## Math, Problem Set #3, Spectral Theory

Instructor: John Van de Berghe Due Monday, July 10 at 8:00am

**Homework:** 2, 4, 6, 8, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 24, 25, 27, 28, 31, 32, 33, 36, 38 at the end of Chapter 4 of Humpherys et al. (2017)

## Solutions

- 4.2 The matrix  $D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Solving  $det(D \lambda I) = 0$ , we get  $\lambda^3 = 0$  and see that the only eigenvalue is 0. Solving  $(D \lambda I)x = 0$ , we see that the eigenspace consists of all vectors of the form  $\begin{bmatrix} k \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ . The eigenvalue 0 has algebraic multiplicity 3, and geometric multiplicity is 1 because the eigenspace is spanned by 1 nonzero eigenvector.
- 4.4 The charcteristic polinomiyl of any  $2 \times 2$  matrix is given by:  $p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 tr(A)\lambda + det(A)$ 
  - i) for any Hermetian  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & \overline{b} \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$  the eigenvalues can be found by solving the characteristic equation

$$0 = \lambda^2 - 2(a+c)\lambda + ac - b\bar{b}$$

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{a+c}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a+c}{2}\right)^2 - ac + b\bar{b}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{if} \quad 0 < \left(\frac{a+c}{2}\right)^2 - ac + b\bar{b}$$

$$0 < \left(\frac{a+c}{2}\right)^2 - ac + b\bar{b}$$

$$0 < \frac{1}{4}(a^2 + c^2 + 2ac) - ac + b\bar{b}$$

$$0 < \frac{a^2 + c^2 - 2ac}{4} + b\bar{b}$$

$$0 < \frac{1}{4}(a-c)^2 + b\bar{b}$$

ii)For all eigenvalues of any skew-Hermetian  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b-c \\ c-b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  being imaginary the argument is similar to the argument in part i). From the

characteristic polynomial it follows that

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \pm \sqrt{(c-b)(b-c)}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} \in \mathbb{I} \quad \text{if} \quad 0 < (b-c)(c-b)$$

The second inequality holds for both possible cases b < c and c < b.

- 4.6 For any triangular matrix A it is true that det(A) = trace(A) so the pcharacteristic polynomial collapses to  $0 = (a_{11} \lambda)(a_{22} \lambda)(a_{33} \lambda)...(a_{nn} \lambda) \Leftrightarrow a_{11} = \lambda_1, \ a_{22} = \lambda_2, \ a_{33} \lambda_3, \quad ... \quad a_{nn} = \lambda_n$
- 4.8 i) let S be the span of V, then for S to be a basis of V, the elements in S must be linearly independent, that is, there exists no such a, b, c and d that:  $a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) + c\sin(2x) + d\cos(2x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ 
  - ii)denote the derivative operator as D such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos x \\ -\sin x \\ 2\cos(2x) \\ -2\sin(2x) \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{=D} \begin{bmatrix} \sin x \\ \cos x \\ \sin(2x) \\ \cos(2x) \end{bmatrix}$$

- iii  $W_1 = \{\sin x, \cos x\}$  and  $W_1 = \{\sin(2x), \cos(2x)\}$  are two invariant subspaces of S
- 4.13 First find the eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors:

$$0 = |A - \lambda I|$$

$$0 = (0.8 - \lambda)(0.6 - \lambda) - 0.2 \times 0.4$$

$$0 = \lambda^2 - 1.4\lambda + 0.04$$

$$\lambda_{1,2} = 0.7 \pm \sqrt{0.049 - 0.04} = 0.7 \pm 0.3$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1, \ \lambda_2 = 0.4$$

To find the eigenvectors I solve

$$0 = (A - \lambda_1 I)v_i$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.2 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & -0.4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{21} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow v_{11} = 2v_{21}$$

and for the second one:

$$0 = (A - \lambda_2 I)v_i$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{12} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow v_{12} = -v_{22}$$

so we have  $\Sigma_1 = \{(2, 1)^T \text{ and } \Sigma_1 = \{(1, -1)^T \text{ which gives the transition matrix } P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  and its inverse  $P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

4.15 Let A be a semi-similar matrix so that there exists a diagonalization of A such that  $A = PDP^{-1}$  and D is diagonal. Suppose  $(\lambda_i)_{i=1}^n$  are the eigenvalues of A. Then we can find the eigenvalues of the polynomial f(A) by

$$f(A) = a_0 I + a_1 A + a_2 A^2 + \dots + a_n A^n$$

$$= a_0 P^{-1} P + a_1 P^{-1} D P + a_2 P^{-1} D^2 P + \dots + a_n P^{-1} D^n P$$

$$= P^{-1} f(D) P$$

$$= P \begin{bmatrix} a_0 + a_1 \lambda_1 + \dots + a_n \lambda_1^n & \mathbf{0} \\ & \ddots & \\ \mathbf{0} & & a_0 + a_1 \lambda_n + \dots + a_n \lambda_n^n \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

Since f(D) is diagonal and the eigenvalues of any diagonal matrix correspond to its diagonal elements we have the eigenvalues of f(A) are given by  $f(\lambda_i) = a_0 + a_1\lambda_i + ... + a_n\lambda_i$ .

4.16 i) Compute  $\lim_{n\to\infty} A^n$  with A and its transition matrix P from exercise 4.13.

$$B = \lim_{n \to \infty} A^n$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} P^{-1} D^n P \quad \text{with} \quad D^n = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1^n & 0 \\ 0 & 0.4^n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

then  $||A^k - B||_1 < \varepsilon$ 

ii) does the same hold for with respect to the frobenius norm?

$$\sqrt{tr(A^k B)} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{3}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Apparently, this does not hold for the frobenius norm.

What about the  $\infty - norm$ ?  $||A^-kB||_{\infty} = 0 < \varepsilon$  because the  $\infty - norm$  is basically the supremum of the row sum of the matrix A - kB.

iii) Find all eigenvalues of the matrix  $C = 3I + 5A + A^3$  using the result of exercise 4.15.

$$(\lambda_1)_C = 3 + 5(\lambda_1)_A + (\lambda_1)_C^3 = 3 + 5 + 1 = 9$$
  
$$(\lambda_2)_C = 3 + 5(\lambda_2)_A + (\lambda_2)_A^3 = 3 + 2 + 0.4^3 = 5.064$$

4.18 Let x be an eigenvector of A with corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$  then because of  $det(A) = det(A^T)$  we can write

$$A^{T}x = \lambda x$$
$$(A^{T}x)^{T} = (\lambda x)^{T}$$
$$x^{T}A = \lambda x^{T}$$

- 4.20 Show that if A is Hermetian that B is Hermetian too:  $B^H = (U^H A U)^H = (U^H A U) = B$
- 4.24 i) We aim to show that  $\rho = \rho^H$  because this is true if and only if  $\rho$  is a real number. We know  $A = A^H$ . Then,  $\rho = \frac{\langle x, Ax \rangle}{\|x\|^2} = \frac{\langle x, A^H x \rangle}{\|x\|^2} = (\frac{x^H A^H x}{x^H x})^H = (\frac{\langle x, Ax \rangle}{\|x\|^2})^H = \rho^H$ .
  - ii) We aim to show that  $-\rho=\rho^H$  because this is true if and only if  $\rho$  is an imaginary number. We know  $A=A^H.$  Then,  $-\rho=-\frac{\langle x,Ax\rangle}{\|x\|^2}=\frac{\langle x,-A^Hx\rangle}{\|x\|^2}=-(\frac{\langle x,Ax\rangle}{\|x\|^2})^H=-\rho^H.$
- 4.25 i) Suppose A is a normal matrix with eigenvalues  $(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n)$  and orthonormal eigenvectors  $(x_1, ..., x_n)$  which forms an eigenbasis for the space. We know that I is an identity matrix if and only if Ix = x for any vector  $x \in \mathbb{F}$ . Since we have an eigenbasis, x can be rewritten as  $x = \alpha_n x_1 + ... + \alpha_n x_n$ . Then,  $(x_1 x_1^H + ... + x_n x_n^H)x = (x_1 x_1^H + ... + x_n x_n^H)\alpha_n x_1 + ... + \alpha_n x_n = (\alpha_1 x_1 x_1^H x_1 + ... + \alpha_n x_n x_n^H x_n) = \alpha_n x_1 + ... + \alpha_n x_n$  because the vectors are orthonormal so  $x_j^H x_i = 0 \forall j \neq i$  and  $x_j^H x_i = 1 \forall j = i$ .
  - ii) Because  $(x_1x_1^H + ... + x_nx_n^H) = I$ , we can write  $A = A(x_1x_1^H + ... + x_nx_n^H) = (Ax_1x_1^H + ... + Ax_nx_n^H) = (\lambda_1x_1x_1^H + ... + \lambda_nx_nx_n^H)$ , as desired.
- 4.27 Prove that the diagonal elements of any positive definite matrix A are positive and real:

From the definition of pos. def. of A we know that the inner product of A and any vector  $\underline{x}$  is positive and real, that is  $\langle x, Ax \rangle > 0 \,\forall x$  and further that  $0 < \langle x, Ax \rangle = \overline{\langle x, Ax \rangle}$ . Let  $e_i$  be the vector of zeroes with a one at the ith position, then  $\langle e_i, Ae_i \rangle = e_i^T A e_i = a_{ii}$  where  $a_{ii}$  is the ith diagonal element of A.

4.28 Show  $0 \le tr(AB) \le tr(A)tr(B)$  for A, B being positive semidefinite:

From the definition of positive semidefinite matrices we know that  $0 \leq \langle x, Ax \rangle$ . Following the argument in 4.27 we have that the diagonal elements of A and B are non-negative, i.e.  $a_{ii}$ ,  $b_{jj} \geq 0 \forall i$ . Then it follows that tr(AB) =

 $\sum_{i=j}^{n} a_{ii}b_{jj} \geq 0$ . For the second inequality consider

$$tr(A)tr(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{jj}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ii}b_{jj}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j\neq i}^{n} a_{ii}b_{jj} + \sum_{i=j}^{n} a_{ii}b_{jj}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j\neq i}^{n} a_{ii}b_{jj} + tr(AB) \ge tr(AB)$$

- 4.31 Assume  $A \in M_{m \times}(\mathbb{F})$  is of rank r prove that
  - i)  $||A||_2 = \sigma_1$  with  $\sigma_1$  being the largest singular value of A.

$$||A||_{2} = \sup \frac{||Ax||_{2}}{||x||_{2}} = \sup \frac{||U\Sigma V^{H}x||_{2}}{||x||_{2}} \quad \text{because U is othonormal}$$

$$= \sup \frac{||\Sigma V^{H}x||_{2}}{||x||_{2}} \quad \text{define } y = V^{H}x$$

$$= \sup \frac{||\Sigma y||_{2}}{||Vy||_{2}} \quad \text{because V is orthonormal}$$

$$= \sup \frac{||\Sigma y||_{2}}{||y||_{2}} = \sup \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{1}^{2}y_{1}^{2} + \dots + \sigma_{r}^{2}y_{r}^{2}}}{\sqrt{y_{1}^{2} + \dots y_{r}^{2}}}$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_{1}\sqrt{y_{1}^{2} + \dots y_{r}^{2}}}{\sqrt{y_{1}^{2} + \dots y_{r}^{2}}} = \sigma_{1}$$

ii) if A is invertible than  $||A^{-1}||_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_r}$  where  $\sigma_r$  is the smallest singular value of A.

We proceed similar to part i)

$$\begin{split} \|A^{-1}\|_2 &= \sup \frac{\|(U\Sigma V^H)^{-1}x\|_2}{\|x\|_2} = \sup \frac{\|(V^H)^{-1}\Sigma^{-1}U^{-1}x\|}{\|x\|_2} \quad \text{because V is othonormal} \\ &= \sup \frac{\|\Sigma^{-1}U^{-1}x\|_2}{\|x\|_2} \quad \text{define } y = U^{-1}x \\ &= \sup \frac{\|\Sigma^{-1}y\|_2}{\|yU\|_2} \quad \text{because U is orthonormal} \\ &= \sup \frac{\|\Sigma^{-1}y\|_2}{\|y\|_2} = \sup \frac{\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 y_1^2 + \ldots + \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_r}\right)^2 y_r^2}}{\sqrt{y_1^2 + \ldots + y_r^2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma_r} \frac{\sqrt{y_1^2 + \ldots y_r^2}}{\sqrt{y_1^2 + \ldots y_r^2}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_r} \end{split}$$

- iii)
- iv) If U and V are orthonormal then  $||UAV||_2 = ||A||_2$

$$||UAV||_2 = \frac{||UAVx||_2}{||x_2||} \quad \text{with } y = Vx$$

$$= \frac{||UAy||_2}{||V^Hy||} = \frac{||Ay||_2}{||y||} = ||A||_2$$

3.32 Assume U and V are orthonormal and rank(A) = r.

i) 
$$||UAV||_F = \sqrt{tr((UAV)^HUAV)} = \sqrt{tr(V^HA^HU^HUAV)} = \sqrt{tr(V^HVA^HA)} = \sqrt{tr(A^HA)} = ||A||_F$$

ii) 
$$||A||_F = ||U\Sigma V||_F = \sqrt{tr((U\Sigma V)^H U\Sigma V)} = \sqrt{tr(V^H \Sigma^H U^H U\Sigma V)} = \sqrt{tr(\Sigma^H \Sigma)} = \sqrt{(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \dots + \sigma_r^2)}$$

4.33 Show that  $||A||_2 = \sup_{||x||=1, ||y||=1} |y^H A x|$ . From exercise 4.31 we know that  $||A||_2 = \sigma_1$  where  $\sigma_1$  is the largest singular value of A.

$$sup_{\|x\|_{2}=1, \|y\|_{2}=1}|y^{H}Ax| = sup_{\|x\|=1, \|y\|=1}|y^{H}U\Sigma V^{H}x|$$
$$= sup_{\|x\|_{2}=1, \|y\|_{2}=1}|aU^{H}U\Sigma V^{H}Vb|$$

(define  $y^H = a^H U^H$ , x = V b since V and U ar orthonormal  $\|y\| = \|a\|, \|b\| = \|x\|$ )  $= sup_{\|a\|_2=1, \|a\|_2=1} |a\Sigma b|$ 

$$= \sup_{\|a\|_2=1, \|a\|_2=1} |\sum_{i=1}^r a_i \sigma_i b_i|$$

 $a = b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T$  to get the supremum:

$$= \sup_{\|a\|_2 = 1, \|a\|_2 = 1} \left| \sum_{i=1}^r a_i \sigma_i b_i \right| = \sigma_1$$

- 4.36 Example of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix with non-zero determinante and its eigenvalues being different from its singular values:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}$ . Then,  $A^H A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then, the eigenvalues of A are i, but the singular value of A is 1, and the determinant is -1, which is nonzero.
- 4.38 Proove properties of the Moore-Penrose Pseudoinverse  $A^{\dagger} = V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H$  of the matrix  $A = U_1 \Sigma_1 V_1^H$  where  $U_1$  and  $V_1$  are orthonormal: i)  $AA^{\dagger}A = U_1 \Sigma_1 V_1^H V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H U_1 \Sigma_1 V_1^H = U_1 \Sigma_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} \Sigma_1 V_1^H = U_1 \Sigma_1 V_1^H = A$

i) 
$$AA^{\dagger}A = U_1\Sigma_1V_1^{H}V_1\Sigma_1^{-1}U_1^{H}U_1\Sigma_1V_1^{H} = U_1\Sigma_1\Sigma_1^{-1}\Sigma_1V_1^{H} = U_1\Sigma_1V_1^{H} = A$$

ii) 
$$A^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger} = V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H U_1 \Sigma_1 V_1^H V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H = V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} \Sigma_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H = V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H = A^{\dagger}$$

iii)  $(AA^{\dagger})^H = (U_1\Sigma_1V_1^HV_1\Sigma_1^{-1}U_1^H)^H = I^H$  and the Hermetian of the identity is just the identity its self so  $(AA^{\dagger})^H = I^H = I = AA^{\dagger}$ 

iv) 
$$(A^{\dagger}A)^H = (V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} U_1^H U_1 \Sigma_1 V_1^H)^H = (V_1 \Sigma_1^{-1} \Sigma_1 V_1^H)^H = (V_1 V_1^H)^H = I^H = I$$

v)

vi)