

Introduction to Linear Algebra
- Gilbert Strang

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Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

Singular Value Decomposition

Ense

e



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		<p style="text-align: center;">INTRODUCTION TO LINEAR ALGEBRA</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— Gilbert Strang, MIT (5th Edition)</p>		

6.9

$$3. A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$$

What is the eigenvalue matrix for $A + 2I$?

What is the eigenvector matrix?

Ans. $A + 2I = X(\Lambda + 2I)X^{-1}$

7. Write down the most general matrix there has eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Ans. $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, X^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^T = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = X \Lambda X^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 & \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 & \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 & \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 & \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

9. Suppose, G_{k+2} is the average of the 2 previous numbers G_{k+1} and G_k :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} G_{k+2} = \frac{1}{2}G_{k+1} + \frac{1}{2}G_k \\ G_{k+1} = G_{k+1} \end{array} \right\} \quad \begin{bmatrix} G_{k+2} \\ G_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} G_{k+1} \\ G_k \end{bmatrix}$$

① Find the eigenvalues & eigenvectors of A

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} - \lambda & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$\lambda^2 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda - \frac{1}{2} = 0 \Rightarrow 2\lambda^2 - \lambda - 1 = 0$$

$$\Delta = 1 + 8 = 9 \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{3}}{2} = 1 \text{ or } -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}b = 0 \\ 2a + b = 0 \\ b = -2a$$

$$x_2 = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1 : \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} -\frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}b = 0 \\ a - b = 0 \end{array} \Rightarrow a = b$$

$$x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

b) Find the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ of the matrices

$$A^n = X \Lambda^n X^{-1}$$

$$\text{Ans: } A^n = X \Lambda^n X^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1^n & 0 \\ 0 & (-\lambda_2)^n \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1^n & 0 \\ 0 & (-\lambda_2)^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_2 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore A^\infty = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_2 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_2 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \\ \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_\infty = A^\infty u_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \\ \frac{2}{3} & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Gibonacci numbers approach $\frac{2}{3}$.

11. If the eigenvalues of A are 2, 2, 5 then the matrix is certainly

~~your Table~~ @ Invertible - TRUE

Ans: $\lambda=0$ is not an eigenvalue $\Rightarrow A$ is invertible

⑥ diagonalizable - FALSE
~~A is diagonalizable~~

$\lambda=2$ have only one line of eigenvectors

⑦ Non-diagonalizable - FALSE

12. If the only eigenvectors of A are multiples of $(1, 4)$ then A has

⑧ No inverse - False

• don't know if $\lambda=0$ or not

⑨ a repeated eigenvalue - TRUE

an eigenvector is missing, which can only happen for a repeated eigenvalue

② No diagonalization $\lambda \wedge x^\top \rightarrow$ TRUE

14. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is not diagonalizable because the rank of $A - 3I$ is $\boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}$.
Change 1 entry to make A diagonalizable.

Ques: $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 3$

$$A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{rank}(A - 3I) = 1$$

$\dim[N(A - 3I)] \geq 1 \Rightarrow$ only one eigenvector
for $\lambda = 3$.

Changing any entry except $a_{12} = 1$ makes ' A ' diagonalizable.

15. $A^k = X \Lambda^k X^{-1}$ approaches zero matrix as $k \rightarrow \infty$
if every λ has absolute value less than 1.

Which of these has $A^k \rightarrow 0$?

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.9 \\ 0.4 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}, A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.9 \\ 0.1 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: A_1 is a markov matrix.

$$\lambda_{\max} = 1$$

$$A_1^k \rightarrow A_1^\infty$$

$$A_2 \text{ has } \lambda = 0.6 \pm 0.3.$$

$$A_2^k \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

$$20. A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$$

$$\det(A) = \det(X \Lambda X^{-1}) = \det(X) \det(\Lambda) \det(X^{-1})$$

$$= \det(\Lambda) \det(X) \det(X^{-1}) = \det(\Lambda) \det(X X^{-1})$$
$$= \det(\Lambda) \det(I) = \det(\Lambda) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_n$$

This proof shows only X makes A is diagonalizable.

Let's test A certain X is diagonalizable.
What does X have to be? X must be invertible.
 X must be invertible.
Is X invertible?

Diagonalizable means A is similar to Λ .

$$X^{-1}AX = \Lambda \Leftrightarrow XAX^{-1} = \Lambda$$

$$XAX^{-1} = X\Lambda X^{-1} \Leftrightarrow X\Lambda X^{-1} = \Lambda$$

X must be invertible.
Diagonalizable means A is similar to Λ .

(23) If $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$, diagonalize the block matrix

$B = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & 2A \end{bmatrix}$. Find its eigenvalue and eigenvector (block) matrices

Ans: $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$ & $2A = X(2\Lambda)X^{-1}$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & 2A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 2\Lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & X^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

24. Consider all 4×4 matrices A that are

- diagonalized by the same fixed eigenvector matrix X . Show that A 's forms a subspace. What's this subspace when $X = I$? What's its dimension?

25.

Ans: If A_1 & A_2 are in the subspace

$$A_1 = X \Lambda_1 X^{-1} \quad \& \quad A_2 = X \Lambda_2 X^{-1}$$

$$A_1 + A_2 = X \Lambda_1 X^{-1} + X \Lambda_2 X^{-1} = X(\Lambda_1 + \Lambda_2) X^{-1}$$

$A_1 + A_2$ have the same X .

$\Rightarrow A_1 + A_2$ in the subspace

Ans

$$cA_1 = cX\Lambda_1 X^{-1} = X(c\Lambda_1)X^{-1}$$

$\Rightarrow cA_1$ have the same X & thus is the subspace

i.e. A 's that are diagonalized by the same fixed eigenvector matrix X .

When $X = I$, the A 's with those eigenvectors give the subspace of diagonal matrices.

The dimension of this matrix space is 4 since the matrices are 4×4 .

-
25. Suppose, $A^2 = A$. On the left side ' A ' multiplies each column of A . Which of our 4 subspaces contains eigenvectors with $\lambda = 1$? Which subspace contains eigenvectors with $\lambda = 0$? From the dimensions of those subspaces, A has a full set of independent eigenvectors. So a matrix with $A^2 = A$ can be diagonalized.

Ans

$$A^2 = A \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Aq_1 & Aq_2 & \dots & Aq_n \end{bmatrix} = A$$

$$\therefore X \text{ is a column vector} \\ \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow Aq_i = q_i \text{ for all } i \in C(A)$$

\therefore All vectors in $C(A)$ are eigenvectors
with $\lambda = 1$.

$N(A)$ has $\lambda = 0$ always.

$$\dim[C(A)] + \dim[N(A)] = n \quad \text{By the}$$

Fundamental theorem.

$\therefore n$ independent eigenvectors

$\therefore A$ is diagonalizable

Q6. Suppose, $Ax = \lambda x$. If $\lambda = 0$ then $x \in N(A)$.

Ques: If $\lambda \neq 0$ then $x \in C(A)$. These spaces have dimensions $(n-r) + r = n$. So why doesn't every square matrix have n linearly independent eigenvectors?

Ans: There may not be ' r ' independent eigenvectors in the $C(A)$.

$N(A)$ & $C(A)$ can overlap

27. The eigenvalues of A are 1 and 9, and
the eigenvalues of B are -1 and 9.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find a matrix square root of A from
 $R = X\sqrt{\Lambda}X^{-1}$. Why is there no real matrix
square root of B ?

Ans:

$$\sqrt{A} = R = X\sqrt{\Lambda}X^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } R^2 = A$$

$$\sqrt{B} \text{ needs } \lambda = \sqrt{9} \text{ and } \sqrt{-1} = i$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{tr}(\sqrt{B}) = \sqrt{9} + \sqrt{-1} = \sqrt{9} + i, \text{ is not real}$$

$\therefore \sqrt{B}$ can't be real.

28) If A & B have the same λ's with the same independent eigenvectors, their factorizations into $X\Lambda X^{-1}$ are the same. So $A = B$.

Everyone has a right to their own thoughts but
please if we're gonna have a discussion let's
have the $\text{big} \rightarrow \text{big}$ discussion etc of
the different ways that

factorization works etc and \leftarrow let's do that.

So A is (i,j) two (0,i)

so diagonal in A \leftarrow $P = X \Lambda X^{-1}$

so $\Lambda = d$

$$\begin{bmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = A \text{ etc}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$d=0, 0=0, 0=d, 0=0$ exchange of
factors so no real exchange of factors
 \rightarrow big + small factors etc

32. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $AB = BA$, show that $B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$

is also a diagonal matrix. B has the same eigenvalues as A but different eigenvectors.

These diagonal matrices B form a 2D subspace of matrix space. $AB - BA = 0$ gives 4 equations for the unknowns a, b, c, d - find the rank of the 4×4 matrix

34.

Ans: $AB = BA \Rightarrow B$ has the same eigenvectors $(1, 0)$ and $(0, 1)$ as A
 $\therefore X = I \Rightarrow B$ is diagonal.

Ans:

$$b = c = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} AB - BA &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 2c & 2d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a & 2b \\ c & 2d \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -b \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$4 \text{ equations: } 0=0, -b=0, c=0, 0=0$$

These 4 equations have a 4×4 coefficient matrix with rank $= 4 - 2 = 2$

34. The n th power of rotation through θ is
rotation through $n\theta$:

$$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}^n = \begin{bmatrix} \cos n\theta & -\sin n\theta \\ \sin n\theta & \cos n\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Prove by diagonalizing $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$.

The eigenvectors (columns of X) are $(1, i)$ and $(i, 1)$.

$$\sin\theta + i\cos\theta = i \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: Eigenvectors.

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta} \\ ie^{-i\theta} \end{bmatrix} = e^{-i\theta} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ie^{i\theta} \\ e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} = e^{i\theta} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^n = X \Lambda^n X^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{2} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta} & ie^{i\theta} \\ ie^{-i\theta} & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e^{-i\theta} + e^{i\theta}}{2} & -i \left(\frac{e^{-i\theta} - e^{i\theta}}{2} \right) \\ i \left(\frac{e^{-i\theta} - e^{i\theta}}{2} \right) & \frac{e^{-i\theta} + e^{i\theta}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

35. The transpose of $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$ is $A^T = (X^{-1})^T \Lambda X^T$.

- The eigenvectors in $A^T y = \lambda y$ are the columns of that matrix $(X^{-1})^T$. They are often called left eigenvectors of A , because $y^T A = \lambda y^T$.

How do you multiply matrices to find this formula for A ?

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{sum of rank-1} \\ \text{matrices} \end{array} \right\} A = X \Lambda X^{-1} = \lambda_1 x_1 y_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n x_n y_n^T$$

Ques: $A = X \Lambda X^{-1} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1^T \\ y_2^T \\ \vdots \\ y_n^T \end{bmatrix}$

$$= X \Lambda X^{-1} (X^{-1})^T = [y_1 \ y_2 \ \dots \ y_n]$$

$$A = X \Lambda X^{-1} = \lambda_1 x_1 y_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n x_n y_n^T$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = n \times 1 = n$$

6.3

3.

- ⑥ With -ve diagonal & +ve off diagonal adding to zero, $\dot{u} = Au$ will be a continuous Markov equation. Find the eigenvalues & eigenvectors, and the steady state as $t \rightarrow \infty$

Solve: $\frac{du}{dt} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 3 \\ 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} u$ with $u(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

What is $u(\infty)$?

Ans: $\lambda_1 = 0$: $\begin{cases} -2a + 3b = 0 \\ 2a = 3b \end{cases} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a = \frac{3}{2}b \\ \lambda_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right.$

$\lambda_2 = \text{tr}(A) - 0 = -5$: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a = -b$

$$\lambda_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$u(t) = e^{\lambda_1 t} \alpha_1 + e^{\lambda_2 t} \alpha_2 = \alpha_1 + e^{-5t} \alpha_2 \text{ has steady state } \alpha_1 = (3, 2) \text{ since } e^{-5t} \rightarrow 0$$

4. A door is opened b/w rooms that hold $v(0) = 30$ people and $w(0) = 10$ people. The movement b/w rooms is proportional to the difference $v-w$:

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = w - v \quad \& \quad \frac{dw}{dt} = v - w$$

Show that the total $v+w$ is constant (40 people).

What are v & w at $t=1$ and $t=\infty$?

Ans: $\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix}$

$$\frac{d}{dt} (v+w) = \frac{dv}{dt} + \frac{dw}{dt} = (w-v) + (v-w) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow v+w$ is constant

$$|A| = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0: \quad \alpha_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = -2: \quad \alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a+b=0$$

$$\alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u(0) = \begin{bmatrix} v(0) \\ w(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} = 20 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 10 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u(t) = 20 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 10 e^{-2t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v(t) \\ w(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v(\infty) = 20, w(\infty) = 20.$$

5. Reverse the diffusion of people in problem 4 to

$$\frac{du}{dt} = -Au:$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = v - w$$

$$\& \frac{dw}{dt} = w - v$$

Ans:

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(i) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$|A| = (w-v) + (v-w) = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0 : \quad a = b \quad \alpha_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2 : \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a = -b$$

$$\alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H(t) = U(0) = 20\alpha_1 + 10\alpha_2$$

$$V(t) = 20 + 10e^{2t} \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v(t) \\ w(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} e^{2t} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} e^{2t}$$

6. A has real eigenvalues but B has complex eigenvalues

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ 1 & a \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} b & -1 \\ 1 & b \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow a, b \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Find the conditions on a and b so that all solutions of $\frac{du}{dt} = Au$ and $\frac{dv}{dt} = Bv$ approach zero as $t \rightarrow \infty$; $\operatorname{Re}(\gamma) < 0$ for all eigenvalues.

Ans:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ 1 & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(a-\lambda)^2 - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow |a-\lambda| = 1$$

$$a-\lambda = 1 \quad (\text{or}) \quad a-\lambda = -1$$

$$\lambda_1 = a-1, a+1$$

$$a-1 < 0 \quad \& \quad a+1 < 0$$

$$a < 1 \quad \& \quad a < -1 \implies a < -1$$

In this case, the solutions of $u' = Au$ approach zero.

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b & -1 \\ 1 & b \end{bmatrix}; (b-\lambda)^2 + 1 - (b-\lambda) - (-1) = (b-\lambda)^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$|b-\lambda| = i \Rightarrow b-\lambda = i \quad (\text{or}) \quad -i$$

$$\lambda = b+i, b-i$$

$\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) = b < 0 \Rightarrow$ all solutions of $v' = Bv$ approach zero.

7. P: projection matrix onto the 45° line $y=x$ in \mathbb{R}^2 .
eigenvalues?

$\frac{du}{dt} = -Pu$ find limit of $u(t)$ at $t=\infty$
starting from $u(0) = (3, 1)$?

Ans: $P = \frac{uu^T}{u^Tu} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\lambda_1 = 0$: $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ fills the \perp subspace that
P projects onto

$\lambda_2 = 1$: $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ fills the subspace that
P projects onto.

$$u(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$u(t) = e^{-t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ approaches $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

8. The rabbit population shows fast growth (from 6r) but loses to wolves (from $-2w$). The wolf population always grows in this model ($-w^2$ would control wolves):

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = 6r - 2w \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dw}{dt} = 2r + w.$$

Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors. If $r(0) = 10$, $w(0) = 30$

What are the populations at time t ?

After a long time, what's the ratio of rabbits to wolves?

Ans: $\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} r \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r \\ w \end{bmatrix}$

$$(6-\lambda)(1-\lambda) + 4 = \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 6 + 4 = \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 = 0$$

$$(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\lambda_1 = 5: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a - 2b = 0 \Rightarrow a = 2b$$

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2: \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow 2a = b \Rightarrow$$

$$\lambda_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 30 \end{bmatrix} = 10 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 10 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2a+b &= 30 \\ a+2b &= 30 \\ 4a+2b &= 60 \end{aligned}$$

$$3a = 30$$

$$a = 10$$

$$b = 10$$

$$u(t) = \begin{bmatrix} r(t) \\ w(t) \end{bmatrix} = 10e^{5t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 10e^{2t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$r(t) = 20e^{5t} + 10e^{2t}$$

$$w(t) = 10e^{5t} + 20e^{2t}$$

$$\left. \frac{r(t)}{w(t)} \right|_{t \rightarrow \infty} = \frac{20e^{5t}}{10e^{5t}} = \frac{20}{10} = \frac{2}{1} \quad \text{as } e^{5t} \text{ dominates}$$

10. Find A to change the scalar equation
 $y'' = 5y' + 4y$ into a vector equation for $u = (y, y')$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \begin{bmatrix} y' \\ y'' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \quad & \quad \\ \quad & \quad \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = Au$$

What are the eigenvalues of A?

Find them by substituting $y = e^{\lambda t}$ into $y'' = 5y' + 4y$

Ans: $\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$

$$(5-\lambda)(-1) - 4 = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda - 4 = 0 \quad (\lambda - 4)(\lambda + 1) = 0$$

$$\Delta = 25 + 16 = 41 \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{5 \pm \sqrt{41}}{2}$$

(ER)

Substitute

$$\gamma^2 e^{\lambda t} = 5\gamma e^{\lambda t} + 4e^{\lambda t}$$

$$e^{\lambda t} [\gamma^2 - 5\gamma + 4] = 0$$

$$(\lambda)^2 + 5\lambda + 4 = 0$$

so we have the two

distinct roots

11. Solution to $y''=0$ is a st line $y=c+Dt$.

Convert to a matrix equation:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} \text{ has the solution } \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = e^{At} \begin{bmatrix} y(0) \\ y'(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

A has eigenvalues $\lambda=0, 0$ & it can't be diagonalized. Find A^2 and compute e^{At}

$$e^{At} = I + At + \frac{1}{2}A^2t^2 + \dots$$

Multiply e^{At} times $(y(0), y'(0))$ to check the st line $y(t) = y(0) + y'(0)t$.

Ans: $e^{At} = I + At + \frac{1}{2}A^2t^2 + \dots$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U(t) = e^{At} u(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y(0) \\ y'(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y(0) + y'(0)t \\ y'(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y(t) = \underline{\underline{y(0) + y'(0)t}}$$

A had only one eigenvector

Non diagonalizable

Ans:

Substitute:

12. Substitute e^{3t} into $y'' = 6y' - 9y$ to show that $\lambda = 3$ is a repeated root. This is true we need a 2nd solution after e^{3t} . The matrix equation is

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -9 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$$

Show that this matrix has $\lambda = 3, 3$ and only one line of eigenvectors. Trouble here too.
Show that the 2nd solution to $y'' = 6y' - 9y$ is $y = te^{3t}$.

Ans: $\text{tr}(A) = 6, |A| = 9 \Rightarrow \lambda = 3, 3$

$$y_1 = e^{3t}$$

$$\text{Let } y_2 = v(t) e^{3t}$$

$$y_2' = v'(t) e^{3t} + 3v(t) e^{3t}$$

$$y_2'' = v''(t) e^{3t} + 3v'(t) e^{3t} + 3v'(t) e^{3t} + 9v(t) e^{3t}$$

$$= [v''(t) + 6v'(t) + 9v(t)] e^{3t}$$

Substitute: $[v''(t) + 6v'(t) + 9v(t)] e^{3t} = [6v'(t) + 18v(t) - 9v(t)] e^{3t}$

$$[v''(t)] e^{3t} = 0 \Rightarrow v''(t) = 0$$

$$v(t) = k_1 t + k_2$$

$$y_2(t) = (k_1 t + k_2) e^{3t}$$

$$y = (k_1 t + k_2) e^{3t} + k_3 e^{3t}$$

$$\Rightarrow k_1 t e^{3t} + (k_2 + k_3) e^{3t}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_1 t e^{3t} + C_2 e^{3t}$$

Particular solutions: $t e^{3t}$, e^{3t}

$$14. \frac{du}{dt} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & c & -b \\ -c & 0 & a \\ b & -a & 0 \end{bmatrix} u \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} u_1' = cu_2 - bu_3 \\ u_2' = au_3 - cu_1 \\ u_3' = bu_1 - au_2 \end{array} \right\}$$

(a) The derivative of $|u(t)|^2 = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2$ is $2u_1 u_1' + 2u_2 u_2' + 2u_3 u_3'$. Substitute u_1', u_2', u_3' to get zero. Then $|u(t)|^2$ stays equal to $|u(0)|^2$.

(b) When A is skew-symmetric, $Q = e^{At}$ is orthogonal. Since $Q^T = e^{-At}$ form the series for $Q = e^{At}$. Thus $Q^T Q = I$

Anu.

Has:

$$\text{④ } \frac{d}{dt} \|u(t)\|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow u^T u = \text{constant}$$

⑤ $u(t) = e^{At} u(0)$

$A^T = -A \Rightarrow e^{At}$ is orthogonal
which preserves the norm squared

⑥ $Q = e^{At}$

$$Q^T = \left[I + At + \frac{(At)^2}{2} + \dots \right]^T = I + A^T t + \frac{(A^T t)^2}{2} + \dots$$

$$= I - At + \frac{(-At)^2}{2} + \dots$$

$$= e^{-At}$$

$$I - At - \frac{(-At)^2}{2} + \dots$$

$$I - At$$

$$30 \rightarrow 30 - \frac{30}{2} + \dots$$

$$= 0$$

15. A particular solution to $\frac{du}{dt} = Au - b$ is $u_p = A^{-1}b$,

If A is invertible. The usual solutions to $\frac{du}{dt} = Au$ give u_n . Find the complete solution

$$u = u_p + u_n$$

② ~~$\frac{du}{dt} = Au - b$~~

Ans: $\frac{du}{dt} = Au - b \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{du}{dt} - Au = -b$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow Au = b$$

$$u = A^{-1}b$$

Particular solution: $u_p = A^{-1}b$

Nullspace solution is given by $\frac{du}{dt} - Au = 0$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = Au$$

③ $\frac{du}{dt} = u - 4$

Ans: $\frac{du}{dt} - u = -4$

$$u_p = 4$$

$u_n: \frac{du}{dt} = u \Rightarrow ce^t$

$$u(t) = ce^t + 4$$

(b)

LA(7)

Ans:

$$\textcircled{b} \quad \frac{du}{dt} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} u - \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

LA(7)

$$\text{Ans: } \frac{du}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow u_p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_n = \frac{du}{dt} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} u$$

$$\lambda = 1, 1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a + 0 = 0 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a_1 = 0 \\ a_2 = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

$$u_1(t) = e^t \alpha_1 = e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Assume, } u_2(t) = t e^t \alpha_1 + e^t \alpha_2$$

$$u'_2(t) = e^t \alpha_1 + t e^t \alpha_1 + e^t \alpha_2 = A(t e^t \alpha_1 + e^t \alpha_2)$$

$A\alpha_1 = \lambda_1 \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1 \text{ is an eigenvector of } A$

$$(A - I)\alpha_1 = 0$$

$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = A\alpha_2 \rightarrow (A - \lambda_1 I)\alpha_2 = \alpha_1$$

$$(A - I)^2 \alpha_2 = 0$$

$$(A - I)\alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(A - I)\alpha_2 = \alpha_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \underline{a \neq 1}$$

$$\alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans:

$$u_i(t) = k_1 e^t \alpha_1 + k_2 (t e^t \alpha_1 + e^t \alpha_2)$$

$$= k_1 e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + k_2 \left(t e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= k_1 e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + k_2 \left(e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ t \end{bmatrix} + e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= k_1 e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + k_2 e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ t \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u(t) = u_A(t) + u_p(t)$$

$$= k_1 e^t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + k_2 e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ t \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

16. If c is not an eigenvalue of A , substitute $u = e^{ct}v$ and find a particular solution to $\frac{du}{dt} = Au - e^{ct}b$. How does it break down when c is an eigenvalue of A ? The "nullspace" of $\frac{du}{dt} = Au$ contains the usual solutions $e^{\lambda_i t} \alpha_i$.

$$\text{Ans: } ce^{ct}v = Ae^{ct}v - e^{ct}b$$

$$(A - cI)v = b \quad (\text{or}) \quad v = (A - cI)^{-1}b$$

since c is not an eigenvalue.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du}{dt} - Au &= -e^{ct}b \\ \frac{du}{dt} &\Rightarrow Au = e^{ct}b \end{aligned}$$

If c is an eigenvalue, $(A - cI)$ is not invertible.

17. Find a matrix A to illustrate each of the
unstable regions. Fig 6.5.

82.

(a) $\lambda_1 < 0, \lambda_2 > 0$

(b) $\lambda_1 > 0, \lambda_2 > 0$

(c) $\lambda = a \pm ib$ with $a > 0$.

the

Q2. If $A^2 = A$, show that the infinite series produces
 $e^{At} = I + (e^t - 1)A$. , $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans- } e^{At} &= I + At + \frac{A^2 t^2}{2} + \frac{A^3 t^3}{6} + \dots \\ &= I + At + \frac{At^2}{2} + \frac{At^3}{6} + \dots \\ &= I + A \left[t + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^3}{6} + \dots \right] \\ &= I + A [e^t - 1] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} (e^t - 1) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 + e^t - 1 & 4(e^t - 1) \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^t & 4e^t - 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Q6 Give 2 reasons why the matrix exponential e^{At} is never singular:

(a) $(e^{At})^{-1} = e^{-At}$

(b) All the eigenvalues of e^{At} are non-zero.

$$e^{At} \alpha = \left[I + At + \frac{A^2 t^2}{2} + \dots \right] \alpha = \left(1 + \lambda t + \frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 t^2 + \dots \right) \alpha = e^{\lambda t} \alpha$$

$$e^{\lambda t} \neq 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{-\lambda t} & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & e^{-\lambda t} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} A + \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & -\lambda & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

27. Find a solution $x(t), y(t)$ that gets large as $t \rightarrow \infty$. To avoid this instability a scientist exchanged the 2 equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= 0x - 4y \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= -2x + 2y \end{aligned} \quad \iff \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dt} &= -2x + 2y \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= 0x - 4y \end{aligned}$$

Now the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ is stable, if it has -ve eigenvalues. How can this be?

Ans: $\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -4 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$

$$(2-\lambda)(-4) - 8 = \lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 8 = 0$$

$$(\lambda-4)(\lambda+2) = 0 \implies \lambda = -2 \text{ or } 4$$

$$\lambda_1 = -2: \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 : \begin{cases} 2a - 4b = 0 \\ a = 2b \end{cases} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\lambda_2 = 4: \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -4 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 : \begin{cases} a + b = 0 \\ a = -b \end{cases} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right.$$

unstable.

$$\text{Exchanged} \quad \frac{d}{dF} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(2-\lambda)(-\lambda) - 8 = 0$$

$$x^2 - 2x - 8 = 0 \Rightarrow (x-4)(x+2) = 0$$

$$\lambda = -214$$

It does have the same eigenvalues as the original matrix.

Aus 1

31. The cosine of a matrix is defined like e^A :

$$\cos t = \frac{e^t + e^{-t}}{2} = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} - \dots$$

$$\cos A = I - \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^4}{4!} - \dots$$

② If $A\alpha = \lambda\alpha$,

eigenvalues of $\cos A$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Ans: } (\cos A)\alpha &= \left(1 - \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^4}{4!} - \dots\right) \alpha \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2!} + \frac{\lambda^4}{4!} - \dots\right) \alpha = (\cos \lambda) \alpha\end{aligned}$$

③ Eigenvalues of $A = \begin{bmatrix} \pi & \pi \\ \pi & \pi \end{bmatrix}$ with eigenvectors

(1,1) and (1,-1).

Find the eigenvalues & eigenvectors of $\cos A$,
find that matrix $C = \cos A$.

Ans: $|A| \neq 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 2\pi$ for A

For $\cos A : \lambda_1 = \cos \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = \cos \lambda_2 = 1$

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

- ① 2nd derivative of $\cos(At)$ is $-A^2 \cos(At)$
 $u(t) = \cos(At) u(0)$ solves $\frac{d^2u}{dt^2} = -A^2 u$ starting
from $u'(0) = 0$

Ans:

$$\frac{d^2u}{dt^2} = -A^2 u$$

- ① Expand $u(0) = C_1 \alpha_1 + C_2 \alpha_2$ in the eigenvectors.
- ② Multiply each eigenvector α_i by $\cos(\lambda_i t)$
- ③ Add up the solution

$$\frac{d^2u}{dt^2} = -A^2 u : u(t) = C_1 \cos(\lambda_1 t) \alpha_1 + C_2 \cos(\lambda_2 t) \alpha_2$$

6.4

8. Find all orthogonal matrices that diagonalize

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 12 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $|S| = 144 - 144 = 0$

$$\lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 25$$

$$\begin{cases} 9a + 12b = 0 \Rightarrow 3a + 4b = 0 \\ 12a + 16b = 0 \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} 12a + 8b = 0 \\ \cancel{12a + 8b} \end{cases} \quad b = -\frac{3}{4}a$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad 5$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0, \alpha_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ -0.6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{--- } ①$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -16 & 12 \\ 12 & -9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 16a + 12b = 0 \\ 12a - 9b = 0 \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} 4a + 3b = 0 \\ 4a - 3b = 0 \end{cases} \quad a = 0, b \neq 0.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{4}{3} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad 5$$

$$\lambda_2 = 25, \alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \\ -0.6 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{(or)} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -0.8 & 0.6 \\ 0.6 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{4} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & -0.6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{(or)} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & -0.8 \\ 0.8 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

10. If $A^3 = 0$, then the eigenvalues of A must be ____.

Ex:- that has $A \neq 0$. But, if A is symmetric, diagonalize it to prove that A must be a zero matrix.

$$\text{Ans. } A^3 x = \lambda^3 x = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^3 = 0 \text{ since } x \neq 0$$

$$\therefore \text{all } \lambda = 0$$

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

If A is symmetric, $A^3 = Q \Lambda^3 Q^T = 0$ requires

$$\lambda^3 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 0$$

\therefore The only symmetric A is $Q \cdot 0 \cdot Q^T = 0$.

Ans:

12.

Ans:

11. If $\lambda = a+ib$ is an eigenvalue of a real matrix A then its conjugate $\bar{\lambda} = a-ib$ is also an eigenvalue. Explain why every real 3×3 matrix has at least one real eigenvalue.

Ans: $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow A\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{\mathbf{x}}$

for a 3×3 matrix,

$$\lambda + \bar{\lambda} = \text{real #}$$

$\text{tr}(A)$ is real, so λ_3 must be real.

12. False Proof - eigenvalues of every real matrix A are real

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} = \frac{\text{real}}{\text{real}}$$

test for 90° rotation matrix

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

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ with $\lambda = i$ and $\mathbf{x} = (1, i)$.

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : (-i)^2 + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 = -1 \Rightarrow |\lambda| = i$

$$\lambda = i : \begin{bmatrix} -i & -1 \\ 1 & -i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow -ia - b = 0 \quad \cancel{ia - b = 0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = -i : \begin{bmatrix} i & -1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow ia - b = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\alpha^T A \alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\alpha^T A \alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = i - i = 0$$

~~$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ -i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = -i + i = 0.$$~~

$$\lambda = \frac{\alpha^T A \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha} = \frac{0}{0} \text{ Not defined.}$$

14.

Ans:

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

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

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

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

13. Write S & B in the form $\lambda_1 \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \lambda_2 \alpha_2 \alpha_2^T$ of the spectral theorem $Q \Lambda Q^T$:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 12 & 16 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{keep } |\alpha_1| = |\alpha_2| = 1)$$

Ans: ② $(3-\lambda)^2 - 1 = 0$

$$(2-\lambda)(4-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 2 : \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a+b=0 : \alpha_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 4 : \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a-b=0 : \alpha_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{2} + 4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= 2 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} + 4 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

14. Every 2×2 symmetric matrix is $\lambda_1 \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \lambda_2 \alpha_2 \alpha_2^T = \lambda_1 P_1 + \lambda_2 P_2$. Explain $P_1 + P_2 = \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \alpha_2 \alpha_2^T = I$ from columns times rows of Q . Why is $P_1 P_2 = 0$?

Ans: $\alpha Q = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2]$

$$P_1 + P_2 = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1^T \\ \alpha_2^T \end{bmatrix} = \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \alpha_2 \alpha_2^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$P_1 P_2 = \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T \alpha_2 \alpha_2^T = \alpha_1 (\alpha_1^T \alpha_2) \alpha_2^T = 0.$$

(or)

$$P_1 P_2 = P_1 (I - P_1) = P_1 - P_1 = 0.$$

$$P_1^2 = P_1$$

16-

15. What are the eigenvalues of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \\ -b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$?

Create a 4×4 antisymmetric matrix ($A^T = -A$) & verify that all its eigenvalues are imaginary.

Ans:

$$\text{Ans: } (-\lambda)^2 + b^2 = \lambda^2 + b^2 = 0$$

$$|\lambda| = |b| \implies \lambda = \pm i b$$

$$\cancel{B_{4 \times 4}} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} A^T & C^T \\ B^T & D^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\cancel{B_{4 \times 4}^T} = -B \implies B = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & A \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{or}) \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A \\ A & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B^T = \begin{bmatrix} -A & 0 \\ 0 & -A \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\text{or}) \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -A \\ -A & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$16. M = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

can only have
eigenvalues

eigenvalues from $\text{tr}(M)$?

Ans: M is antisymmetric & also orthogonal.

$$M^T = -M$$

$$\begin{aligned} M^T &= M^{-1} \\ (M^T M &= I) \end{aligned}$$

λ is purely imaginary

$$|\lambda| = 1$$

$$\bar{\lambda} + \lambda = 0$$

$$\lambda = \pm i$$

$$\text{tr}(M) = 0$$

$$\lambda: i, -i, -i, -i$$

17. Show that this A (symmetric but complex) has only one line of eigenvectors:

$A = \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & -i \end{bmatrix}$ is not even diagonalizable;
 $\lambda = 0, 0$

* $A^T = A$ is not such a special property for complex matrices.

(Ans) The good property is $\bar{A}^T = A$, then all λ 's are real. & the eigenvectors are orthogonal.

(Ans) $A = \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & -i \end{bmatrix}, A^T = -A$

$$(i-\lambda)(-i-\lambda) - 1 = 0$$

$$(\lambda-i)(\lambda+i) = \lambda^2 + 1 = 1 \Rightarrow \underline{\lambda = 0, 0}.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & -i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} ia+b=0 \\ a-ib=0 \end{cases} : \underline{a = b}$$

only one independent eigenvector

18. Given if 'A' is rectangular, the block matrix

- $S = \begin{bmatrix} O & A \\ A^T & O \end{bmatrix}$ is symmetric:

$$S\alpha = \gamma\alpha \text{ is } \begin{bmatrix} O & A \\ A^T & O \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \gamma \begin{bmatrix} y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \text{ which is}$$

$$Az = \gamma y$$

$$A^T y = \gamma z$$

$$S^T = \begin{bmatrix} O & A \\ A^T & O \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} O & A \\ A^T & O \end{bmatrix} = S$$

(a) Show that $-\gamma$ is also an eigenvalue, with the eigenvector $(y, -z)$

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} O & A \\ A^T & O \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ -z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -Az \\ A^T y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\gamma y \\ \gamma z \end{bmatrix} = -\gamma \begin{bmatrix} y \\ -z \end{bmatrix}$

(b) Show that $A^T A z = \gamma^2 z$, so that γ^2 is an eigenvalue of $A^T A$

Ans: $A^T A z = A^T (\gamma y) = \gamma (A^T y) = \gamma \cdot \gamma z = \gamma^2 z$.

(c) If $A = I_{2n,2}$, find all 4 eigenvalues & eigenvectors of S

Ans: $S = \begin{bmatrix} O & I_{2n} \\ I_{2n} & O \end{bmatrix}$

Symmetric
 $\&$ orthogonal
 $|O| = 1$

1, 1, -1, -1

$$\lambda = 1 : \begin{bmatrix} -I & I \\ I & -I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$x = y \Rightarrow \alpha_1 = y_1 \text{ & } \alpha_2 = y_2$$

$$\begin{array}{c} -y_1 + y_2 = 0 \Rightarrow y_1 = y_2 \\ y_2 + y_1 = 0 \Rightarrow y_2 = -y_1 \end{array}$$

$$\alpha_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = -1 : \begin{bmatrix} I & I \\ I & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$x + y = 0 \Rightarrow y = -x$$

$$\alpha_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

20. Proof — Eigenvalues are \perp when $S = S^T$

Ans: Suppose,

$$Sx = \lambda x \quad \& \quad Sy = \beta y \quad \& \quad \beta \neq 0.$$

$x \perp y$ because $x \in C(A) = C(A^T)$ & $y \in N(A)$

since $S^T = S$ ~~$C(A^T) \perp N(A)$~~

If $Sx = \lambda x$ and $Sy = \beta y$, then left S by βI

$$(S - \beta I)x = (\lambda - \beta)x \quad \text{and} \quad (S - \beta I)y = 0$$

$$\therefore \underline{\underline{x \perp y}}$$

Q5. Which of these classes of matrices do A and B belong to: invertible, orthogonal, projection, permutation, diagonalizable, Markov?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, B = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which of these factorizations are possible for A & B:

$$LU, QR, X \Lambda X^{-1}, Q \Lambda Q^T ?$$

Ans: A: invertible, orthogonal, permutation,
diagonalizable, Markov
 $QR, X \Lambda X^{-1}, Q \Lambda Q^T$

B: projection, diagonalizable, Markov
 $X \Lambda X^{-1}, Q \Lambda Q^T$

- Q2 Find all 2×2 matrices that are orthogonal & also symmetric. Which 2 numbers can be eigenvalues of these 2 matrices?

Ans: orthogonal & symmetric

$$|\lambda| = 1$$

$$\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\lambda_i \text{ is real. for real sym matrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$$

$$\lambda_i \cdot \lambda_j = \begin{cases} 1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

$$S = Q \Lambda Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\theta & \sin 2\theta \\ \sin 2\theta & -\cos 2\theta \end{bmatrix} = \text{Ref } (\theta)$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} = -I$$

31. Normal matrices : $\bar{N}^T N = N \bar{N}^T$

For real matrices,

$$N^T N = N N^T$$

(@)

Ans:

Normal matrices : symmetric, skew-symmetric,
orthogonal

(with real λ , imaginary λ , $|\lambda|=1$)

* Normal matrices have n orthonormal eigenvectors.

These eigenvectors \bar{x}_i probably will have complex components. In the complex case, orthogonality means $\bar{x}_i^T x_j = 0$. Inner products $x_i^T y$ becomes $\bar{x}_i^T y$.

$$Q^T Q = I \longrightarrow \bar{Q}^T Q = I$$

ILA(8)

* N has n orthonormal eigenvectors ($N = Q \Lambda Q^T$)
iff N is normal.

Pooja

② Start from $N = Q \Lambda \bar{Q}^T$ with $\bar{Q}^T \bar{Q} = I$.

Show that $\bar{N}^T N = N \bar{N}^T$: N is normal.

Ans: $N = Q \Lambda \bar{Q}^T$

$$\bar{N}^T = \bar{Q} \bar{\Lambda}^T \bar{Q}^T$$

$$\begin{aligned} N \bar{N}^T &= Q \Lambda \bar{Q}^T Q \bar{\Lambda}^T \bar{Q}^T = Q \Lambda I \bar{\Lambda}^T \bar{Q}^T \\ &= \cancel{Q \bar{Q}^T} \cancel{Q} \Lambda \bar{\Lambda}^T \cancel{\bar{Q}^T} = Q \bar{\Lambda}^T \bar{Q}^T \\ &= Q \bar{\Lambda}^T \bar{Q}^T Q \Lambda \bar{Q}^T = \bar{N}^T N \end{aligned}$$

⑤

~~Schur's theorem~~

Schur's theorem

ILA(8) $A = Q T Q^T$ for every matrix A , with a triangular T .

For normal matrices $A = N$,

this triangular matrix T will be diagonal.

Then $T = \Lambda$

Proof $N = Q T \bar{Q}^T$

$$\bar{N}^T N = N \bar{N}^T \Rightarrow Q \bar{T}^T \bar{Q}^T Q \Lambda \bar{Q}^T = Q T \bar{Q}^T Q \bar{T}^T \bar{Q}^T$$

$$\bar{T}^T T = T \bar{T}^T$$

Let,

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{a} & 0 \\ b & \bar{d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \bar{a} & 0 \\ \bar{b} & \bar{d} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} |a|^2 & \bar{a}b \\ a\bar{b} & |b|^2 + |d|^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |a|^2 + |b|^2 & b\bar{a} \\ \bar{b}d & |d|^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|a|^2 = |\bar{a}|^2 + |b|^2 \implies |b|^2 = 0$$

$$\therefore b = 0$$

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \underline{T = \Lambda}$$

32. If λ_{\max} is the largest eigenvalue of a symmetric matrix S , no diagonal entry can be larger than λ_{\max} . What's the 1st entry a_{11} of $S = Q \Lambda Q^T$? Show why $a_{11} \leq \lambda_{\max}$.

Ans:

$$S = Q \Lambda Q^T = [q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} q_1^T \\ q_2^T \\ \vdots \\ q_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 q_1^T \\ \lambda_2 q_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n q_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1 q_1 q_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n q_n q_n^T$$

$a_{11} = \lambda_1 |q_{11}|^2$

$a_{11} = \cancel{\lambda_1} |q_{11}|^2 + \dots + \cancel{\lambda_n} |q_{1n}|^2$

$$a_{11} = \lambda_1 |q_{11}|^2 + \lambda_2 |q_{21}|^2 + \dots + \lambda_n |q_{n1}|^2 \leq \lambda_{\max} (|q_{11}|^2 + \dots + |q_{n1}|^2) \leq \lambda$$

33. If $A^T = -A$ Explain

① $\alpha^T A \alpha = 0$ for every real vector α

Ans: $\alpha^T A \alpha$ is a scalar.

$$\alpha^T (A\alpha) = (\alpha^T (A\alpha))^T = (A\alpha)^T \alpha = \alpha^T A^T \alpha = -\alpha^T (A\alpha)$$
$$\alpha^T (A\alpha) = 0 \implies \underline{\alpha^T A \alpha = 0}$$

② Eigenvalues of A are purely imaginary

Ans: $A\alpha = \lambda\alpha \implies \alpha^T A^T = \bar{\lambda} \alpha^T$

$$\alpha^T A \alpha = \lambda |\alpha|^2$$
$$\alpha^T A^T \alpha = -\bar{\lambda} |\alpha|^2$$
$$\frac{\alpha^T A \alpha = -\bar{\lambda} |\alpha|^2}{(\lambda + \bar{\lambda}) |\alpha|^2 = 0} \implies \bar{\lambda} = -\lambda$$

λ is purely imaginary

③ $\det(A)$ is +ve (or) 0, not -ve

Ans: $\det(A) = \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n = i a_1 b_1 \cdots \geq 0$

34. If S is symmetric & all its eigenvalues are $\lambda = 2$,
how do you know that $S = 2I$?

Ans: $S^T = S$ (S is symmetric)

$$S = Q \Lambda Q^T = 2Q I Q^T = 2Q Q^T = 2I.$$

~~$S = 0$~~

36. If S is symmetric, show that $A^T S A$ is also symmetric. Here, A is $m \times n$ and S is $m \times m$.

Are eigenvalues of

$$(A^T S A)^T = A^T S^T A = A^T S A$$

* If A is square & invertible, $\underline{A^T S A}$ is called congruent to S . They have the same # of +ve, -ve and zero eigenvalues: Law of Inertia.

Sylvester's law of Inertia.

37. Way to show that 'a' is in b/w the eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 of S:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}, \quad \det(S) =$$

$$\text{Now } \det(S - \lambda I) = (a - \lambda)(c - \lambda) - b^2 = \lambda^2 - \lambda(a+c) - b^2 + ac = 0$$

$$\text{Now } \det(S - \lambda I) \Big|_{\lambda=a} = a^2 - a^2 - ac - b^2 + ac < 0.$$

$$\overline{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}$$

$$y = \alpha^2.$$

6.5

4. What is the function $f = ax^2 + aby + cy^2$ for each of these matrices?

Complete the square to write each f as a sum of one or two squares $f = d_1(C)^2 + d_2(C)^2$.

$$S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, f = [x \ y] [S] \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ans: } x^T S_1 x = [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} x+2y \\ 2x+9y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= x^2 + 2xy + 2xy + 9y^2 = x^2 + 4xy + 9y^2$$

6. The function $f(x,y) = 2xy$ certainly has a saddle point and not a min. at $(0,0)$. What symmetric matrix S produces this f ? What are its eigenvalues?

Ans: $x^T S x = x^T \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} x = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = 2xy$

$$a=b=0 \quad \& \quad b \neq 0$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{has } \lambda = 1, -1$$

S is indefinite

8. The function $f(x,y) = 3(x+2y)^2 + 4y^2$ is +ve except at $(0,0)$. What is the matrix in $f = [x,y] S \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$? Check that the pivots of A are 3 & 4.

Ans: $f(x,y) = 3x^2 + 12xy + 16y^2 = [x,y] \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 6 & 16 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 6 & 16 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Pivots are: 3, 4

$$x^T S x = 3(x+2y)^2 + 4y^2$$

9. Find the 3×3 matrix S and its pivot, rank, eigenvalues & determinant.

$$[\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3] [S] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = 4(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 + 2\alpha_3)^2$$

Ans:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3 \\ d\alpha_1 + e\alpha_2 + f\alpha_3 \\ g\alpha_1 + h\alpha_2 + i\alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 9\alpha_1^2 + e\alpha_2^2 + i\alpha_3^2 + \alpha_1\alpha_2(b+d) + 2\alpha_2\alpha_3(f+h)$$

$$+ \alpha_3\alpha_1(c+g)$$

$$= 4(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + 16\alpha_3^2 - 8\alpha_1\alpha_2 + 16\alpha_1\alpha_3 - 16\alpha_2\alpha_3)$$

$$\Rightarrow a=4, e=4, i=16.$$

$$b=-4, d=8, f=-8$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -4 & 8 \\ -4 & 4 & -8 \\ 8 & -8 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

Only 1 pivot

$$\text{rank}(S)=1$$

$$\gamma = 24, 010$$

$$\det(S) = 0.$$

6. The function $f(x,y) = 2xy$ certainly has a saddle point and not a min. at $(0,0)$. What symmetric matrix S produces this f ? What are its eigenvalues?

Ans: $x^T S x = x^T \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} x = ax^2 + 2abxy + by^2 = 2xy$

$$a=b=0 \quad \& \quad b \neq 0$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{has } \lambda = 1, -1$$

S is indefinite

8. The function $f(x,y) = 3(x+2y)^2 + 4y^2$ is +ve except at $(0,0)$. What is the matrix in $f = [x,y] S [x,y]$? Check that the pivots of A are 3 & 4.

Ans: $f(x,y) = 3x^2 + 12xy + 16y^2 = [x,y] \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 6 & 16 \end{bmatrix} [x,y]$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 6 & 16 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Pivots are: 3, 4

$$x^T S x = 3(x+2y)^2 + 4y^2$$

9. Find the 3×3 matrix S and its pivot, rank, eigenvalues & determinant.

$$[\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3] [S] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = 4(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 + 2\alpha_3)$$

Ans:

$$[\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3] \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = [\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3] \begin{bmatrix} a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3 \\ d\alpha_1 + e\alpha_2 + f\alpha_3 \\ g\alpha_1 + h\alpha_2 + i\alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= a\alpha_1^2 + e\alpha_2^2 + i\alpha_3^2 + \alpha_1\alpha_2(b+d) + \alpha_2\alpha_3(f+g) + \alpha_3\alpha_1(c+h)$$

$$= 4(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + 16\alpha_3^2 - 8\alpha_1\alpha_2 + 16\alpha_1\alpha_3 - 16\alpha_2\alpha_3)$$

$$\Rightarrow a=4, e=4, i=16.$$

$$b=-4, d=8, f=-8$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -4 & 8 \\ -4 & 4 & -8 \\ 8 & -8 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

Only 1 pivot

$$\text{rank}(S) = 1$$

$$\text{det}(S) = 0.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -4 & 8 \\ -4 & 4 & -8 \\ 8 & -8 & 16 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Row reduction}} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 8 & -16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

11. Compute the 3 upper left determinants of S to establish the definiteness. Verify that their ratios give the 2nd & 3rd pivots.

Pivots = ratio of determinants

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $|S_1| = 2$, $|S_2| = 6$, $|S_3| = 30$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}}$$

Pivots: 2 , $\frac{6}{2} = 3$, $\frac{30}{12} = 5$

13. Find a matrix with ~~$a > 0$~~ and $c > 0$ and $a+c \geq 2b$ that has a -ve eigenvalue.

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & \frac{ac-b^2}{a} \end{bmatrix}$

$ac-b^2 < 0 \implies ac < b^2 \text{ & } a > 0, c > 0$

~~$a > 0$~~

$a+c > 2b$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$$

14. If S is pos definite then S^{-1} is pos definite

Ans: The eigenvalues of S^{-1} are pos because, because they are $\frac{1}{\lambda(S)}$.

(OR)

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^T S^{-1} \alpha &= (\alpha^T (S^{-1})^T S^{-1})^T \alpha \\ &= \alpha^T (S^{-1})^T S^{-1} S^{-1} \alpha \\ &= \alpha^T (S^{-1})^T S^{-1} \alpha \\ &= (\alpha^T S^{-1})^T S^{-1} \alpha > 0 \text{ for all } \alpha \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

15. If S and T are two definite, their sum $S+T$ is two definite.

Ans: $\alpha^T(S+T)\alpha = \alpha^T S \alpha + \alpha^T T \alpha > 0$ for all $\alpha \neq 0$

(Q2)

$$S = A^T A \text{ and } T = B^T B$$

Independent columns in A & B .

$$\begin{aligned} S+T &= A^T A + B^T B = \begin{bmatrix} A^T & B^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

17. All diagonal entry s_{jj} of a symmetric matrix can't be smaller than all the λ 's.

Ans: If a_{jj} were smaller than all λ 's,

$S - a_{jj} I$ would have all eigenvalues > 0
 \rightarrow two definite.

But, $S = Q \Lambda Q^T$ has a 0 in the (j,j) position.

19. If all $\lambda > 0$ then $\alpha^T S \alpha > 0$

must be true for all $\alpha \neq 0$.

$$\text{Ans: } S = Q \Lambda Q^T = [\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda_1 \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n \alpha_n \alpha_n^T$$

$$\alpha^T S \alpha = (c_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + c_n \alpha_n)^T (\lambda_1 \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n \alpha_n \alpha_n^T) \times (c_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + c_n \alpha_n)$$

$$= (\underbrace{\lambda_1 \alpha_1^T \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T + \dots + \lambda_n \alpha_n^T \alpha_n \alpha_n^T}_{\alpha_i \alpha_j = 0}) (c_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + c_n \alpha_n)$$

$$= c_1^2 \alpha_1 \alpha_1^T \alpha_1 + \dots + c_n^2 \alpha_n \alpha_n^T \alpha_n > 0$$

+ve eigenvalues \Rightarrow +ve energy

$$\lambda > 0$$

$$\alpha^T S \alpha > 0$$

Q1. For which s & t do S and T have all real eigenvalues? (i.e. positive definite). ?

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} s & -4 & -4 \\ -4 & s & -4 \\ -4 & -4 & s \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} t & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & t & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & t \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $S = \begin{bmatrix} s+4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s+4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s+4 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans
④

$$= (s+4)I - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} (s+4)$$

$$= (s+4)I - \boxed{(1-1)(1-1)(1-1)}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & & \\ & 4 & \\ & & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A =$ 6

$\Rightarrow S, T$ are similar \Leftrightarrow eigenvalues are same

Diagonalizable \Leftrightarrow columns are linearly independent

Q2. From $S = Q \Lambda Q^T$, compute the definite symmetric square root $Q \sqrt{\Lambda} Q^T$ of each matrix.
Check that this square root gives $A^T A = S$:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad S = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 6 \\ 6 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans. $(5-\lambda)^2 - 18 = 0 \quad \text{(cancel } (5-\lambda) \text{)} \Rightarrow \lambda = 1, 9$

$$\lambda = -11 \quad (\text{cancel } 2)$$

$$\Rightarrow (1-\lambda)(9-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda = 1 \quad (0)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 4 \\ 4 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

$$a+b=0 \quad n_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= Q \sqrt{\Lambda} Q^T = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

23. You may have seen the equation for an ellipse as $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$. What are a & b when the equation is written $\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 y^2 = 1$? The ellipse $\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 y^2 = 1$ has axes with half lengths $a = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ and $b = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

Aus: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = x^T S x$ when $S = \text{diag}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda_1}, \frac{1}{\lambda_2}\right)$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{a^2}, \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{b^2} \Rightarrow a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}}, b = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_2}}$$

24. Draw the tilted ellipse $x^2 + xy + y^2 = 1$ & find
 • the half lengths of its axes from the eigenvalues
 of the corresp. matrix S .

Aus: $4Ae = 4 \times 1 = B^2$: ellipse

$$ax^2 + 2bxy + by^2 = 1$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (\lambda - 1)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2} : \begin{bmatrix} y_2 & y_2 \\ y_2 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a+b=0$$

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = \frac{3}{2} : \begin{bmatrix} -y_2 & y_2 \\ y_2 & -y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow a=b$$

$$x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x}^T \vec{x} = [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_2 & 0 \\ 0 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x+y}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{x-y}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{x-y}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_2 & 0 \\ 0 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x+y}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{x-y}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{x+y}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-y}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 = 1$$

Oves with half lengths $\sqrt{2}$ & $\sqrt{2}/3$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = ?$$

Q25. With five pivots in D , the factorization

• $S = LDL^T$ becomes $S = L \sqrt{D} \sqrt{D} L^T$.

Thus $C = \sqrt{D} L^T$ yields the Cholesky factorization $A = C C^T$ which is "symmetrized".
LU:

① From $C = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, find S

Ans:

Ans: $S = C^T C = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

② From $S = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 8 \\ 8 & 25 \end{bmatrix}$ find C

27. T

Ans: $S = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 8 \\ 8 & 25 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L \sqrt{D} \sqrt{S} L^T$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans:

Q28

26 In the Cholesky factorization $S = C^T C$, with $C = \sqrt{D} L^T$, the square roots of the pivots are on the diagonal of C . Find C for:

$$@ \quad S = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Ans: } S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L D L^T$$

$$= (\sqrt{9})(\sqrt{8}) = (\sqrt{9})(\sqrt{8})$$

$$C = (L \sqrt{D})^T = \sqrt{D} L^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{8} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{8} \end{bmatrix}$$

27. The symmetric factorization $S = LDL^T$ means that

$$\alpha^T S \alpha = \alpha^T LDL^T \alpha$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ b/a & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{ac-b^2}{a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b/a \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha + \frac{b}{a}\gamma & \gamma \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{ac-b^2}{a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha + \frac{b}{a}\gamma \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \left(\alpha + \frac{b}{a}\gamma \right) & \gamma \left(\frac{ac-b^2}{a} \right) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha + \frac{b}{a}\gamma \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a\alpha^2 + ab\gamma\alpha + b\gamma^2 = \left\{ \alpha \left(\alpha + \frac{b}{a}\gamma \right)^2 + \left(\frac{ac-b^2}{a} \right) \gamma^2 \right\}$$

29. For $F_1(x,y) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + x^2y + y^2$ and $F_2(x,y) = x^3 + xy - x$
 find the 2nd derivative matrices S_1 & S_2 .

Test for min: $S = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial y^2} \end{bmatrix}$ is ~~two~~ definite.

Find a min. point of F_1 .

Find the saddle point of F_2 .

Ans:

$$\textcircled{a} \quad S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{b} \quad S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 6x & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} &= 3x^2 + y - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow y = 1 - 3x^2 \\ \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial y} &= x = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{is indefinite at } (0,1)$$

(0,1) is a saddle point of the function $F_2(x,y)$.

30. The graph of $z = x^2 + y^2$ is a bowl opening upward. The graph of $z = x^2 - y^2$ is a saddle. The graph of $z = -x^2 - y^2$ is a bowl opening downward. What is a test on a, b, c for $z = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ to have a saddle point at $(x, y) = (0, 0)$?

Ans: $f(x, y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2a & 2b \\ 2b & 2c \end{bmatrix} =$$

$f(x, y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ has a saddle point if $ac - b^2 < 0 \rightarrow ac < 0$ ($IS < 0$)

31. Which value of 'c' give a bowl & which c give a saddle point for the graph of $z = 4x^2 + 12xy + cy^2$? Describe this graph at the borderline value of c.

The min. of a function $F(x, y, z)$

What tests you expect for a min. point?

1st derivatives are zero : $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = 0$ at the min. point

2nd derivative matrix S :
matrix is ~~not~~ definite

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} F_{xx} & F_{xy} & F_{xz} \\ F_{yx} & F_{yy} & F_{yz} \\ F_{zx} & F_{zy} & F_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

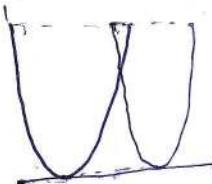
$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 12 \\ 12 & 2c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|S| = 16c - 144 = 8(2c - 18) = 16(c - 9)$$



$c - 9 > 0 \Rightarrow c > 9$: graph of z is a bowl
 $c - 9 < 0 \Rightarrow c < 9$: is a saddle point

$c - 9 = 0 \Rightarrow c = 9$: graph of $z = (2x+3y)^2$ is a trough staying at 0 along the line $2x+3y=0$.



32. A group of non-singular matrices include AB & A^{-1} if it includes A and B . "Products and inverses stay in the group". Which of these are groups?

Invent a subgroup of two of these groups

- (a) $\text{ave definite symmetric matrices } S$
- (b) Orthogonal matrices O
- (c) All exponentials e^{tA} of a fixed matrix A
- (d) Matrices P with the eigenvalue
- (e) Matrices D with determinant 1.

Ans: Orthogonal matrices, exponentials e^{At} , matrices with $\det = 1$ are groups.

Examples of subgroups: orthogonal matrices with $\det = 1$, exponentials e^{An} for integer n .

Another subgroup: lower triangular elimination matrices E with diagonal 1's.

33.

When S & T are symmetric and definite,
 ST might not even be symmetric. But its
eigenvalues are still +ve. ~~Start~~

Then $\lambda > 0$

Ans:

$$ST\alpha = \lambda\alpha$$

$$(T\alpha)^T S(T\alpha) = (T\alpha)^T \lambda \alpha \cancel{> 0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\alpha^T T^T S T \alpha}{\alpha^T T \alpha} = \frac{(T\alpha)^T S(T\alpha) > 0}{\alpha^T T \alpha > 0} > 0$$

36.

(c)

Ans:

35. Suppose, C is the definite ($y^T C y > 0$ whenever $y \neq 0$) and A has independent columns ($A\alpha = 0 \text{ iff } \alpha = 0$)

Apply the energy test to $\alpha^T A^T C A \alpha$ to show that $S = A^T C A$ is the definite

$$\text{Ans: } \alpha^T (A^T C A) \alpha = (A\alpha)^T C (A\alpha) > 0 \text{ for } A\alpha \neq 0$$

$$\alpha^T (A^T C A) \alpha = 0 \text{ only when } A\alpha = 0. \\ \text{i.e., } \alpha = 0$$

(d)

Ans:

36. Suppose S is the definite with eigenvalues
 $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$:

① Is $\lambda_1 I - S$ the definite

Ans: $\lambda = 0, \lambda_1 - \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_1 - \lambda_n$

$(\lambda_1 I - S)$ is semidefinite

② How does it follow that $\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{x}^T S \mathbf{x}$ for every \mathbf{x} ?

Ans: $\mathbf{x}^T (\lambda_1 I - S) \mathbf{x} \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$

$$\underline{\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{x}^T S \mathbf{x}}$$

③ The max. value of $\frac{\mathbf{x}^T S \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$ is _____

Ans: $\frac{\mathbf{x}^T S \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} \leq \lambda_1$

7

THE SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

- * The singular value theorem for A is the eigenvalue theorem for $A^T A$ and $A A^T$.
- * A is often rectangular, but $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ are square, symmetric, and are definite.
- * The SVD separates any matrix into simple pieces:
Each piece is a column vector times a row vector.

An $m \times n$ matrix has $m n$ entries (big # when the matrix represents an image)
But a column & a row only have $(m+n)$ components (far less than $m n$)

Think of an image as a large rectangular matrix. The entries a_{ij} tell the grayscales of all the pixels in the image. Think of a pixel as a small square

Its grayscale is a # (often a whole # in the range $0 \leq a_{ij} < 256 = 2^8$)

An all white pixel has $a_{ij} = 255 = 1111111$

An image that has mn pixels, with each pixel using 8 bits (0 or 1) for its grayscale, becomes an $m \times n$ matrix with 256 possible values for each entry a_{ij} .
i.e., an image is a large matrix. To copy it perfectly, we need $8mn$ bits of information.

HD tv typically has $m = 1080$ and $n = 1920$.

Often there are 24 frames per second, and you probably like to watch in color (3 color scales). This requires transmitting $3 \times 8 \times 48 \times 470400$ bits per second. That is too expensive & it is not done. The transmitter can't keep up with the show.

When compression is well done, you can't see the difference from the original. Edges in the image (sudden changes in the grayscale) are the hard parts to compress. Major success in compression will be impossible if every a_{ij} is an independent random #. We totally depend on the fact that nearby pixels generally have similar grayscales.

For a video, the #'s a_{ij} don't change much b/w frames. We only transmit the small changes.

Loco Rank Images (Examples)

Easiest images to compress are all black or all white or all a constant grayscale g.

The matrix A has the same # g in every entry: $a_{ij} = g$

Ex:1

When $g=1$ and $m=n=6$,

Don't send

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

Send

Send

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

French flag A

Ex: a Italian flag A

German flag A^T

Don't send: A =

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & a & c & c & e & e \\ a & a & c & c & e & e \\ a & a & c & c & e & e \\ a & a & c & c & e & e \\ a & a & c & c & e & e \\ a & a & c & c & e & e \end{bmatrix}$$

Send:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & a & c & c & e & e \end{bmatrix}$$

This flag has 3 colors, but it still has rank 1.

Ex:3 Embedded square

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

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

$u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is not orthogonal to $u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is not orthogonal to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Theory \Rightarrow Orthogonality will produce a smaller 2nd piece

$$c_2 u_2 v_2^T$$

□ Eigenvectors for the SVD

Eigenvectors of most images are not orthogonal.

The eigenvectors α_1, α_2 give only one set of vectors and we want 2 sets (u's and v's).

SVD : Use the eigenvectors u of AA^T and the eigenvectors v of A^TA .

$$\begin{array}{l} u \in C(A) \\ v \in C(A^T) \end{array}$$

AA^T and A^TA are symmetric — the u's will be one orthogonal set and the eigenvectors v will be another orthogonal set.

$$|u_i|=1 \quad \& \quad |v_i|=1$$

Our rank 2 matrix will be,

$$A = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T$$

The size of those numbers σ_1 and σ_2 will decide whether they can be ignored in compression.

We keep larger σ 's, we discard small σ 's.

The u_i 's from the SVD are called left singular vectors (unit eigenvectors of AA^T). The v_i 's are right singular vectors (unit eigenvectors of A^TA).

The σ_i 's are singular values, square roots of the equal eigenvalues of AA^T and A^TA :

Choices from the SVD : $AA^Tu_i = \sigma_i^2 u_i$, $A^TAv_i = \sigma_i^2 v_i$

$$Av_i = \sigma_i u_i$$

* AA^T & A^TA have the same eigenvalues.

~~Distinct eigenvalues~~ * A^TA & AA^T are ^(semi) definite [unless A has independent columns]

* $\sigma_i > 0$ is purely conventional.

If $\sigma_i > 0$, then there is a unique way to write
 $A = U\Sigma V^T$.

* rank (AA^T) = rank (A^TA) = rank (A) .

* AA^T & A^TA are symmetric, eigenvectors corresp. to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

$$u_i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_i \end{bmatrix}$$

In Example 3 (the embedded square)

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

$$AA^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$(2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) - 1 = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2} \quad ; \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1} = \sqrt{\frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{6+2\sqrt{5}}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{(\sqrt{5})^2 + 2\sqrt{5} + 1}{4}}, \quad \sigma_2 = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{2}$$

The nearest rank 1 matrix to A will be $\sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T$.

The error is only $\sigma_2 \approx 0.6$ = best possible.

The orthonormal eigenvectors of AA^T and $A^T A$ are,

$$u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sigma_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\sigma_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ all divided by } \sqrt{1+\sigma_1^2}$$

$$A = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \end{bmatrix}$$

(OR)

$$A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 u_1 & \sigma_2 u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- * The key point is not that images tend to have low rank. **No!**

Images mostly have full rank. But they do have low effective rank.

i.e.,

Many singular values are small and can be set to zero.

→ We transmit a low rank approximation.

Ex:4 Suppose the flag has 2 triangles of different colors.



Image matrix when $n=4$, it has full rank $r=4$
so it is invertible:

Triangular
flag matrix:

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

With full rank, A has a full set of 'n' singular values σ (all +ve). The SVD will produce n pieces $\sigma_i U_i V_i^T$ of rank 1. Perfect production needs all n pieces.

In compression small σ 's can be discarded with no serious loss in image quality.

We want to understand and plot the σ 's for $n=4$ and also for large n .

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

$$(AA')^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T (A^{-1}) =$$

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

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

□ Bases & Matrices in the SVD

$A_{m \times n}$ is square or rectangular, with rank r .

We'll diagonalize this A , but not by $X^{-1}AX$.

→ 1 the eigenvectors in
 X have 3 big problems

- they are usually not orthogonal
- there are not always enough eigenvectors
- $Ax = \lambda x$ requires A to be a square matrix.

The singular vectors of A solve all these problems in a perfect way.

$u_i \in \mathbb{R}^n : C(A)$

$v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n : C(A^T)$

The u 's and v 's give bases for the 4 fundamental subspaces:

u_1, \dots, u_r : orthonormal basis for $C(A)$

u_{r+1}, \dots, u_m : orthogonal basis for $N(A^T)$

v_1, \dots, v_r : " $C(A^T)$

v_{r+1}, \dots, v_n : " $N(A)$

- * More than just orthogonality, these basis vectors diagonalize the matrix A .

$'A'$ is
diagonalized: $Av_1 = \sigma_1 u_1 ; Av_2 = \sigma_2 u_2 ; \dots ; Av_r = \sigma_r u_r$

• The singular values, $\sigma_i > 0$.

σ_i : is the length of $A v_i = \sqrt{A^T A}$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix} A$$

$$AV_r = U_r \sum_r$$

(m×n) (n×r) (m×r) (r×r)

$$A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}$$



Reduced SVD

* Those v 's and u 's account for the row space & column space of A . We have $n-r$ more v 's and $m-r$ more u 's, from the $N(A)$ and $N(A^T)$. They are automatically orthogonal to the 1st v 's and u 's ($N(A) \perp C(A^T)$)

$$A \underset{(m \times n)}{\sim} V = U \sum_{(m \times m)} \underset{(m \times n)}{\sim}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_r & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_r & \dots & u_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_r & & \\ & & & & \sigma_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Full SVD with nullspaces included,

- * Both full & reduced SVD split up A into the

- 3 stages were we replace A by $V \sigma U^T$
- (a) A has rank r , so all the σ_i diag entries are non-zero.
- (b) A has rank r , so V has rank r .
- (c) A has rank r , so U has rank r .

- When we put the singular values in the descending order, $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0$,
the splitting in the eq. (SVD) gives the r -rank-one pieces of A in order of importance.

$$V \cdot U = X$$

$\boxed{\text{SVD} : A = U \Sigma V^T}$

$$= U_1 \sigma_1 V_1^T + \dots + U_r \sigma_r V_r^T$$

* For any orthogonal matrices Q_1 and Q_2 ,

$Q_1 A Q_2^T$ has the same σ 's as A .

$$\cancel{+ \Sigma U = Q A Q^T = X A X^T}$$

Ex:1

When $A = U\Sigma V^T$ (singular values) the same
as $X\Lambda X^{-1}$ (eigenvalues) ?

Ques: 'A' needs orthonormal eigenvectors, to allow
 $X = U = V$

'A' also needs eigenvalues $\lambda \geq 0$ if $\Lambda = \Sigma$

\Rightarrow 'A' must be a +ve definite symmetric matrix.

Only then,

$$A = X\Lambda X^{-1} = Q\Lambda Q^T = U\Sigma V^T$$

Ex. 3. If $A = xy^T$ (rank 1) with unit vectors x & y
what's the SVD of A ?

Ans:

Proof - SVD.

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

$\Sigma^T \Sigma$: eigenvalue matrix of $A^T A$: Each σ^2 is $\lambda(A^T A)$

V : eigenvector matrix for the symmetric
+ve (semi) definite matrix $A^T A$

Now, $A v_i = \sigma_i u_i$ tells us the unit vectors u_1 to u_s .

The whole reason that the SVD succeeds is that those unit vectors u_1 to u_s are automatically orthogonal to each other (because v 's are orthogonal):

$$i \neq j : u_i^T u_j = \left(\frac{A v_i}{\sigma_i} \right)^T \left(\frac{A v_j}{\sigma_j} \right) = \frac{v_i^T A^T A v_j}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} = \frac{\sigma_j^2}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} v_i^T v_j = 0$$

The v 's are eigenvectors of $A^T A$ (symmetric). They are orthogonal & now the u 's are also orthogonal.
Actually those u 's will be eigenvectors of AA^T .

Example of SVD

Find the matrices U, Σ, V for $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

The rank is $r=2$

Ans: A has the singular values σ_1 & σ_2 .

We'll see that σ_1 is larger than $\lambda_{\max} = 5$ and σ_2 is smaller than $\lambda_{\min} = 3$.

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 20 \\ 20 & 25 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 12 \\ 12 & 41 \end{bmatrix}$$

Same eigenvalues $\sigma_1^2 = 45$ & $\sigma_2^2 = 5$

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{45} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_2 = \sqrt{5} \\ = 3\sqrt{5}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \sigma_1 \sigma_2 = 3\sqrt{5} = 15 \\ = |A| \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 20 \\ 20 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 45 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 20 \\ 20 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{Right singular vectors}}$ $v_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\xrightarrow{\text{Left singular vectors:}}$ $A v_1 = \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \sqrt{45} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_1 u_1$

$$u_1 := \frac{A v_1}{\sigma_1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \sqrt{5} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_2 u_2$$

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{45} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}, V = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_1 U_1 V_1^T + \sigma_2 U_2 V_2^T = \frac{\sqrt{45}}{\sqrt{20}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\sqrt{20}} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -3 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = A$$

□ An Extreme matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\lambda: 0, 0, 0, 0$
only one
eigenvector: $(1, 0, 0, 0)$

singular values, $\sigma = 3, 2, 1$

singular vectors are columns of I

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, AA^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & & & \\ & 2 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}, V = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = 3U_1 V_1^T + 2U_2 V_2^T + 1U_3 V_3^T$$

Removing the zero row of A (now 3×4) just removes the last row of Σ & also the last row & columns of U .

$$\text{Then. } A(3 \times 4) = U \Sigma V^T$$

$(3 \times 3)(3 \times 4)(4 \times 4)$

\Rightarrow SVD is totally adapted to rectangular matrices.

- * If we have the grades for all courses, there would be a column for each student and a row for each course: The entry a_{ij} could be a grade. Then,

$\sigma_i u_i v_i^T$ could have u_i = combination course &

v_i = combination student.

And σ_i could be the grade for these combinations: the highest grade.

- * The matrix A could count the frequency of key words in a journal: A different article for each column of A and a different word for each row. The whole journal is indexed by the matrix A and the most important information is in $\sigma_i u_i v_i^T$. Then σ_i is the largest frequency for a hyperword (the word combination u_i) in the hyperarticle v_i .

□ Singular Value Stability v/s Eigenvalue Stability

Instability of eigenvalues

$$a_{4,1} : 0 \longrightarrow \frac{1}{60,000}$$

New rank = 4

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Change by $\frac{1}{60,000}$

produces a much bigger jump in the eigenvalues of A .

$$\lambda = 0, 0, 0, 0 \longrightarrow \lambda = \frac{1}{10}, \frac{i}{10}, \frac{-1}{10}, \frac{-i}{10}$$

The 4 eigenvalues moved from 0 onto a circle around zero, of radius $\frac{1}{10}$. When the new entry is only $\frac{1}{60,000}$. This shows serious instability of eigenvalues when AA^T is far from A^TA .

If $A^T A = A A^T$ (a normal matrix), the eigenvectors of A are orthogonal & the eigenvalues of A are totally stable.

By contrast,

the singular values of any matrix are stable.
They don't change more than they change in A .

New singular
values are : $3, 2, 1, \frac{1}{60,000}$

The matrices U and V stay the same.

The new 4th piece of A is $\sigma_4 U_4 V_4^T$ with

$$\sigma_4 = \frac{1}{60,000}$$

□ Singular Vectors of A & Eigenvectors of $S = A^T A$

The singular vectors v_i are the eigenvectors q_i of $S = A^T A$.
 The eigenvalues λ_i of S are the same as σ_i^2 for A . The rank of $S = \text{rank of } A$.

on (23)

$\rightarrow \text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(AA^T) = \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$

The expansion in eigenvectors & singular vectors are perfectly parallel.

Symmetric S : $S = Q \Lambda Q^T = \lambda_1 q_1 q_1^T + \lambda_2 q_2 q_2^T + \dots + \lambda_r q_r q_r^T$

Any matrix A : $A = U \sum V^T = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T + \dots + \sigma_r u_r v_r^T$

The q 's are orthonormal, the u 's are orthonormal, the v 's are orthonormal. Beautiful.

Look Again

To fix a weak point in the eigenvalue part, where Ch. 6, was not complete.
 If λ is a double eigenvalue of S , we can and must find 2 orthonormal eigenvectors.

To see how the SVD picks off the largest term $\sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T$ before $\sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T$. We want to understand the eigenvalues λ of S and the singular values σ (of A) one at a time instead of all at once.

Largest eigenvalue λ_1 of S

$$\lambda_1 = \text{max. ratio } \frac{\alpha^T S \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha}.$$

The winning vector is $\alpha = q_1$, with $Sq_1 = \lambda_1 q_1$.

Largest singular value σ_1 of A

$$A^T A v_i = \sigma_i^2 v_i$$

$$A v_i = \sigma_i u_i$$

$$\sigma_1 = \text{max. ratio } \frac{\|A\alpha\|}{\|\alpha\|}.$$

The winning vector is $\alpha = v_1$, with $Av_1 = \sigma_1 u_1$.

$$\lambda_2 = \text{max. ratio } \frac{\alpha^T S \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha} \text{ among all } \alpha's \text{ with } q_1^T \alpha = 0.$$

$\alpha = q_2$ will win

$$\sigma_2 = \text{max. ratio } \frac{\|A\alpha\|}{\|\alpha\|} \text{ among all } \alpha's \text{ with } v_1^T \alpha = 0$$

$\alpha = v_2$ will win

When $S = A^T A$ we find $\lambda_1 = \sigma_1^2$ and $\lambda_2 = \sigma_2^2$,

Why does this approach succeed?

Start with the ratio, $\sigma(\alpha) = \frac{\alpha^T S \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha}$

This is called the Rayleigh quotient

Maximize $\sigma(\alpha)$

① Multivariable calculus approach

The Rayleigh quotient is scaling invariant

$$\sigma(t\alpha) = \frac{(t\alpha)^T S (t\alpha)}{(t\alpha)^T (t\alpha)} = \frac{t^2 \alpha^T S \alpha}{t^2 \alpha^T \alpha} = \frac{\alpha^T S \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha} = \sigma(\alpha)$$

∴ It is sufficient to study the special case

$$|\alpha|^2 = \alpha^T \alpha = 1$$

The problem is then to find the critical points of the function, $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha^T S \alpha$

subject~~s~~ to the constraint $|\alpha|^2 = \alpha^T \alpha = 1$.

i.e., It is to find the critical points of the Lagrangian function

$$L(\alpha, \lambda) = \alpha^T S \alpha - \lambda (\alpha^T \alpha - 1)$$

where,

λ : Lagrange Multipliers.

We need to find the partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha} = \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha_n} \right)^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha_n} \end{bmatrix}, \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda}$$

and set them equal to zero, in order to find its critical points.

We need to know how to differentiate functions like $\alpha^T A \alpha$, $\alpha^T \alpha = |\alpha|^2$ w.r.t the vector valued variable α .

For any fixed symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,
 fixed rectangular matrix $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and
 fixed vector $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} (\alpha^\top \alpha) = \alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} |\alpha|^2 = 2\alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} (\alpha^\top A \alpha) = A \alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} |B\alpha|^2 = 2B^\top B \alpha$$

Proof

For each $1 \leq k \leq n$:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} (\alpha^\top \alpha) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} \left(\sum \alpha_i \alpha_i \right) = \alpha_k$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} (\alpha^\top \alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} (\alpha^\top \alpha) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} (\alpha^\top \alpha) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_n} (\alpha^\top \alpha) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_k \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} (\|\alpha\|^2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} \left(\sum \alpha_i^2 \right) = 2\alpha_k$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} (\alpha^\top A \alpha) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} \left[\left(\sum_i \alpha_i a_{ij} \right) \alpha \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} \left[\sum_j \left(\sum_i \alpha_i a_{ij} \right)_j \alpha_j \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} \left[\sum_i \sum_j a_{ij} \alpha_i \alpha_j \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_k} \left[\sum_{\substack{j \neq k \\ j=k}} a_{kj} \alpha_k \alpha_j + \sum_{\substack{i \neq k \\ j=k}} a_{ik} \alpha_i \alpha_k + a_{kk} \alpha_k^2 \right]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq k} a_{kj} \alpha_j + \sum_{i \neq k} a_{ik} \alpha_i + 2a_{kk} \alpha_k$$

$$= \sum_j a_{kj} \alpha_j + \sum_i a_{ik} \alpha_i$$

$$= (A\alpha)_{(k,-)} + (\alpha^\top A)_{(-,k)}$$

$(k^{\text{th}} \text{ row of } A\alpha)$ (k^{th} column of $\alpha^\top A$)

$(k^{\text{th}} \text{ row of } A\alpha)$ since $A^\top = A$

$$= (2A\alpha)_{(k,-)}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} (\alpha^T A \alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} (\alpha^T A \alpha) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_n} (\alpha^T A \alpha) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2A\alpha_{(1,-)} \\ \vdots \\ 2A\alpha_{(n,-)} \end{bmatrix} = 2A\alpha$$

$$|B\alpha|^2 = (B\alpha)^T (B\alpha) = \alpha^T (B^T B) \alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} (|B\alpha|^2) = 2B^T B \alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} (\alpha^T S \alpha) - \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} |\alpha|^2$$

$$= 2S\alpha - \lambda(2\alpha) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow S\alpha = \lambda\alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = |\alpha|^2 - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow |\alpha|^2 = 1$$

$\therefore \alpha, \lambda$ must be an eigenpair of A .

i.e., the eigenvectors $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are the critical points of the Rayleigh quotient, $r(\alpha)$.

$$r(\alpha_i) = \alpha_i^T S \alpha_i = \alpha_i^T \lambda \alpha_i = \lambda_i |\alpha_i|^2 = \lambda_i$$

$\therefore r_{\max}$ when $\alpha_i = \alpha_1$,

The max. ratio $r(\alpha)$ is the largest eigenvalue λ_1 of S .

$$S = A^T A$$



Maximizing $\frac{\|A\alpha\|}{\|\alpha\|}$ also maximizes $\frac{(\|A\alpha\|)^2}{\|\alpha\|^2} = \frac{\alpha^T A^T A \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha}$

$$= \frac{\alpha^T S \alpha}{\alpha^T \alpha}$$

So the winning $\alpha = v_1$ is the same as the top eigenvector q_1 of $S = A^T A$.

(2) S is positive semi-definite \rightarrow eigenvectors form an orthonormal basis $\{\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \dots, \hat{e}_n\}$ such that $e_i^T e_j = \delta_{ij}$

(QC II.2)
Solve
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where, $A \hat{e}_i = \lambda_i \hat{e}_i$ with $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all i

such that $A = \sum_i \lambda_i \hat{e}_i \hat{e}_i^T$

A general unit vector x can be written as a linear combination of the eigenvector basis, $x = \sum_i c_i \hat{e}_i$ such that $\|x\|^2 = \sum_i |c_i|^2 = 1$.

We have,

$$\begin{aligned} x^T S x &= (\sum_i c_i^* \hat{e}_i^T) (\sum_j \lambda_j \hat{e}_j \hat{e}_j^T) (\sum_k c_k \hat{e}_k) \\ &= (\sum_i c_i^* \hat{e}_i^T) (\sum_{j,k} \lambda_j c_k \hat{e}_j (\hat{e}_j^T \hat{e}_k)) \\ &= (\sum_i c_i^* \hat{e}_i^T) (\sum_j \lambda_j c_j e_j) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} c_i^* c_j \lambda_j \hat{e}_i^T e_j \\ &= \sum_i |c_i|^2 \lambda_i \end{aligned}$$

$\max_{x^T x} x^T S x$ is the maximum value of
 $\sum_i |c_i|^2 \lambda_i$ subject to the constraint $\sum_i |c_i|^2 = 1$.

Numbering the λ_i 's and c_i so that λ_1 is the maximum value of $\sum_i |c_i|^2 \lambda_i$ is achieved when $c_1=1$ and $c_2=\dots=c_n=0$. The maximum value achieved is λ_1 .

$$\max_{x^T x} x^T S x = \lambda_{\max}$$