 = O$. According to the conclusion above, $2 \dim \text{Ker}(A) \geq \dim \text{Ker}(A^2) = n$, i.e. $\dim \text{Ker}(A) \geq \frac{n}{2}$.

Problem 2.

1. When A, B are 2×2 matrices,

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{11}b_{12} & a_{12}b_{11} & a_{12}b_{12} \\ a_{11}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{22} & a_{12}b_{21} & a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} & a_{21}b_{12} & a_{22}b_{11} & a_{22}b_{12} \\ a_{21}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{22} & a_{22}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$

and

$$B \otimes A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{12}b_{11} & a_{11}b_{12} & a_{12}b_{12} \\ a_{21}b_{11} & a_{22}b_{11} & a_{21}b_{12} & a_{22}b_{12} \\ a_{11}b_{21} & a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{22} & a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{22} & a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that $B \otimes A$ is $A \otimes B$ permuting both the second and the third row and column, hence

$$P = P^{-1} = P_{23} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

2. Since

$$A \otimes I = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & a_{12} & \\ & a_{11} & & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & & a_{22} & \\ & a_{21} & & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

can be decomposed to two independent submaps $A_1 : \mathbf{v} \mapsto A\mathbf{v}$ where $\mathbf{v} \in \text{Span}\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_3\}$, and $A_2 : \mathbf{v} \mapsto A\mathbf{v}$ where $\mathbf{v} \in \text{Span}\{\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_4\}$, hence $e^{A \otimes I}$ is the direct sum of e^{A_1} and e^{A_2} , which is $e^A \otimes I$.

Similarly, $I \otimes B$ can be decomposed to submaps B_1 and B_2 on $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$ and $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_4\}$ respectively, and therefore $e^{I \otimes B} = I \otimes e^B$.

3. Since

$$(A \otimes I)(I \otimes B) = (AI) \otimes (IB) = A \otimes B,$$

and

$$(I \otimes B)(A \otimes I) = (IA) \otimes (BI) = A \otimes B,$$

$A \otimes I$ and $I \otimes B$ commutes. Therefore

$$e^A \otimes e^B = (e^A I) \otimes (I e^B) = (e^A \otimes I)(I \otimes e^B) = e^{A \otimes I} e^{I \otimes B} = e^{A \otimes I + I \otimes B} = e^{A \oplus B}.$$

4.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(A \oplus B) &= \text{tr} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & b_{12} & a_{12} & \\ b_{21} & a_{11} + b_{22} & & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & & a_{22} + b_{11} & b_{12} \\ & a_{21} & b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (a_{11} + a_{22})(b_{11} + b_{22}) \\ &= \text{tr}(A) + \text{tr}(B). \end{aligned}$$

5. WLOG suppose A is Jordanized. For each Jordan block of A with eigenvalue $\lambda \neq 0$, there exists a $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $e^\mu = \lambda$. Consider the matrix X by replacing λ with μ for each Jordan block of A , then we have e^X agrees with A on every Jordan block, and thus $e^X = A$.

6. If both A and B are invertible then $A = e^X$ and $B = e^Y$ for some X, Y . Hence $A \otimes B = e^X \otimes e^Y = e^{X \oplus Y}$. Since $\det e^X = e^{\text{tr}(X)}$,

$$\det(A \otimes B) = e^{\text{tr}(X \oplus Y)} = e^{\text{tr}(X) + \text{tr}(Y)} = e^{\text{tr}(X)} e^{\text{tr}(Y)} = \det(A) \det(B).$$

This remains correct when A and/or B is not invertible as a result of continuity.

Problem 3.

1. An example is

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

whose Jordan normal form is

$$J = B^{-1}AB = \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 & & \\ & i & & \\ & & -i & 1 \\ & & & -i \end{bmatrix},$$

under the basis

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & i \\ 0 & i & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

2. An example is

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

where we have

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq BA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

They are both in their JNF and they differ.

3. An example is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} & i \\ -i & \end{bmatrix},$$

whose Jordan normal form is

$$J = B^{-1}AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \\ & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

under the basis

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix}.$$

4. Suppose λ is an eigenvalue of A , then $e^\lambda = \lambda + 1$ i.e. $\lambda = 0$. Hence all eigenvalues of A are 0 so A is nilpotent, $A^4 = O$. Expand the analytic function e^A at 0 and we have $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n = A + I$, i.e.

$$O = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n = \frac{1}{2} A^2 + \frac{1}{6} A^3.$$

Since A is Jordan normal, this implies that $A^2 = O$, hence dimensions of Jordan blocks of A do not exceed 2. Therefore, all possible A 's are

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

though the last three are in fact equivalent.

Problem 4.

1. Suppose $p(x) = (k_0, k_1, k_2, k_3)$ under the basis $(e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3) = (1, x, x^2, x^3)$. The multiple of $q(x)$ will always have its first term the same as $xp(x)$, which is k_3x^4 . Therefore, $(Mp)(x) = xp(x) - k_3q(x) = (-dk_3, k_0 - ck_3, k_1 - bk_3, k_2 - ak_3)$, i.e.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} & & -d \\ 1 & & -c \\ & 1 & -b \\ & & 1 & -a \end{bmatrix}.$$

2. According to the compatibility with addition and multiplication of modular arithmetic, if $a \equiv b \pmod{x}$ then $P(a) \equiv P(b) \pmod{x}$ for any polynomial $P(x)$. Therefore since

$$(Mp)(x) \equiv xp(x) \pmod{q(x)},$$

we have

$$(P(M)p)(x) \equiv P(x)p(x) \pmod{q(x)}$$

for any polynomial $P(x)$. And since $(P(M)p)(x) \in V$, it is the remainder itself. Let $P(x) = \mu(x)$ the minimal polynomial of A , then $\mu(M) = 0$, and we have

$$0 = (\mu(M)p)(x) = \mu(x)p(x) \pmod{q(x)}$$

for any $p(x) \in V$. This happens if and only if $\mu(x)$ is a multiple of $q(x)$, as well as a monic polynomial and of the lowest degree among all. Therefore $\mu(x) = q(x)$, and since its degree is $4 = n$, it is the characteristic polynomial of A as well.

3. Note that $A^i e_0 = e_i$, thus $A^i e_j = A^{i+j} e_0 = A^j e_i$ ($i, j = 0, 1, 2, 3$). Since B commutes with A and therefore any power of A , the i -th (counting from 0) column of B is

$$Be_i = BA^i e_0 = A^i Be_0 = A^i \sum_{j=0}^3 B_{j0} e_j = \sum_{j=0}^3 B_{j0} A^i e_j = \sum_{j=0}^3 B_{j0} A^j e_i,$$

the same as that of $\sum_{j=0}^3 B_{j0} A^j$. Hence $B = \sum_{j=0}^3 B_{j0} A^j$, which is a polynomial function of A .

4. Because the minimal polynomial of A coincides with its characteristic polynomial ($\mu(x) = \chi(x) = q(x)$), the Jordan normal form of A has no Jordan blocks sharing a common eigenvalue. Therefore we get the JNF straight from $\chi(x)$, which results in $\text{diag}(0, 1, 2, 3)$.
5. Similarly, the JNF is

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

Problem 5.

1. For any orthogonal matrix A , $AA^T = I$, hence $-(A - I)(A^T - I) = -AA^T + A + A^T - I = A + A^T - 2I$.
2. Since $f(0) = f(0)^T = I$, according to the conclusion above,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(f(t) - I)(f(t)^T - I)}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t) + f(t)^T - 2I}{t} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t) - f(0)}{t} + \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)^T - f(0)^T}{t} \\ &= f'(0) + f'(0)^T. \end{aligned}$$

3. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(f(t) - I)(f(t)^T - I)}{t} &= -\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(t) - f(0)}{t} \cdot \frac{f(t)^T - f(0)^T}{t} \cdot t \right) \\ &= -f'(0)f'(0)^T \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t \\ &= O,\end{aligned}$$

hence compare with the equation in the last subproblem and we have $f'(0) + f'(0)^T = O$, i.e. $f'(0)$ is skew-symmetric.

4. Since $f(t) \in \text{SO}_n$,

$$I = f(t)f(t)^T.$$

Take the derivative of t to both sides of the equation and

$$\begin{aligned}O &= f'(t)f(t)^T + f(t)f'(t)^T \\ &= f'(t)f(t)^T + (f'(t)f(t)^T)^T \\ &= f'(t)f(t)^{-1} + (f'(t)f(t)^{-1})^T,\end{aligned}$$

i.e. $f'(t)f(t)^{-1}$ is skew-symmetric.

5. Since $f'(t)f(t)^{-1} = A$, $f'(t) = Af(t)$. Note that this is a first-order homogeneous differential equation and e^{At} is a solution to it, so the general solution is $e^{At}B$ where B is a constant depending on initial conditions. When $t = 0$, $f(0) = B \in \text{SO}_n$.