

Practice Problems: Mathematical Foundations for Machine Learning

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1 Solution of Linear Systems and Vector Spaces

Question 1 (Easy). *Solve the following system of linear equations:*

$$\begin{aligned}x + 2y - z &= 3 \\2x + y + z &= 6 \\x - y + 2z &= 3\end{aligned}$$

Solution. We write this system as an augmented matrix and use Gaussian elimination to reduce it to row echelon form.

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow -\frac{1}{3}R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 3R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

The system is now in row echelon form. The matrix corresponds to the equations:

$$\begin{aligned}x + 2y - z &= 3 \\y - z &= 0\end{aligned}$$

From the second equation, we have $y = z$. Since the third row is all zeros, we have a free variable. Let $z = t$, where t is any real number. This implies $y = t$. Substitute $y = t$ and $z = t$ into the first equation: $x + 2(t) - t = 3 \implies x + t = 3 \implies x = 3 - t$. The general solution is a line in \mathbb{R}^3 described by the vector $(x, y, z) = (3 - t, t, t)$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Question 2 (Easy). Determine if the following set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 is linearly independent:

$$S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Solution. To check for linear independence, we form a matrix A whose columns are the vectors in S and check its determinant. The vectors are linearly independent if and only if the determinant is non-zero.

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

$$\det(A) = 1 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1(1 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 0) + 1(0 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 1) + 0 = 1(1) + 1(-1) = 1 - 1 = 0$$

Since the determinant is 0, the set of vectors is **linearly dependent**.

Alternatively, we can try to find a non-trivial solution to $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + c_3\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$. This gives the system:

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 - c_2 &= 0 \implies c_1 = c_2 \\ c_2 + c_3 &= 0 \implies c_3 = -c_2 \\ c_1 + c_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting the first two relations into the third gives $(c_2) + (-c_2) = 0$, which is $0 = 0$. This means there are infinitely many solutions. For a non-trivial solution, pick $c_2 = 1$. Then $c_1 = 1$ and $c_3 = -1$. Indeed, $1\mathbf{v}_1 + 1\mathbf{v}_2 - 1\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$. Since a non-trivial solution exists, the vectors are linearly dependent.

Question 3 (Moderate). Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ be a basis for a subspace $W \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, where $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 2, 0)$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (3, 1, -1)$. Determine if the vector $\mathbf{u} = (-1, 3, 1)$ is in the subspace W . If it is, express \mathbf{u} as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

Solution. The vector \mathbf{u} is in the subspace W if and only if it can be written as a linear combination of the basis vectors \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 . We are looking for scalars c_1, c_2 such that $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{u}$.

$$c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

This vector equation corresponds to a system of three linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 + 3c_2 &= -1 \\ 2c_1 + c_2 &= 3 \\ -c_2 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

From the third equation, we immediately get $c_2 = -1$. Substitute $c_2 = -1$ into the second equation: $2c_1 + (-1) = 3 \implies 2c_1 = 4 \implies c_1 = 2$. Now we have a potential solution $(c_1, c_2) = (2, -1)$. We must check if these values satisfy the remaining equation (the first one) to ensure the system is consistent. Check the first equation: $c_1 + 3c_2 = (2) + 3(-1) = 2 - 3 = -1$. The equation holds true. Since we found a consistent solution, the vector \mathbf{u} is in the subspace W . The linear combination is $\mathbf{u} = 2\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2$.

Question 4 (Moderate). Find a basis for the column space and the rank of the matrix A :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution. To find a basis for the column space $\text{Col}(A)$, we reduce the matrix A to its row echelon form to identify the pivot columns.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The leading 1's (pivots) are in the first and third columns of the row echelon form. Therefore, the corresponding columns of the **original matrix A** form a basis for its column space. The pivot columns are column 1 and column 3. A basis for $\text{Col}(A)$ is $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$. The rank of a matrix is the dimension of its column space (which is equal to the number of pivot columns). There are 2 pivots, so the **rank of A is 2**.

Question 5 (Moderate). Let W be the set of all vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 of the form $(a, b, a + b)$. Show that W is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Solution. To show that W is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 , we must verify three properties:

1. **The zero vector is in W :** The zero vector in \mathbb{R}^3 is $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, 0)$. We must check if it can be written in the form $(a, b, a + b)$. If we choose $a = 0$ and $b = 0$, the form becomes $(0, 0, 0 + 0) = (0, 0, 0)$. So, $\mathbf{0} \in W$. The set is non-empty.
2. **Closure under vector addition:** Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be two arbitrary vectors in W . Then they can be written as: $\mathbf{u} = (a_1, b_1, a_1 + b_1)$ for some scalars a_1, b_1 . $\mathbf{v} = (a_2, b_2, a_2 + b_2)$ for some scalars a_2, b_2 . Their sum is: $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2, (a_1 + b_1) + (a_2 + b_2)) = (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2, (a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2))$. Let $a' = a_1 + a_2$ and $b' = b_1 + b_2$. Then the sum is of the form $(a', b', a' + b')$, which matches the definition of a vector in W . Thus, W is closed under addition.
3. **Closure under scalar multiplication:** Let $\mathbf{u} = (a, b, a + b)$ be a vector in W and c be any scalar. $c\mathbf{u} = c(a, b, a + b) = (ca, cb, c(a + b)) = (ca, cb, ca + cb)$. Let $a'' = ca$ and $b'' = cb$. Then the resulting vector is $(a'', b'', a'' + b'')$, which is in the form required for vectors in W . Thus, W is closed under scalar multiplication.

Since all three properties hold, W is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Question 6 (Tough). Consider the system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x + y + kz &= 1 \\ x + ky + z &= 1 \\ kx + y + z &= -2 \end{aligned}$$

Find the values of k for which the system has: (a) a unique solution, (b) no solution, (c) infinitely many solutions.

Solution. The nature of the solution depends on the determinant of the coefficient matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & k \\ 1 & k & 1 \\ k & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= 1(k \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 1) - 1(1 \cdot 1 - k \cdot 1) + k(1 \cdot 1 - k \cdot k) \\ &= (k - 1) - (1 - k) + k(1 - k^2) \\ &= k - 1 - 1 + k + k - k^3 = -k^3 + 3k - 2 \end{aligned}$$

To find the roots of this polynomial, we can test integer factors of -2. If $k = 1$, $\det(A) = -1 + 3 - 2 = 0$. So $(k - 1)$ is a factor. If $k = -2$, $\det(A) = -(-8) + 3(-2) - 2 = 8 - 6 - 2 = 0$. So $(k + 2)$ is a factor. By polynomial division or synthetic division, we find the complete factorization: $\det(A) = -(k - 1)^2(k + 2)$.

- (a) **Unique solution:** A unique solution exists if and only if $\det(A) \neq 0$. This occurs when $-(k-1)^2(k+2) \neq 0$, which means $k \neq 1$ and $k \neq -2$.
- (b) **No solution or infinitely many solutions:** This occurs when $\det(A) = 0$, i.e., for $k = 1$ or $k = -2$. We must analyze these cases using the augmented matrix.

Case 1: $k = 1$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 \end{array} \right]$$

The last row represents the equation $0x + 0y + 0z = -3$, which is $0 = -3$. This is a contradiction. Therefore, for $k = 1$, there is **no solution**.

Case 2: $k = -2$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 1 & -2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 2R_1}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

The last row is $0 = 0$, which is consistent. Since there is a row of zeros, we have at least one free variable, and the system is consistent. Therefore, for $k = -2$, there are **infinitely many solutions**.

Question 7 (Tough). Let the matrix A be given by:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 & 8 \\ -1 & 2 & -2 & -9 \end{pmatrix}$$

- (a) Find the Reduced Row Echelon Form (RREF) of A .
- (b) Find a basis for the null space, $\text{Null}(A)$.
- (c) Find a basis for the column space, $\text{Col}(A)$.
- (d) State the dimensions of the null space and column space and verify the Rank-Nullity Theorem.

Solution. (a) **RREF of A :** We perform Gaussian elimination.

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 & 8 \\ -1 & 2 & -2 & -9 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + R_1}} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -6 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 2R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \end{array} \right]$$

To get RREF, continue reducing:

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow -1/2R_3} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_3 \\ R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 3R_3}} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

This is the **RREF of A** .

- (b) **Basis for $\text{Null}(\mathbf{A})$:** We solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ using the RREF. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^T$. The RREF gives the system: $x_1 - 2x_2 = 0 \implies x_1 = 2x_2$, $x_3 = 0$, $x_4 = 0$. The variable x_2 corresponds to a non-pivot column, so it is a free variable. Let $x_2 = t$. The solution vector is $\mathbf{x} = (2t, t, 0, 0)^T = t(2, 1, 0, 0)^T$. A basis for $\text{Null}(A)$ is the vector that spans this space: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.
- (c) **Basis for $\text{Col}(\mathbf{A})$:** The pivot columns in the RREF are columns 1, 3, and 4. We take the corresponding columns from the **original matrix \mathbf{A}** . A basis for $\text{Col}(A)$ is $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \\ -9 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.
- (d) **Rank-Nullity Theorem:** The dimension of the null space, $\text{nullity}(A)$, is the number of free variables, which is 1. The dimension of the column space, $\text{rank}(A)$, is the number of pivot columns, which is 3. The Rank-Nullity Theorem states that $\text{rank}(A) + \text{nullity}(A) = n$, where n is the number of columns of A . Here, $n = 4$. We check: $3 + 1 = 4$. The theorem is verified.

2 Analytic Geometry

Question 8 (Easy). Given the vectors $\mathbf{u} = (2, -1, 3)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1, -2)$ in \mathbb{R}^3 .

(a) Find the Euclidean norm (length) of \mathbf{u} .

(b) Find the distance between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

Solution. (a) The Euclidean norm $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ is given by the square root of the sum of the squares of its components.

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{4 + 1 + 9} = \sqrt{14}$$

(b) The distance between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} is the norm of their difference, $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$. First, find the difference vector:

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = (2 - 1, -1 - 1, 3 - (-2)) = (1, -2, 5)$$

Now, find the norm of this vector:

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-2)^2 + 5^2} = \sqrt{1 + 4 + 25} = \sqrt{30}$$

Question 9 (Easy). For the vectors $\mathbf{a} = (1, 2, -3)$ and $\mathbf{b} = (3, 1, 2)$:

(a) Calculate the inner product (dot product) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$.

(b) Determine if the vectors are orthogonal.

Solution. (a) The inner product is calculated as the sum of the products of corresponding components:

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (1)(3) + (2)(1) + (-3)(2) = 3 + 2 - 6 = -1$$

(b) Two vectors are orthogonal if their inner product is zero. Since $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = -1 \neq 0$, the vectors are **not orthogonal**.

Question 10 (Moderate). Find a non-zero vector \mathbf{w} that is orthogonal to both $\mathbf{u} = (1, 1, -2)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (2, -1, 1)$.

Solution. A vector that is orthogonal to two other vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 can be found by computing their cross product. The cross product $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ produces a vector that is orthogonal to both \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$ are the standard basis vectors for \mathbb{R}^3 .

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{i}(1 \cdot 1 - (-2) \cdot (-1)) - \mathbf{j}(1 \cdot 1 - (-2) \cdot 2) + \mathbf{k}(1 \cdot (-1) - 1 \cdot 2)$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{i}(1 - 2) - \mathbf{j}(1 + 4) + \mathbf{k}(-1 - 2)$$

$$\mathbf{w} = -1\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k} = (-1, -5, -3)$$

To verify, we check the dot products:

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u} = (-1)(1) + (-5)(1) + (-3)(-2) = -1 - 5 + 6 = 0$$

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (-1)(2) + (-5)(-1) + (-3)(1) = -2 + 5 - 3 = 0$$

Since both dot products are zero, the vector $\mathbf{w} = (-1, -5, -3)$ is orthogonal to both \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} . Any non-zero scalar multiple of \mathbf{w} , such as $(1, 5, 3)$, is also a valid answer.

Question 11 (Moderate). An inner product on \mathbb{R}^2 can be defined by a symmetric matrix. Consider the inner product defined by the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$, where $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{y}$.

Let $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

(a) Calculate the inner product $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$.

(b) Calculate the norm of \mathbf{x} induced by this inner product, $\|\mathbf{x}\|_A = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$.

Solution. (a) Calculate the inner product:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{y} = (1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

First, compute $A\mathbf{y}$:

$$A\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 2(3) + (-1)(-1) \\ -1(3) + 3(-1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now compute the full product:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = (1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix} = 1(7) + 2(-6) = 7 - 12 = -5$$

(b) Calculate the norm of \mathbf{x} : The squared norm is $\|\mathbf{x}\|_A^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$.

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_A^2 = (1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

First, compute $A\mathbf{x}$:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2(1) + (-1)(2) \\ -1(1) + 3(2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now compute the full product:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_A^2 = (1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = 1(0) + 2(5) = 10$$

The norm is therefore $\|\mathbf{x}\|_A = \sqrt{10}$.

Question 12 (Moderate). Given the vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 1, 0)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 0, 1)$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = (0, 1, 1)$, which form a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 . Use the Gram-Schmidt process to find an orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \mathbf{q}_3\}$.

Solution

The Gram-Schmidt process transforms a set of linearly independent vectors into an orthogonal basis, which can then be normalized to create an orthonormal basis. Let the given vectors be $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$. We will first construct an orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3\}$ and then normalize each vector to get the orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \mathbf{q}_3\}$.

Step 1: Construct \mathbf{q}_1 from \mathbf{v}_1

First, we set the initial orthogonal vector \mathbf{u}_1 to be equal to \mathbf{v}_1 .

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 1, 0)$$

Next, we find its magnitude (norm):

$$\|\mathbf{u}_1\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 0^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

The first orthonormal vector \mathbf{q}_1 is found by normalizing \mathbf{u}_1 :

$$\mathbf{q}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{u}_1}{\|\mathbf{u}_1\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, 1, 0)$$

Step 2: Construct \mathbf{q}_2 from \mathbf{v}_2

The second orthogonal vector, \mathbf{u}_2 , is found by subtracting the projection of \mathbf{v}_2 onto \mathbf{u}_1 from \mathbf{v}_2 .

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = \mathbf{v}_2 - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}_1}(\mathbf{v}_2) = \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{u}_1}{\|\mathbf{u}_1\|^2} \mathbf{u}_1$$

First, we calculate the dot product $\mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{u}_1$:

$$\mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{u}_1 = (1, 0, 1)(1, 1, 0) = 1(1) + 0(1) + 1(0) = 1$$

Now, substitute this into the equation for \mathbf{u}_2 :

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = (1, 0, 1) - \frac{1}{2}(1, 1, 0) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}, 0 - \frac{1}{2}, 1 - 0\right) = \left(\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$$

To simplify the arithmetic in the next step, we can use a scaled version of \mathbf{u}_2 , as its direction is what matters. Let's use $\mathbf{u}'_2 = 2\mathbf{u}_2$:

$$\mathbf{u}'_2 = 2 \left(\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, 1\right) = (1, -1, 2)$$

Now, we normalize this cleaner vector to find \mathbf{q}_2 :

$$\|\mathbf{u}'_2\| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{1 + 1 + 4} = \sqrt{6}$$

$$\mathbf{q}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{u}'_2}{\|\mathbf{u}'_2\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(1, -1, 2)$$

Step 3: Construct \mathbf{q}_3 from \mathbf{v}_3

The third orthogonal vector, \mathbf{u}_3 , is found by subtracting the projections of \mathbf{v}_3 onto the previously found orthogonal vectors, \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}'_2 .

$$\mathbf{u}_3 = \mathbf{v}_3 - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}_1}(\mathbf{v}_3) - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}'_2}(\mathbf{v}_3) = \mathbf{v}_3 - \frac{\mathbf{v}_3 \mathbf{u}_1}{\|\mathbf{u}_1\|^2} \mathbf{u}_1 - \frac{\mathbf{v}_3 \mathbf{u}'_2}{\|\mathbf{u}'_2\|^2} \mathbf{u}'_2$$

We calculate the required dot products first:

$$\mathbf{v}_3 \mathbf{u}_1 = (0, 1, 1)(1, 1, 0) = 0(1) + 1(1) + 1(0) = 1$$

$$\mathbf{v}_3 \mathbf{u}'_2 = (0, 1, 1)(1, -1, 2) = 0(1) + 1(-1) + 1(2) = 1$$

Now, we substitute these values into the equation for \mathbf{u}_3 :

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{u}_3 &= (0, 1, 1) - \frac{1}{2}(1, 1, 0) - \frac{1}{6}(1, -1, 2) \\
&= (0, 1, 1) - \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0\right) - \left(\frac{1}{6}, -\frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{3}\right) \\
&= \left(0 - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6}, 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6}, 1 - 0 - \frac{1}{3}\right) \\
&= \left(-\frac{3}{6} - \frac{1}{6}, \frac{6}{6} - \frac{3}{6} + \frac{1}{6}, \frac{3}{3} - \frac{1}{3}\right) \\
&= \left(-\frac{4}{6}, \frac{4}{6}, \frac{2}{3}\right) = \left(-\frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Again, we can simplify by scaling. Let's use $\mathbf{u}'_3 = \frac{3}{2}\mathbf{u}_3$ to eliminate the fractions:

$$\mathbf{u}'_3 = \frac{3}{2} \left(-\frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right) = (-1, 1, 1)$$

Finally, we normalize \mathbf{u}'_3 to get \mathbf{q}_3 :

$$\|\mathbf{u}'_3\| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{3}$$

$$\mathbf{q}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{u}'_3}{\|\mathbf{u}'_3\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(-1, 1, 1)$$

Conclusion: The Orthonormal Basis

The resulting orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^3 is $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \mathbf{q}_3\}$, where:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{q}_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, 1, 0) \\
\mathbf{q}_2 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(1, -1, 2) \\
\mathbf{q}_3 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(-1, 1, 1)
\end{aligned}$$

Question 13 (Tough). Let W be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 spanned by the orthogonal vectors $\mathbf{u}_1 = (1, 1, 0, 1)$ and $\mathbf{u}_2 = (1, -1, 1, 0)$. Let $\mathbf{y} = (2, 3, 2, 1)$. Find the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto the subspace W , and find the shortest distance from \mathbf{y} to W .

Solution. The **orthogonal projection** of \mathbf{y} onto the subspace W , denoted $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, is the point in W closest to \mathbf{y} . Since W is spanned by an orthogonal set of vectors $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2\}$, the formula is:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{proj}_W(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_2}{\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2} \mathbf{u}_2$$

First, we calculate the required dot products:

$$\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 = (2)(1) + (3)(1) + (2)(0) + (1)(1) = 2 + 3 + 0 + 1 = 6$$

$$\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 = \|\mathbf{u}_1\|^2 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 = 3$$

$$\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 = (2)(1) + (3)(-1) + (2)(1) + (1)(0) = 2 - 3 + 2 + 0 = 1$$

$$\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 = \|\mathbf{u}_2\|^2 = 1^2 + (-1)^2 + 1^2 + 0^2 = 3$$

Now, substitute these values into the projection formula:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{6}{3}\mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{u}_2 = 2(1, 1, 0, 1) + \frac{1}{3}(1, -1, 1, 0)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = (2, 2, 0, 2) + \left(\frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, 0\right) = \left(\frac{7}{3}, \frac{5}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, 2\right)$$

This vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto W .

The **shortest distance** from \mathbf{y} to W is the norm of the component of \mathbf{y} orthogonal to W , which is the vector $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$.

$$\mathbf{z} = (2, 3, 2, 1) - \left(\frac{7}{3}, \frac{5}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, 2\right) = \left(2 - \frac{7}{3}, 3 - \frac{5}{3}, 2 - \frac{1}{3}, 1 - 2\right) = \left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{5}{3}, -1\right)$$

The distance is the norm of \mathbf{z} :

$$\|\mathbf{z}\| = \sqrt{\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{5}{3}\right)^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{9} + \frac{16}{9} + \frac{25}{9} + \frac{9}{9}}$$

$$\|\mathbf{z}\| = \sqrt{\frac{1+16+25+9}{9}} = \sqrt{\frac{51}{9}} = \frac{\sqrt{51}}{3}$$

The shortest distance is $\frac{\sqrt{51}}{3}$.

Question 14 (Tough). Find the orthogonal projection of the point $P(1, 0, 0)$ onto the plane defined by the equation $x + 2y + z = 6$.

Solution. Let the plane be Π and the point be P . Let the projection of P onto the plane be Q . **Step 1: Identify the Normal Vector** The vector \vec{PQ} must be orthogonal to the plane. The normal vector to the plane $x + 2y + z = 6$ is given by the coefficients of x, y, z . So, $\mathbf{n} = \langle 1, 2, 1 \rangle$.

Step 2: Define the line from P to Q The vector \vec{PQ} must be parallel to the normal vector \mathbf{n} . This means we can define a line from P to Q as $Q(t) = P + t\mathbf{n}$ for some scalar t . Let the coordinates of the projection point Q be (q_1, q_2, q_3) . $Q(t) = (1, 0, 0) + t(1, 2, 1) = (1+t, 2t, t)$. So, $q_1 = 1+t$, $q_2 = 2t$, $q_3 = t$.

Step 3: Solve for t Since the point Q lies on the plane Π , its coordinates must satisfy the plane's equation. Substitute the expressions for q_1, q_2, q_3 into the plane equation:

$$(1+t) + 2(2t) + (t) = 6$$

$$1 + t + 4t + t = 6$$

$$6t + 1 = 6 \implies 6t = 5 \implies t = \frac{5}{6}$$

Step 4: Find the coordinates of Q Now we find the coordinates of the projection point Q by substituting $t = 5/6$ back into our expressions from Step 2: $q_1 = 1 + \frac{5}{6} = \frac{11}{6}$, $q_2 = 2\left(\frac{5}{6}\right) = \frac{10}{6} = \frac{5}{3}$, $q_3 = \frac{5}{6}$. The orthogonal projection of the point $P(1, 0, 0)$ onto the plane is the point $Q\left(\frac{11}{6}, \frac{5}{3}, \frac{5}{6}\right)$.

3 Determinant, Eigenvalues, SVD

Question 15 (Easy). For the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$:

(a) Calculate the Trace of A .

(b) Calculate the Determinant of A .

Solution. (a) **Trace of A :** The trace of a square matrix is the sum of the elements on its main diagonal.

$$\text{Tr}(A) = 1 + 4 + 5 = 10$$

(b) **Determinant of A :** The determinant can be calculated using cofactor expansion. Let's expand along the first row.

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= 1 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} - (-2) \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 5 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 1(4(5) - (-1)(1)) + 2(0(5) - (-1)(2)) + 3(0(1) - 4(2)) \\ &= 1(20 + 1) + 2(0 + 2) + 3(0 - 8) \\ &= 1(21) + 2(2) + 3(-8) \\ &= 21 + 4 - 24 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Question 16 (Easy). Find the eigenvalues of the matrix $B = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Solution. To find the eigenvalues, we solve the characteristic equation $\det(B - \lambda I) = 0$, where I is the identity matrix and λ represents the eigenvalues.

$$B - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 - \lambda & -1 \\ 2 & 1 - \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

Now, we compute the determinant of this matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} \det(B - \lambda I) &= (4 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) - (-1)(2) \\ &= 4 - 4\lambda - \lambda + \lambda^2 + 2 \\ &= \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 6 \end{aligned}$$

Set the characteristic polynomial to zero to find the eigenvalues:

$$\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 6 = 0$$

Factoring the quadratic equation:

$$(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3) = 0$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 3$.

Question 17 (Moderate). Consider the symmetric matrix A :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

(a) Given that $\lambda_1 = 2$ is an eigenvalue of A , use the properties of trace and determinant to find the other two eigenvalues.

(b) Find a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda = 2$.

Solution. (a) **Find other eigenvalues using Trace and Determinant:** Let the eigenvalues be $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$. We are given $\lambda_1 = 2$. The trace of a matrix is the sum of its eigenvalues: $\text{Tr}(A) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3$. The trace is also the sum of the diagonal elements: $\text{Tr}(A) = 4 + 4 + 4 = 12$. So, $2 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 12 \implies \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 10$. (Eq. 1)

The determinant of a matrix is the product of its eigenvalues: $\det(A) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3$. $\det(A) = 4(16 - 4) - 2(8 - 4) + 2(4 - 8) = 4(12) - 2(4) + 2(-4) = 48 - 8 - 8 = 32$. So, $2\lambda_2\lambda_3 = 32 \implies \lambda_2\lambda_3 = 16$. (Eq. 2)

We solve the system from Eq. 1 and Eq. 2. From Eq. 1, $\lambda_3 = 10 - \lambda_2$. Substitute this into Eq. 2: $\lambda_2(10 - \lambda_2) = 16 \implies 10\lambda_2 - \lambda_2^2 = 16 \implies \lambda_2^2 - 10\lambda_2 + 16 = 0$. Factoring this quadratic: $(\lambda_2 - 2)(\lambda_2 - 8) = 0$. This gives $\lambda_2 = 2$ and $\lambda_3 = 8$. The three eigenvalues are $\{2, 2, 8\}$.

(b) **Find basis for the eigenspace of $\lambda = 2$:** We need to find the basis for the null space of $(A - 2I)$.

$$A - 2I = \begin{pmatrix} 4-2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4-2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 4-2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

We solve $(A - 2I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ by row reducing the matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow 1/2R_1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 2R_1}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This gives the single equation $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$. There is one pivot and two free variables. Let $x_2 = s$ and $x_3 = t$. Then $x_1 = -s - t$. The general solution (the eigenvectors) is $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} -s-t \\ s \\ t \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. A basis for the eigenspace is the set of vectors spanning this solution space:

$$\mathcal{B}_{\lambda=2} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Question 18 (Moderate). Find the eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of the matrix:

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

Solution. First, find the eigenvalues from $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A - \lambda I) &= \begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (2 - \lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} - 1 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (2 - \lambda)((2 - \lambda)^2 - 1) - 1(2 - \lambda) \\ &= (2 - \lambda)[(2 - \lambda)^2 - 1 - 1] = (2 - \lambda)[\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 4 - 2] \\ &= (2 - \lambda)(\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 2) = 0\end{aligned}$$

One eigenvalue is $\lambda_1 = 2$. For the others, we use the quadratic formula on $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 2 = 0$: $\lambda = \frac{-(-4) \pm \sqrt{(-4)^2 - 4(1)(2)}}{2(1)} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 8}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{8}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm 2\sqrt{2}}{2} = 2 \pm \sqrt{2}$. The other eigenvalues are $\lambda_2 = 2 + \sqrt{2}$ and $\lambda_3 = 2 - \sqrt{2}$.

Now, find the eigenvector for each eigenvalue by solving $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.

- For $\lambda_1 = 2$: $(A - 2I)\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$. This gives the system $x_2 = 0$ and $x_1 + x_3 = 0 \implies x_1 = -x_3$. Let $x_3 = t$. Then $x_1 = -t, x_2 = 0$. An eigenvector is $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
- For $\lambda_2 = 2 + \sqrt{2}$: $(A - (2 + \sqrt{2})I)\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -\sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. From the first row: $-\sqrt{2}x_1 + x_2 = 0 \implies x_2 = \sqrt{2}x_1$. From the third row: $x_2 - \sqrt{2}x_3 = 0 \implies x_2 = \sqrt{2}x_3$. These together imply $x_1 = x_3$. Let $x_1 = t$. Then $x_3 = t$ and $x_2 = \sqrt{2}t$. An eigenvector is $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
- For $\lambda_3 = 2 - \sqrt{2}$: $(A - (2 - \sqrt{2})I)\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. From the first row: $\sqrt{2}x_1 + x_2 = 0 \implies x_2 = -\sqrt{2}x_1$. From the third row: $x_2 + \sqrt{2}x_3 = 0 \implies x_2 = -\sqrt{2}x_3$. These imply $x_1 = x_3$. Let $x_1 = t$. Then $x_3 = t$ and $x_2 = -\sqrt{2}t$. An eigenvector is $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Question 19 (Moderate). Given the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Find matrices P and D such that $A = PDP^{-1}$, where D is a diagonal matrix.

Solution. This is an eigendecomposition problem. We must find the eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of A . **Step 1: Find Eigenvalues** Characteristic equation:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0.$$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1-\lambda & 4 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 - 4 = 0$$

$$(1-\lambda)^2 = 4 \implies 1-\lambda = \pm 2$$

This gives two possibilities: $1-\lambda = 2 \implies \lambda_1 = -1$. $1-\lambda = -2 \implies \lambda_2 = 3$.

Find Eigenvectors

- For $\lambda_1 = -1$: Solve $(A - (-1)I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$. This gives the equation $x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \implies x_1 = -2x_2$. Let $x_2 = 1$, then $x_1 = -2$. An eigenvector is $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
- For $\lambda_2 = 3$: Solve $(A - 3I)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$. This gives the equation $x_1 - 2x_2 = 0 \implies x_1 = 2x_2$. Let $x_2 = 1$, then $x_1 = 2$. An eigenvector is $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Step 3: Construct P and D The diagonal matrix D contains the eigenvalues on its diagonal, and the matrix P contains the corresponding eigenvectors as its columns.

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

To complete the decomposition $A = PDP^{-1}$, we need P^{-1} . For a 2×2 matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, the inverse is $\frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\det(P) = (-2)(1) - (2)(1) = -4$$

$$P^{-1} = -\frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/4 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{The full diagonalization is } A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1/4 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Question 20 (Tough). Two $n \times n$ matrices A and B are simultaneously diagonalizable if they share a common basis of eigenvectors ($A = P D_A P^{-1}$ and $B = P D_B P^{-1}$). This is possible if and only if A and B commute ($AB = BA$). You are given:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Assuming A and B are simultaneously diagonalizable, find the matrix B .

Solution. Step 1: Find the eigenvector matrix P from A : First, we find the eigenvalues of A . The characteristic equation $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ is: $\det(A - \lambda I) = (1 - \lambda)((2 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) - 1) + 1(-(1 - \lambda)) = (1 - \lambda)[\lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 2 - 1 - 1] = (1 - \lambda)(\lambda^2 - 3\lambda) = \lambda(1 - \lambda)(\lambda - 3) = 0$. The eigenvalues of A are $\lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 1, \lambda_3 = 3$.

Since A is symmetric, its eigenvectors will be orthogonal. We find normalized eigenvectors to form an orthogonal matrix P .

- For $\lambda_1 = 0$: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Normalized: $\mathbf{p}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
- For $\lambda_2 = 1$: $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Normalized: $\mathbf{p}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.
- For $\lambda_3 = 3$: $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Normalized: $\mathbf{p}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

The matrix P has these eigenvectors as columns, ordered according to the eigenvalues of A (0, 1, 3).

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

Step 2: Compute B : We use the diagonalization formula $B = PD_B P^{-1}$. Since P is an orthogonal matrix (its columns are orthonormal), we have $P^{-1} = P^T$.

$$B = PD_B P^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 & -2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}$$

First, compute PD_B :

$$PD_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1(1/\sqrt{3}) & 2(1/\sqrt{2}) & -1(1/\sqrt{6}) \\ 1(1/\sqrt{3}) & 2(0) & -1(-2/\sqrt{6}) \\ 1(1/\sqrt{3}) & 2(-1/\sqrt{2}) & -1(1/\sqrt{6}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 2/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 & 2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & -2/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}$$

Now, multiply by P^T : $B = (PD_B)P^T$.

$$B_{11} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{2} - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{2+6-1}{6} = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$B_{12} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} (0) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{6} = \frac{4}{6}$$

$$B_{13} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{2} - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{2-6-1}{6} = -\frac{5}{6}$$

By symmetry (B will be symmetric as D_B is diagonal and P is orthogonal), $B_{21} = B_{12}$, $B_{31} = B_{13}$, etc.

$$B_{22} = \frac{1}{3} + 0 + \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2-4}{6} = -\frac{2}{6}$$

$$B_{23} = \frac{1}{3} + 0 + \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{6} = \frac{4}{6}$$

$$B_{33} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{-2}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{2} - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{2+6-1}{6} = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$B = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 4 & -5 \\ 4 & -2 & 4 \\ -5 & 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Question 21 (Tough). Find the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) of the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Then, find the best rank-1 approximation of } A.$$

Solution. The SVD of A is $A = U\Sigma V^T$.

1. **Find V and Σ from $A^T A$:** $A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Find eigenvalues of $A^T A$: $\det(A^T A - \lambda I) = (2-\lambda)^2 - 1 = 0 \implies 2-\lambda = \pm 1$. The eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = 1$. The singular values are their square roots: $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{3}, \sigma_2 = 1$. The matrix Σ is an $m \times n$ matrix (same size as A) with singular values on the diagonal: $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Find normalized eigenvectors of $A^T A$ for V : For $\lambda_1 = 3$: $(A^T A - 3I)\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \implies -x_1 + x_2 = 0$. Eigenvector is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Normalized: $\mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. For $\lambda_2 = 1$: $(A^T A - 1I)\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \implies x_1 + x_2 = 0$. Eigenvector is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Normalized: $\mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. So, $V = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$.

2. **Find U :** The columns of U are found by $\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A \mathbf{v}_i$. $\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. $\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{1}{1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Since U must be a 3×3 orthogonal matrix, we need a third vector \mathbf{u}_3 orthogonal to $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$. We can find it with the cross product of the non-normalized vectors $(2, 1, 1)$ and $(0, -1, 1)$. $(2, 1, 1) \times (0, -1, 1) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{i}(1 - (-1)) - \mathbf{j}(2 - 0) + \mathbf{k}(-2 - 0) = (2, -2, -2)$.

We can use the simpler parallel vector $(1, -1, -1)$. Normalized, $\mathbf{u}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$So, U = \begin{pmatrix} 2/\sqrt{6} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

3. **Rank-1 Approximation:** The best rank- k approximation is $A_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T$. For rank-1, this is $A_1 = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T$.

$$A_1 = \sqrt{3} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 \ 1) \right)$$

$$A_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{12}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (1 \ 1) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

4 Differentiation and Gradients

Question 22 (Easy). Find the derivative of the univariate function $f(x) = x^3 \sin(x)$.

Solution. We use the product rule for differentiation, which states that $(u(x)v(x))' = u'(x)v(x) + u(x)v'(x)$. Let $u(x) = x^3$ and $v(x) = \sin(x)$. Then their derivatives are $u'(x) = 3x^2$ and $v'(x) = \cos(x)$. Applying the product rule:

$$f'(x) = (3x^2)(\sin(x)) + (x^3)(\cos(x)) = 3x^2 \sin(x) + x^3 \cos(x)$$

Question 23 (Easy). Given the function $f(x, y) = 3x^2y^3 + e^{2x} - \ln(y)$, find the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$.

Solution. To find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$, we treat the variable y as a constant.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3x^2y^3) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(e^{2x}) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\ln(y)) \\ &= (3y^3)(2x) + e^{2x}(2) - 0 = 6xy^3 + 2e^{2x} \end{aligned}$$

To find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$, we treat the variable x as a constant.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(3x^2y^3) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(e^{2x}) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\ln(y)) \\ &= (3x^2)(3y^2) + 0 - \frac{1}{y} = 9x^2y^2 - \frac{1}{y} \end{aligned}$$

Question 24 (Moderate). Find the gradient of the function $f(x, y, z) = x^2y \cos(z)$ at the point $P(2, 1, \pi)$.

Solution. The gradient of f is the vector of its partial derivatives: $\nabla f = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right\rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2y \cos(z)) = 2xy \cos(z) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^2y \cos(z)) = x^2 \cos(z) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(x^2y \cos(z)) = -x^2y \sin(z) \end{aligned}$$

The gradient vector is $\nabla f(x, y, z) = \langle 2xy \cos(z), x^2 \cos(z), -x^2y \sin(z) \rangle$. Now, evaluate the gradient at the point $P(2, 1, \pi)$. We use $\cos(\pi) = -1$ and $\sin(\pi) = 0$.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{(2,1,\pi)} = 2(2)(1) \cos(\pi) = 4(-1) = -4$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{(2,1,\pi)} = (2)^2 \cos(\pi) = 4(-1) = -4$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \Big|_{(2,1,\pi)} = -(2)^2(1) \sin(\pi) = -4(0) = 0$$

The gradient at P is $\nabla f(2, 1, \pi) = \langle -4, -4, 0 \rangle$.

Question 25 (Moderate). Let $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ and let $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a vector-valued function defined by:

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x_1, x_2) \\ f_2(x_1, x_2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 + x_2^2 \\ x_1 x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find the Jacobian matrix of \mathbf{f} .

Solution. The Jacobian matrix J of \mathbf{f} is an $m \times n$ matrix (here 2×2) where the entry J_{ij} is $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$.

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

We calculate the four required partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) = 2x_1$$

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) = 2x_2$$

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}(x_1 x_2) = x_2$$

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}(x_1 x_2) = x_1$$

Assembling these into the Jacobian matrix gives:

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 & 2x_2 \\ x_2 & x_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Question 26 (Moderate). In machine learning, L2 regularization is often added to a loss function to prevent overfitting. The loss function for Ridge Regression is given by $f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$, where X is the $m \times n$ design matrix, \mathbf{y} is the $m \times 1$ target vector, \mathbf{w} is the $n \times 1$ vector of weights, and λ is the regularization parameter. Find the gradient of this function with respect to \mathbf{w} .

Solution. Let $f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$. We can rewrite the squared Euclidean norms using transposes: $f(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) + \lambda\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w}$.

Step 1: Expand the expression. Using properties of transposes, the first term expands to:

$$(\mathbf{y}^T - \mathbf{w}^T X^T)(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^T X\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^T X^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{w}^T X^T X\mathbf{w}$$

Since $\mathbf{y}^T X\mathbf{w}$ is a scalar, it equals its transpose: $(\mathbf{y}^T X\mathbf{w})^T = \mathbf{w}^T X^T \mathbf{y}$. We can combine the middle terms.

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - 2\mathbf{w}^T X^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{w}^T (X^T X)\mathbf{w} + \lambda\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w}$$

Step 2: Differentiate with respect to \mathbf{w} . We use two standard results from matrix calculus: $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{a}$ and $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w}^T A\mathbf{w}) = (A + A^T)\mathbf{w}$.

- $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{0}$ (no dependence on \mathbf{w}).

- $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(-2\mathbf{w}^T X^T \mathbf{y}) = -2(X^T \mathbf{y})$.
- $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w}^T (X^T X) \mathbf{w})$. The matrix $A = X^T X$ is symmetric, so the derivative is $2(X^T X)\mathbf{w}$.
- $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\lambda \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(\lambda \mathbf{w}^T I \mathbf{w})$. The matrix is λI , which is symmetric. So the derivative is $2(\lambda I)\mathbf{w} = 2\lambda \mathbf{w}$.

Step 3: Combine the results.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0} - 2X^T \mathbf{y} + 2X^T X \mathbf{w} + 2\lambda \mathbf{w}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2X^T X \mathbf{w} - 2X^T \mathbf{y} + 2\lambda \mathbf{w}$$

Factoring out common terms gives the final gradient:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}) = 2(X^T(X\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \mathbf{w})$$

Question 27 (Tough). Let $f(x, y, z) = x^2 e^y + y \ln(z)$. Find the directional derivative of f at the point $P(1, 0, 2)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, -1, 2 \rangle$. What does this value represent?

Solution. The directional derivative of f in the direction of a unit vector \mathbf{u} , denoted $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$, is calculated as the dot product of the gradient of f and the unit vector \mathbf{u} .

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f = \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

Step 1: Find the gradient of f . The gradient is the vector of partial derivatives:

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right\rangle$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xe^y$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2 e^y + \ln(z)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{y}{z}$$

So, $\nabla f = \langle 2xe^y, x^2 e^y + \ln(z), \frac{y}{z} \rangle$.

Step 2: Evaluate the gradient at the point $P(1, 0, 2)$.

$$\nabla f(1, 0, 2) = \langle 2(1)e^0, (1)^2 e^0 + \ln(2), \frac{0}{2} \rangle = \langle 2, 1 + \ln(2), 0 \rangle$$

Step 3: Find the unit vector \mathbf{u} in the direction of \mathbf{v} . First find the magnitude of \mathbf{v} :

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{4 + 1 + 4} = \sqrt{9} = 3$$

The unit vector \mathbf{u} is \mathbf{v} divided by its magnitude:

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{1}{3} \langle 2, -1, 2 \rangle = \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right\rangle$$

Step 4: Calculate the dot product $\nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{u}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
D_{\mathbf{u}}f(1, 0, 2) &= \langle 2, 1 + \ln(2), 0 \rangle \cdot \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right\rangle \\
&= (2) \left(\frac{2}{3} \right) + (1 + \ln(2)) \left(-\frac{1}{3} \right) + (0) \left(\frac{2}{3} \right) \\
&= \frac{4}{3} - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{\ln(2)}{3} = \frac{3 - \ln(2)}{3} = 1 - \frac{\ln(2)}{3}
\end{aligned}$$

Interpretation: The value $1 - \frac{\ln(2)}{3}$ represents the instantaneous rate of change of the function f at the point $P(1, 0, 2)$ as we move from P in the direction of the vector \mathbf{v} . Since $\ln(2) \approx 0.693$, the value is positive, which means the function's value is increasing at that point along that specific direction.

5 Higher-Order Derivatives and Taylor's Series

Question 28 (Easy). Find the first and second derivatives of the function $f(x) = e^{x^2}$.

Solution. **First derivative:** We use the chain rule, $\frac{d}{dx}e^{u(x)} = e^{u(x)}u'(x)$. Let $u(x) = x^2$, so $u'(x) = 2x$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(e^{x^2}) = e^{x^2} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^2) = 2xe^{x^2}$$

Second derivative: We differentiate $f'(x)$ using the product rule, $(uv)' = u'v + uv'$. Let $u(x) = 2x$ and $v(x) = e^{x^2}$. Then $u'(x) = 2$ and $v'(x) = 2xe^{x^2}$ (from our first derivative calculation).

$$\begin{aligned} f''(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}(2xe^{x^2}) = (2)(e^{x^2}) + (2x)(2xe^{x^2}) \\ f''(x) &= 2e^{x^2} + 4x^2e^{x^2} = 2e^{x^2}(1 + 2x^2) \end{aligned}$$

Question 29 (Easy). For the function $f(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy^2 + y^4$, compute all second-order partial derivatives: $f_{xx}, f_{yy}, f_{xy}, f_{yx}$.

Solution. First, find the first-order partial derivatives:

$$f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^3 - 3xy^2 + y^4) = 3x^2 - 3y^2$$

$$f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^3 - 3xy^2 + y^4) = -6xy + 4y^3$$

Now, find the second-order partial derivatives by differentiating the first-order derivatives:

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f_x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3x^2 - 3y^2) = 6x$$

$$f_{yy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(f_y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(-6xy + 4y^3) = -6x + 12y^2$$

$$f_{xy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(f_x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(3x^2 - 3y^2) = -6y$$

$$f_{yx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f_y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(-6xy + 4y^3) = -6y$$

As expected from Clairaut's theorem on the equality of mixed partials (since these derivatives are continuous), we find that $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$.

Question 30 (Moderate). Find the Hessian matrix of the function $f(x, y) = x \sin(y) + y \cos(x)$ at the point $(\frac{\pi}{2}, 0)$.

Solution. The Hessian matrix H is the matrix of second-order partial derivatives:

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$$

First, find the first-order partial derivatives:

$$f_x = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x \sin(y) + y \cos(x)) = \sin(y) - y \sin(x)$$

$$f_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x \sin(y) + y \cos(x)) = x \cos(y) + \cos(x)$$

Now, find the second-order partial derivatives:

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\sin(y) - y \sin(x)) = -y \cos(x)$$

$$f_{yy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x \cos(y) + \cos(x)) = -x \sin(y)$$

$$f_{xy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\sin(y) - y \sin(x)) = \cos(y) - \sin(x)$$

The Hessian matrix as a function of (x, y) is:

$$H(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} -y \cos(x) & \cos(y) - \sin(x) \\ \cos(y) - \sin(x) & -x \sin(y) \end{pmatrix}$$

Now evaluate at the point $(\frac{\pi}{2}, 0)$. We use the values: $\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 0$, $\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 1$, $\cos(0) = 1$, $\sin(0) = 0$.

$$H\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right) = \begin{pmatrix} -(0) \cos(\frac{\pi}{2}) & \cos(0) - \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) \\ \cos(0) - \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) & -\frac{\pi}{2} \sin(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 - 1 \\ 1 - 1 & -\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Question 31 (Moderate). Find the linearization (first-order Taylor expansion) of the function $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ around the point $(3, 4)$. Use it to approximate $f(3.01, 3.98)$.

Solution. The linearization $L(x, y)$ of a function $f(x, y)$ at a point (a, b) is the tangent plane to the function at that point. The formula is:

$$L(x, y) = f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)$$

Here, our function is $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}$ and the point is $(a, b) = (3, 4)$. **Step 1: Evaluate the function at the point.**

$$f(3, 4) = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = \sqrt{9 + 16} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$

Step 2: Find the partial derivatives.

$$f_x = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2 + y^2)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2}(2x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

$$f_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^2 + y^2)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2}(2y) = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

Step 3: Evaluate the partial derivatives at $(3, 4)$.

$$f_x(3, 4) = \frac{3}{\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2}} = \frac{3}{5}$$

$$f_y(3, 4) = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2}} = \frac{4}{5}$$

Step 4: Construct the linearization formula.

$$L(x, y) = 5 + \frac{3}{5}(x - 3) + \frac{4}{5}(y - 4)$$

This is the first-order Taylor expansion. To approximate $f(3.01, 3.98)$, we evaluate $L(3.01, 3.98)$. Here, $x - a = 3.01 - 3 = 0.01$ and $y - b = 3.98 - 4 = -0.02$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(3.01, 3.98) &\approx L(3.01, 3.98) = 5 + \frac{3}{5}(0.01) + \frac{4}{5}(-0.02) \\ &= 5 + \frac{0.03}{5} - \frac{0.08}{5} = 5 - \frac{0.05}{5} = 5 - 0.01 = 4.99 \end{aligned}$$

Question 32 (Tough). Find the second-order Taylor series expansion of the function $f(x, y) = e^{x-y}$ around the point $(a, b) = (1, 1)$.

Solution. The second-order Taylor expansion of $f(x, y)$ around (a, b) is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} T_2(x, y) &= f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2!} (f_{xx}(a, b)(x - a)^2 + 2f_{xy}(a, b)(x - a)(y - b) + f_{yy}(a, b)(y - b)^2) \end{aligned}$$

Here, $(a, b) = (1, 1)$, so $x - a = x - 1$ and $y - b = y - 1$. **Step 1: Evaluate the function and all required derivatives at $(1, 1)$.**

- $f(x, y) = e^{x-y} \implies f(1, 1) = e^{1-1} = e^0 = 1$.
- $f_x = e^{x-y} \cdot (1) = e^{x-y} \implies f_x(1, 1) = e^0 = 1$.
- $f_y = e^{x-y} \cdot (-1) = -e^{x-y} \implies f_y(1, 1) = -e^0 = -1$.
- $f_{xx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(e^{x-y}) = e^{x-y} \implies f_{xx}(1, 1) = 1$.
- $f_{yy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(-e^{x-y}) = -e^{x-y} \cdot (-1) = e^{x-y} \implies f_{yy}(1, 1) = 1$.
- $f_{xy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(e^{x-y}) = -e^{x-y} \implies f_{xy}(1, 1) = -1$.

Step 2: Substitute these values into the Taylor formula.

$$\begin{aligned} T_2(x, y) &= 1 + (1)(x - 1) + (-1)(y - 1) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} ((1)(x - 1)^2 + 2(-1)(x - 1)(y - 1) + (1)(y - 1)^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$T_2(x, y) = 1 + (x - 1) - (y - 1) + \frac{1}{2} ((x - 1)^2 - 2(x - 1)(y - 1) + (y - 1)^2)$$

This expression is the final answer. It can be simplified by noticing the quadratic part is a perfect square:

$$T_2(x, y) = 1 + (x - y) + \frac{1}{2} [(x - 1) - (y - 1)]^2 = 1 + (x - y) + \frac{1}{2}(x - y)^2$$

This matches the standard Maclaurin series for $e^u \approx 1 + u + u^2/2$ where $u = x - y$.

Question 33 (Tough). Consider the function $f(x, y) = \cos(x) - y^2 - xy$.

- (a) Find the second-order Taylor expansion of $f(x, y)$ around the point $(0, 0)$.
- (b) Use the Hessian matrix from the Taylor expansion to classify the critical point at $(0, 0)$.

Solution. (a) **Second-order Taylor expansion around $(0, 0)$:** The formula is:

$$T_2(x, y) = f(0, 0) + f_x(0, 0)x + f_y(0, 0)y + \frac{1}{2}(f_{xx}(0, 0)x^2 + 2f_{xy}(0, 0)xy + f_{yy}(0, 0)y^2).$$

Step 1: Evaluate all derivatives at $(0, 0)$:

- $f(x, y) = \cos(x) - y^2 - xy \implies f(0, 0) = \cos(0) - 0 - 0 = 1.$
- $f_x = -\sin(x) - y \implies f_x(0, 0) = -\sin(0) - 0 = 0.$
- $f_y = -2y - x \implies f_y(0, 0) = 0 - 0 = 0.$
- $f_{xx} = -\cos(x) \implies f_{xx}(0, 0) = -\cos(0) = -1.$
- $f_{yy} = -2 \implies f_{yy}(0, 0) = -2.$
- $f_{xy} = -1 \implies f_{xy}(0, 0) = -1.$

Since $f_x(0, 0) = 0$ and $f_y(0, 0) = 0$, the point $(0, 0)$ is indeed a critical point.

Step 2: Assemble the Taylor expansion:

$$T_2(x, y) = 1 + (0)x + (0)y + \frac{1}{2}((-1)x^2 + 2(-1)xy + (-2)y^2)$$

$$T_2(x, y) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 - xy - y^2$$

- (b) **Classify the critical point using the Hessian:** The Hessian matrix at a point (x, y) is $H(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$. At the point $(0, 0)$, we have:

$$H(0, 0) = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx}(0, 0) & f_{xy}(0, 0) \\ f_{yx}(0, 0) & f_{yy}(0, 0) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

To classify the critical point, we use the Second Derivative Test. We compute the determinant of the Hessian, D .

$$D = \det(H) = (-1)(-2) - (-1)(-1) = 2 - 1 = 1$$

The test is as follows:

- If $D > 0$ and $f_{xx} > 0$, it is a local minimum.
- If $D > 0$ and $f_{xx} < 0$, it is a local maximum.
- If $D < 0$, it is a saddle point.
- If $D = 0$, the test is inconclusive.

In our case, $D = 1 > 0$ and $f_{xx}(0, 0) = -1 < 0$. Therefore, the critical point at $(0, 0)$ is a **local maximum**.

6 Unconstrained Optimization

Question 34 (Easy). Find the critical points of the function $f(x) = x^3 - 6x^2 + 9x + 2$.

Solution. To find the critical points of a single-variable function, we find the points where the first derivative is zero or undefined. First, find the derivative of $f(x)$:

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^3 - 6x^2 + 9x + 2) = 3x^2 - 12x + 9$$

The derivative is a polynomial, so it is defined for all real numbers x . We find the critical points by setting the derivative to zero:

$$3x^2 - 12x + 9 = 0$$

Divide the entire equation by 3 to simplify:

$$x^2 - 4x + 3 = 0$$

Factor the quadratic equation:

$$(x - 1)(x - 3) = 0$$

This gives two solutions. The critical points are $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{1}$ and $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{3}$.

Question 35 (Easy). Find the critical points of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 6y + 14$.

Solution. To find critical points of a multivariable function, we set its gradient to the zero vector, $\nabla f = \mathbf{0}$. The gradient is the vector of partial derivatives. First, find the partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 6y + 14) = 2x - 2$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 6y + 14) = 2y - 6$$

Now, set both partial derivatives to zero to find the coordinates of the critical point(s):

$$2x - 2 = 0 \implies 2x = 2 \implies x = 1$$

$$2y - 6 = 0 \implies 2y = 6 \implies y = 3$$

The system of equations has only one solution. The only critical point is $(1, 3)$. (This function describes a paraboloid, which has a single minimum).

Question 36 (Moderate). Find all critical points of the function $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 - 3xy$ and classify each as a local maximum, local minimum, or saddle point.

Solution. Step 1: Find critical points. Set the gradient $\nabla f = \langle f_x, f_y \rangle$ to $\mathbf{0}$.

$$f_x = 3x^2 - 3y = 0 \implies y = x^2 \quad (1)$$

$$f_y = 3y^2 - 3x = 0 \implies x = y^2 \quad (2)$$

Substitute the first equation into the second: $x = (x^2)^2 \implies x = x^4 \implies x^4 - x = 0 \implies x(x^3 - 1) = 0$. This gives two possible values for x :

- $x = 0$. Substitute back into eq(1): $y = 0^2 = 0$. This gives the critical point $(0, 0)$.
- $x^3 - 1 = 0 \implies x = 1$. Substitute back into eq(1): $y = 1^2 = 1$. This gives the critical point $(1, 1)$.

Step 2: Classify points using the Second Derivative Test. We need the Hessian matrix, $H(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$.

$$f_{xx} = 6x, \quad f_{yy} = 6y, \quad f_{xy} = -3$$

The determinant of the Hessian is $D(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2 = (6x)(6y) - (-3)^2 = 36xy - 9$.

Case 1: Point $(0, 0)$ $D(0, 0) = 36(0)(0) - 9 = -9$. Since $D < 0$, the point $(0, 0)$ is a **saddle point**.

Case 2: Point $(1, 1)$ $D(1, 1) = 36(1)(1) - 9 = 27$. Since $D > 0$, we check the sign of $f_{xx}(1, 1)$. $f_{xx}(1, 1) = 6(1) = 6$. Since $D > 0$ and $f_{xx} > 0$, the point $(1, 1)$ is a **local minimum**.

Question 37 (Moderate). A company wants to build a rectangular storage container with an open top. It must have a volume of 10 cubic meters. The material for the base costs \$10 per square meter, and the material for the sides costs \$6 per square meter. Find the dimensions (length l , width w , height h) that will minimize the cost of the container.

Solution. Step 1: Set up the objective and constraint equations. Let the dimensions be length l , width w , and height h . The volume is the constraint equation: $V = lwh = 10$. The cost is the objective function we want to minimize. Cost of base = (Area of base) \times (Cost per area) = $(lw) \cdot 10$. Cost of sides = (Area of sides) \times (Cost per area) = $(2lh + 2wh) \cdot 6$. Total cost: $C(l, w, h) = 10lw + 12lh + 12wh$.

Step 2: Reduce to a two-variable function. From the volume constraint, we can express one variable in terms of the others: $h = \frac{10}{lw}$. Substitute this into the cost function:

$$C(l, w) = 10lw + 12l \left(\frac{10}{lw} \right) + 12w \left(\frac{10}{lw} \right) = 10lw + \frac{120}{w} + \frac{120}{l}$$

Step 3: Find critical points. Set the partial derivatives of $C(l, w)$ with respect to l and w to zero.

$$C_l = \frac{\partial C}{\partial l} = 10w - \frac{120}{l^2} = 0 \implies 10wl^2 = 120 \implies w = \frac{12}{l^2} \quad (1)$$

$$C_w = \frac{\partial C}{\partial w} = 10l - \frac{120}{w^2} = 0 \implies 10lw^2 = 120 \implies l = \frac{12}{w^2} \quad (2)$$

Substitute the expression for w from (1) into (2):

$$l = \frac{12}{(12/l^2)^2} = \frac{12}{144/l^4} = \frac{12l^4}{144} = \frac{l^4}{12}$$

Since we are building a container, $l > 0$, so we can divide by l : $1 = \frac{l^3}{12} \implies l^3 = 12 \implies l = \sqrt[3]{12}$. Now find w using equation (1):

$$w = \frac{12}{l^2} = \frac{12}{(\sqrt[3]{12})^2} = \frac{12}{12^{2/3}} = 12^{1-2/3} = 12^{1/3} = \sqrt[3]{12}$$

So the optimal base is a square, $l = w$. Finally, find the height h :

$$h = \frac{10}{lw} = \frac{10}{\sqrt[3]{12} \cdot \sqrt[3]{12}} = \frac{10}{12^{2/3}}$$

The dimensions that minimize cost are $\mathbf{l} = \mathbf{w} = \sqrt[3]{12} \approx 2.29 \text{ m}$ and $\mathbf{h} = \frac{10}{12^{2/3}} \approx 1.91 \text{ m}$. (A check with the second derivative test would confirm this is a minimum).

Question 38 (Tough). Consider the function $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)^2 - k(x^2 - y^2)$, where k is a constant parameter.

- (a) Show that the origin $(0, 0)$ is a critical point for any value of k .
- (b) Find the Hessian matrix and use the second derivative test to determine how the classification of the critical point at $(0, 0)$ (local min, max, or saddle) depends on the value of k .

Solution. (a) **Show $(0,0)$ is a critical point:** We find the first partial derivatives of $f(x, y) = x^4 + 2x^2y^2 + y^4 - kx^2 + ky^2$. $f_x = 4x^3 + 4xy^2 - 2kx$. $f_y = 4x^2y + 4y^3 + 2ky$. Now evaluate them at the origin $(0, 0)$: $f_x(0, 0) = 4(0)^3 + 4(0)(0)^2 - 2k(0) = 0$. $f_y(0, 0) = 4(0)^2(0) + 4(0)^3 + 2k(0) = 0$. Since $\nabla f(0, 0) = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$ for any value of k , the origin is always a critical point.

- (b) **Classify the critical point based on k :** We find the second partial derivatives to construct the Hessian matrix. $f_{xx} = 12x^2 + 4y^2 - 2k$. $f_{yy} = 4x^2 + 12y^2 + 2k$. $f_{xy} = 8xy$. Now evaluate the Hessian at the origin $(0, 0)$: $H(0, 0) = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx}(0, 0) & f_{xy}(0, 0) \\ f_{yx}(0, 0) & f_{yy}(0, 0) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2k & 0 \\ 0 & 2k \end{pmatrix}$. The determinant of the Hessian at the origin is $D = (-2k)(2k) - (0)^2 = -4k^2$.

We analyze the classification based on the values of D and f_{xx} :

- **Case 1:** $k \neq 0$. In this case, $k^2 > 0$, so the determinant $D = -4k^2$ will always be negative. If $D < 0$, the critical point is a **saddle point**. This is true for any non-zero value of k .
- **Case 2:** $k = 0$. If $k = 0$, the determinant $D = -4(0)^2 = 0$. When $D = 0$, the second derivative test is inconclusive. We must investigate the function itself. If $k = 0$, the function becomes $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)^2$. At the critical point $(0, 0)$, $f(0, 0) = 0$. For any other point $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$, the term $x^2 + y^2$ is a positive number, and so is $(x^2 + y^2)^2$. Thus, $f(x, y) > f(0, 0)$ for all points in the neighborhood of the origin. This means that for $k = 0$, the origin is a **local minimum** (in fact, it is a global minimum).

Summary:

- If $k \neq 0$, the origin is a **saddle point**.
- If $k = 0$, the origin is a **local minimum**.